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Investigating a shift in instructional approach in second language listening pedagogy at a university-based intensive English program

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Dissertation

INVESTIGATING A SHIFT IN INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACH IN SECOND LANGUAGE LISTENING PEDAGOGY AT A UNIVERSITY-BASED INTENSIVE ENGLISH PROGRAM

by

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DEDICATION

To Franz, Helen, and my parents, Ed & Sandy

For unending love and support

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ABSTRACT

For this dissertation, I had the opportunity to investigate a well-established university-based intensive English program in the northeastern United States as it transitioned from an integrated-skills to a paired-skills approach. My goal as a researcher was to investigate in what ways *listening*, the second language (L2) skill researchers view as the least understood and the least practiced (Field, 2019; Graham, 2017; Graham, Santos, & Francis-Brophy, 2013; Siegel, 2018; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012), was receiving attention, programmatically as well as pedagogically, in the new paired-skills approach, and how that attention manifested in the classroom. Toward this goal, through interviews with program leaders and experienced instructors, I explored what they considered as key pedagogical challenges and opportunities in L2 listening in the earlier integrated skills program and in the new paired skills program. Through classroom observation, I documented how instructors approached L2 listening pedagogy in the new paired-skills program. Analysis of instructor interviews showed that instructors described using a wide variety of content-based approaches when teaching L2 listening in the integrated skills approach. In the new paired-skills approach, they

described encountering many challenges with L2 listening pedagogy they had yet to resolve. Analysis of classroom observations in the paired skills program revealed that instructors mostly structured lessons with before-listening activities, with a preference for activating background knowledge via vocabulary preview and discussion based on textbook themes. A synthesis of case study findings across program leaders and instructors revealed that teachers structured different kinds of listening experiences for students but did not engage in explicit instruction in L2 listening focused on specific features of bi- and multi-directional spoken language nor did they offer much during listening instruction. Overall, the findings suggest the need to develop more curricular and professional development materials to assist instructors in further developing L2 listening pedagogy, curriculum and assessment in their classroom instruction.

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CHAPTER ONE:

Introduction

The ability to hear, listen to, and comprehend a spoken utterance may seem relatively straightforward to monolingual language speakers, but it is often a source of difficulty and frustration for second and foreign language (L2) learners (e.g., Field, 2008; Vandergrift, 2007). Many researchers in the fields of applied linguistics and language education recognize that listening is an underdeveloped area in L2 practice (Chen, 2013; Goh, 2000; Graham, 2017; Siegel, 2016a; Vandergrift, 2007). Although these researchers have suggested that certain features of a language should be highlighted when learning to listen in an L2, what constitutes an effective listening instructional practice remains an open question.

Researchers have identified important challenges in listening faced by L2 learners (Arnold, 2000; Carrell, Dunkel, & Mollaun, 2004; Chang, Millett, & Renandya, 2018; Chang & Millett, 2014; Chang & Read, 2007; Chen, 2009, 2013; Cross, 2010; Cook & Liddicoat, 2002; Field, 2004; Goh, 1998, 2000, 2002, 2008; Graham, 2006, 2017; Graham & Santos, 2015; Graham, Santos, & Francis-Brophy, 2014; Siegel, 2016a, 2016b; Vandergrift, 2003a, 2003b; Vandergrift & Baker, 2015; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010) (see Appendix A for overview of individual studies). They have noted the following linguistic and pragmatic challenges for L2 learners[1]: a) ***perception*** (i.e., ability to recognize familiar vocabulary in the speech stream), b) ***parsing*** (i.e.,

[1] Clark and Clark (1977) were the first to mention perception, parsing, and utilization. Anderson (1995) later developed the terms into what he calls the three-stage model of listening comprehension.

ability to form an understanding of the intended meaning of words as part of phrases) (Goh, 2000; Graham, 2017), and c) ***utilization*** (i.e., ability to understand the intended message including its pragmatic implications) (Goh, 2000). Thus, the nature of listening is complex, and a focus on the features of spoken (versus written) language is important, especially when considering listening in academic settings.

Problem Statement

For their part, L2 learners tend to identify listening challenges based on vocabulary challenges such as "too many new words in the audio." L2 learners in academic contexts report that they are more familiar with the spelling of words than their sounds (see Siegel, 2016b). Thus, while students find it easier to recognize some words when reading a transcript, they have difficulty recognizing them while listening without reading. This is true even for some less challenging, basic words (e.g., function words such as articles, prepositions, and auxiliary verbs).

This problem may reflect a systemic issue in L2 teaching where students who study English for academic purposes are required to memorize word meanings and spellings, but are not required to learn the pronunciations (Nation, 2001; Siegel, 2016b). Some textbooks usefully show how stress affects meaning in English and how stress on different words can change the meaning of a sentence (Reed & Michaud, 2005). But a lack of focus on pronunciation in EAP L2 instruction makes it challenging for students to associate sounds with written words and pragmatic meaning.

Therefore, student learning may be limited when words, phrases, or sentences are more frequently encountered visually than aurally in listening development. In other

words, listening instruction that focuses on visual representation at the lexical, phrasal, and sentence level but does not address the corresponding aural processing might not serve L2 learners. Important examples include deleted sounds, co-articulated words, or prosodic contours that signal pragmatic meaning in discourse. In other words, learners who are receiving aural input only lack many of the cues that learners who are only reading (and not listening) have access to. For example, Vandergrift and Baker (2015) have claimed that learning to listen in an L2 differs from learning to read in an L2 in three central ways: (1) listening takes place in real time, so the listener does not have the option of reviewing the information presented and has little control over the speed of input; (2) while readers have the luxury of spaces between words, listeners must apply phonological knowledge to the comprehension process to segment the sound stream into meaningful units and process them quickly – so they must hold a lot of information in their working memory; (3) listening comprehension is more sensitive to context, which necessitates attention to prosodic features such as stress and intonation which carry important information.

It is important to note though that language learners who are learning to listen in an L2 may not even be aware of these limitations, because English does not sound the way it looks and the sounds a learner hears – and the sounds a speaker says – may not match the dictionary pronunciation. Learners may not know that English speakers use patterns to modify and omit sounds. For example, often sounds are deleted and a conversation can include words with sounds that were never pronounced, such as the sound of the letter “h” in words like “he” or “his.” L2 listeners often do not hear these

sounds in a sentence like "Is he in his office? Try him on his cell phone[2]" [ɪz ~~h~~i ɪn ~~h~~ɪz ˈɔfəs? traɪ ~~h~~ɪm ɑn ~~h~~ɪz sɛl foʊn]. In this example, the omitted "h" sounds (indicated by a strike through) not only prevent L2 listeners from hearing the "h" sound because the speaker did not say them, instructors themselves may not consider raising attention to this in their L2 instruction and assessment. This may result in a disservice to L2 English learners who need more fine-tuned listening comprehension strategies in order to not only increase their scores on required standardized university admissions' tests but to be conscious of these English sound concepts to enhance classroom-based oral communication once they become more fully matriculated university students.

It is not known how or to what extent L2 listening instructors aim to modify learners' sensitivity to sound patterns, in particular to draw attention to the hidden aspects of English such as deleted /h/ and other sounds and words that are seemingly omitted from the speech stream when content words (e.g., nouns, verbs, adjectives) are normally stressed in oral communication to be louder, longer, higher, and clearer and, therefore, more easily recognized in the flow of speech. Thus, it is important to understand how instructors approach L2 listening instruction in order to prepare L2 listeners for more authentic engagement with English as the medium of instruction at the university-level. Working from a different angle, educators and researchers such as Chen (2013), Reed and Michaud (2015), and Vandergrift and Goh (2012) argue that if students had a better understanding of their difficulties, then they might be more willing to employ more

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[2] Example borrowed from Reed, M. & Michaud, C. (2005). *Sound concepts: An integrated pronunciation course*. McGraw-Hill, pp. 6-7.

effective strategies in learning. Chen (2013) captures what these three sources intend as focusing on "enhancing learners' strategic awareness and strategy use" (pp. 76-77) with the aim of improving their listening performance and self-directed learning.

To these identified dimensions of the L2 listening challenge, I bring my own experience as an English Language Teacher (ELT) who has worked with postsecondary L2 English learners at a university-based Intensive English Program (IEP) for more than ten years. As an experienced ELT, I have observed that once university-age L2 learners reach the intermediate level (or above), they prefer to have concrete strategies to support the development of their listening comprehension. Helgesen and Brown (2007) make a similar observation: "While learning strategies can be and are used at all levels of language learning, for many students, the intermediate level is the time when they really begin to take control of their own learning and identify those ways of learning they like best" (p. 66). For example, instead of just hearing a teacher say, "listen and take notes," L2 listeners want to know what exactly they should attend to when they encounter a spoken text. As adult L2 learners, they already have strategies for learning both content and language that they developed in their L1, but they need support in order to know how to go from unconscious acquisition of their L1 to conscious attention in their L2 before they move to an unconscious level of competence in their L2.

Knowing a word's printed form is not enough; listeners must also be able to segment utterances into recognizable words and handle the fact that there may not be just one phonological representation of a word (Goh, 2000; Siegel, 2016b). Goh (2000) also raises another issue: inaccurate phonological representation of lexical items which blocks

recognition (e.g., BEning for 'benign') as well as the effects of co-articulation, to render known words unrecognizable in continuous speech. The diverse phonological forms may be due to a word's context in the utterance, the speed at which it is spoken, or the variety of speech used by the speaker (Buck, 2001; Cutler, 2012; Cauldwell, 2013).

Learners who are pursuing higher education face multiple challenges when it comes to core skills like speaking and listening. Goh (2014) argues that "L2 oracy is essential for academic learning, creative and critical thinking, collaboration and innovation in our globalized world of the 21st century" (p. 1). Almost twenty-five years ago, Rubin (1995) claimed that "50% of a person's time is spent is listening" (p. 7). This percentage has only increased in the digital age. L2 listeners not only listen to unidirectional academic lectures, but also listen to multi-party talk and discussion, via various platforms that require the ability "to understand in the speech stream words that they 'know' in print" in order to keep pace in real time listening contexts (Siegel, 2016b, pp. 377-378).

According to Graham (2017), these L2 listening challenges require monitoring in order to enhance listening comprehension. In multiparty talk, the challenge to perceive, parse, and utilize language in the flow of discourse is heightened in these various – both real and virtual – communicative situations. This view is grounded in various theories of listening. For instance:

> Clark and Clark (1977) hypothesize that learners first deal with raw speech at the acoustic level before mentally organizing pieces of input into constituent parts. This framework is similar to Anderson's (2005) stages

> of phoneme perception and parsing, which involve recognizing individual and combined sounds and the ability to segment the speech stream into words and meaningful chunks. (As cited in Siegel, 2016b, p. 380).

For L2 learners who have studied grammar and vocabulary in their printed forms via reading tasks, learning to categorize speech sounds can be challenging. This can be particularly complicated for those L2 listeners who have had less exposure to the oral/aural forms of academic discourse and more exposure to their print (i.e., orthographic) counterparts. Although in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) contexts, listening and reading may seem closely linked because they both involve language processing contextualized in students' real-world experiences and an understanding of the lexical, morphosyntactic, pragmatic, and discourse features of the input, L2 learners may perceive *spoken texts* as incomprehensible because they seem fast, continuous, and variable.

An additional challenge debated in the literature has to do with how both less-skilled and more-skilled learners apply their first language (L1) background knowledge to help overcome problems of listening comprehension (Field, 2004; Goh, 2000; Graham, 2017). Field (2004) has found that some learners may have challenges positively transferring their L1 listening strategies when they encounter new, unknown vocabulary in an L2. In contrast, Goh (2000) has argued that if listeners are encouraged to use more of their L1 strategies, such as the "metacognitive strategy of directed attention to bring their attention back to the unfolding [listening] text and continue with listening" when they encounter a problematic part of the listening text, then they will improve their

performance in L2 listening (p. 68).

Although many post-secondary students acquiring English for Academic Purposes have strategies for writing an essay or giving an oral presentation, very few have strategies for *how to listen*. They often tell me that if they just "listen harder," then they will understand. As Graham (2017) says: "practice and contact with spoken language alone are insufficient to improve how well learners listen" (p. 6). In other words, practice does not necessarily make perfect.

Background for the Current Study

Quite recently, an established university-based intensive English program (IEP) that aims to empower international students and professionals to succeed in their academic and professional lives through innovative, high-quality teaching of English language and cultural competence decided to revise its 40-year-old integrated-skills curriculum. Historically, the program had combined the four major skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking into one uniform course (i.e., integrated-skills), which met for fifteen hours a week for a twelve-week period. Under the newly revised program, skills such as listening and speaking, were now combined (i.e., paired-skills), and the listening/speaking course ran for six hours a week for six weeks (reading and writing met for nine hours a week). Additionally, students in the program are now placed, based on diagnostic evaluation, into courses by their performance in individual skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) rather than by their combined score for all four skills. Thus, a student who is considered to be a high-level writer but a low-level listener can take two different courses at two different levels.

The program, with its vastly experienced faculty and staff, is a well-known program that advocates for the advancement of professional standards and quality instruction. However, little is known about its *actual* teaching practices – particularly in terms of its attention to L2 listening. Hypothetically, under the new paired-skills focus, the program should be shining a light on L2 listening pedagogy. Thus, the shift in program approach became an opportune moment for me as a researcher to document how experienced faculty and staff conceptualizeL2 listening instruction and enact it in their courses. In addition

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate how L2 listening skill (Field, 2019; Graham, 2017; Graham, Santos, & Francis-Brophy, 2013; Siegel, 2018; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012) was receiving attention, programmatically as well as pedagogically, in the new paired-skills approach and whether the shift from an integrated skill to a paired skills program provided instructors more space to engage in L2 listening pedagogy, both through instruction and assessment. The study also aimed to explore how experienced instructors talked about or were observed to attend to their learners' listening challenges.

More broadly, this dissertation is intended to directly respond to the call for more research studies that center around program leaders' and practitioners' understandings of students' L2 listening development. The field lacks studies that involve postsecondary L2 teachers as the central participants to investigate what L2 listening strategies they use or what strategies they instruct students to use, as well as which empirically-supported strategies they reject and/or demonstrate an uptake for in their classroom practice. For

example, even though the effectiveness of listening strategy instruction on improving learners' listening proficiency has been recognized across various studies in a range of settings, most of these studies have been based on quantitative pre- and post-test designs measured by learners' gains on listening tests (Arnold, 2000; Carrell et al., 2004; Chang et al., 2018; Chang & Millett, 2014; Chang & Read, 2007; Cross, 2010; Field, 2004; Jensen & Vinther, 2003; Kiany & Shiramiry, 2002; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010; Wang & Treffers-Daller, 2017; and Yeldham & Gruba, 2016) or on increases in the number of listening strategies used (Chen, 2009; Goh, 1998). Few studies have focused on what instructors consider to be key challenges and opportunities in L2 listening during the process of strategy instruction, nor have researchers documented how instructors adapt their instruction to overcome learner obstacles that occur during the listening process. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate challenges and opportunities articulated by program directors and instructions in a university-based program as it aims to focus more on the pairing than the integrating of key language skills.

Research Questions

Toward this goal, through interviews with program leaders and experienced instructors, I explored, what they considered as key pedagogical challenges and opportunities in L2 listening in the earlier integrated skills program and in the new paired skills program. Through classroom observation, I documented how instructors approached L2 listening pedagogy in the new paired-skills program. The study used a case study methodology in order to provide a multi-sided description of L2

listening pedagogy at the institutional level by focusing on various aspects of one large intensive English program (IEP) at a U.S. university (Yin, 2014).

In the first part of the study, I explored the history and challenges of the academically-oriented IEP. Through interviews, I examined the rationale behind two key stake-holders' (i.e., the academic leadership) decision to revise the former academic curriculum from an integrated-skills to a paired-skills approach, which also now required new (formative and summative) assessments. In the following chapters, I describe the history and current challenges of the program and how those conjectures influenced curriculum revision. I have done this in order to probe for what may have been useful or problematic about L2 listening pedagogy in an integrated-skills approach.

In the second part of the study, I recruited faculty who taught at all skill levels of listening classes to explore their ideas and practices concerning L2 listening pedagogy. Through semi-structured interviews with seven experienced listening instructors, I focused on how participating faculty described their listening pedagogy in both the old and new approaches. I also explored what shifted or not in participating instructors L2 listening pedagogy after the program change.

Finally, the third part of the study involved intensive observations of two invited instructors' listening/speaking classes. In particular, I described instructors' responses to teaching listening paired with speaking in the new curriculum.

The following research questions guided the case study:

RQ 1A: How have historic challenges influenced administrators' decision to move from an integrated-skills to a paired-skills program?

RQ 1B: Do the directors see connections between the skills shift and the new assessment requirement? What connections specifically?

RQ 1C: How do the directors envision that these changes will improve students' learning and what do they see as the key challenges?

RQ 2A: When describing their past experience teaching listening in an integrated-skills context, what do instructors highlight as valued forms of instruction and/or challenges to their work?

RQ 2B: When describing their current experience teaching listening in the paired-skills approach, what has changed specifically in their practice? What are they finding productive? What are they finding challenging?

RQ 3: What listening instructional practices are instructors observed to engage in under the new program emphasis of listening paired with speaking?

Rationale, Relevance, and Significance of the Study

Rationale for the Study

I considered a qualitative case study as the best approach for this study because it could provide the field with a closer level of attention, through detailed descriptions, to complexities of L2 listening in the classroom. It seemed particularly important to focus on this one program because it included unique dimensions, in particular, a culturally and linguistically diverse student population, a range of listening levels. In addition, an academic orientation, and student learning outcomes for the speaking and listening course

focused on the use of both adapted and authentic listening sources. The latter dimension seemed crucial as it provided me with access to a wide range of skill levels and materials that could be used to document the tools instructors use to help students with their university preparation. These, which would no doubt include both lectures and critical discussions – two very different forms of listening, which require different skills as I detail below.

A considerable body of literature exists on the dimensions of L2 listening that use listening comprehension tasks as the main tool for assessing language skills. These empirical studies consider various variables including age, L1 background, ability, and linguistic proficiency according to particular measures established within each individual study which, to the best of my knowledge, favor less-skilled listeners and use unidirectional listening tasks as the main type of linguistic input. Most studies reviewed for this dissertation also occurred in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context where the participating L2 English learners shared the same first language (L1) background. Thus, there is a need to qualitatively understand more about L2 listening pedagogy as a central phenomenon in a multilingual context where L2 learners come from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds.

Nearly all of the studies reviewed focused on unidirectional listening, usually as a form of testing (e.g., Arnold, 2000; Carrell et al., 2004; Chang & Millett, 2014; Chang, Millett, & Renandya, 2018; Chang & Read, 2007). This construction presupposes that students, at all levels, know how to make sense of what an academic interlocutor is expressing, both pragmatically and functionally. It also presumes that if students can

perform well on unidirectional listening tests, then they will be able to manage the even greater cognitive load of multi-party listening contexts such as academic discussion groups. Carrell, Dunkel, and Mollaun (2004), for example, used short scripts in their construction of the listening section for TOEFL, which constrain the listening task. For L2 English students, it is one thing to understand a scripted conversation for 2.5 (or even 5, the long version of scripts) minutes, but another to understand an unscripted classroom lecture of much longer length. Lectures of such brevity are rare in academia. Further, there is evidence of notetaking as a strategy to support L2's listening, but note taking presupposes that the students know how to make sense of what is being communicated in this form of unidirectional listening.

Although a large number of these studies have reported using multiple quantitative assessments [e.g., international standardized tests such as Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), Oxford Quick Placement Test, or Comprehensive English Language Test], these assessments do not provide the field with insight regarding how to assess at the advanced level for multi-party talk (i.e., critical discussions) and what ungraded formative feedback instructors provide L2 listeners with in the process of teaching listening development look like. Though, there exists a plethora of summative L2 listening assessment data that value a test-oriented frame, there are fewer studies that describe *the process of teaching learners how to listen* at the formative level through scaffolding (Siegel, 2012a) and other means such as strategies. In Brindely's (2001) view, "the implementation of outcomes-based assessments and reporting systems in educational programs has been accompanied by a range of political and technical

problems, including tensions between the summative and formative purposes of assessment and doubts around the validity and reliability of teacher-constructed assessment tasks" (p. 393).

Significance of the Study

This study contributes to the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) by providing rich and descriptive insights into the challenges and opportunities related to teaching L2 listening to university-age learners who are motivated to become fully matriculated campus students where English is the Medium of Instruction (EMI). This contribution adds to the field's knowledge about this complex skill through examination of how the skill is conceptualized and taught by seasoned instructors at a well-established university-based IEP in the United States.

In addition, it addresses the need for research that consults key stakeholders, such as program administrators and faculty who teach in language programs, regarding the learning of foundational academic skills, such as listening, in tandem with the development of English proficiency. The study focuses on listening. (i.e., reading, writing, speaking, and listening). More broadly, it aims to improve the scope and quality of L2 listening instruction in an academically-oriented language program, including attention to multi-party listening practices for more skilled listeners.

Nature of the Study

The study employed case-study methodology (Yin, 2014) as present in detail in Chapter 3. I used semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, field notes, and classroom artifacts to answer the call for more research in the area of L2 listening

instruction by investigating programmatic and pedagogical shifts in L2 listening instruction, the least understood and least applied skill (Field, 2019; Graham, 2017; Graham, Santos, & Francis-Brophy, 2013; Siegel, 2018; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).

Case study research in education allows researchers a broad range of methodological tools to answer questions of 'how' and 'why' within a particular real-world context (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019; Grauer, 2012; Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2003, 2014). Some researchers see case study research as an adaptable and preferred method of research because "it may be epistemologically in harmony with the reader's experience and thus to that person a natural basis for generalization" (Grauer, 2012, p. 69). Case study approaches also showcase the viability and complexity of the cases. Case studies, as used for pedagogical purposes, tell the story of a particular educational context so that teachers can understand the complexities of analysis and the possible search for solutions. As a research method, case studies also analyze a particular set of issues within the educational context and can be used in narrative form to serve as the basis of a pedagogical tool (Grauer, 2012). Case study research excels at bringing readers to an understanding of a complex issue and can extend experience or add strength to what is already known through previous research.

Summary and Organization of the Remainder of the Study

In sum, many researchers in the fields of applied linguistics and language education recognize that listening needs further development in L2 practice (Chen, 2013; Goh, 2000; Graham, 2017; Siegel, 2016a; Vandergrift, 2007), and the recent program change at an established university-based IEP provided an opportune moment for me to

explore what a more focused L2 listening practice might look like in action by observing seasoned instructors and by talking to key stake-holders about their challenges and opportunities with L2 listening pedagogy. Chapter 2 presents a review of potentially useful instructional strategies for improving L2 listening, specifically for learners who are pursuing higher education where EMI will be used. Chapter 3 describes the methodology, research design, and procedures for this investigation. Chapters 4-6 discuss findings from interviews and classroom observations. Chapter 7 looks across the case study, as it relates to the existing body of research related to L2 listening pedagogy and implications for L2 listening instruction.

CHAPTER TWO:

Relevant Research and Scholarship

How does research on strategies for improving listening relate to the purposes in this study? The goal of this literature review is to describe L2 research that has identified potentially useful instructional strategies for improving L2 listening, specifically for learners who are pursuing higher education where English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) will be used, as a process and to determine what evidence exists for the effectiveness of the identified strategies. Most of the above identified learner challenges, such as rapid speech and difficulty recognizing known words in the stream of speech, have been situated within a cognitive-linguistic framework. Other frames, such as metacognitive and social/affective frames, in the L2 listening research literature have also examined strategies that seem to be more or less effective in improving L2 listening comprehension. While Chapter 1 was about understanding instruction, this chapter is framed around what the field knows about listening strategies, rather than what the field knows (and does not know) about teaching listening strategies.

By describing the state of the research on L2 listening strategies, I hope to gain a better sense of what effective L2 listening pedagogy might look like as a way to inform the broader study. More specifically, this review examines the following two questions:

1. What strategies have been identified in research on L2 listening as potentially useful in improving L2 listening comprehension for learners who are pursuing higher education?

2. What is the evidence for the effectiveness of the identified strategies in promoting L2 listening comprehension for learners who are pursuing higher education?

Strategy Instruction

Many researchers have explored the effects of strategy use to see if specific strategies can help promote L2 listening development. A strategy has been defined as "an action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language" (Cohen, 1998, p. 4). In the 1990s, Chamot et al. (1999), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and Oxford (1990) provided models of Strategy Instruction (SI). These models shared some similar steps such as *raising strategic awareness*, *modeling*, *practicing*, and *evaluating strategy use*.

Particularly for listening SI, Mendelsohn (1994) proposed a strategy-based approach which provides structured rationales, procedures, and implementations for strategy instruction in L2 listening. Goh (2000) also proposed types of strategy practice for improving listening comprehension such as: for perception practice, "listen to how new vocabulary items are pronounced"; for cognitive tactics, "infer missing or unfamiliar words using contexts, co-text, and prior knowledge"; for metacognitive tactics, "rehearse the pronunciation of potential content words"; and for social-affective tactics, "ask speaker for clarification and repetition" (Goh, 2000, Table 3, p. 73). Similarly, Chamot (1995) suggested procedures for integrated listening SI such as identifying students' listening strategies, raising their metacognitive awareness, modeling the selected

strategies through thinking-aloud, discussing what strategies are used before, and encouraging students to plan, practice, and reflect on their strategies. In doing so, learners might be able to transfer existing approaches to listening in an L1 to new listening tasks and achieve successful listening in both unidirectional listening contexts, such as lectures, and multidirectional contexts, such as discussions in an L2.

More recently, research in various settings has also indicated that SI is crucial in addressing L2 learners' listening challenges (Chen, 2009; Goh, 2002; Graham, Santos, & Vanderplank, 2011). In addition, other studies have found that learners with positive self-beliefs and strong efficacy not only seem to have better control and knowledge of learner strategies, but also use a wider range of strategies (Graham, 2006).

In sum, a strategic teaching frame may afford more opportunities to intentionally explore the meaning of the target language as well as some of the more complicated processes such as drawing learners' attention to specific linguistic elements (e.g., grammar, vocabulary, phonology) during a communicative task (e.g., listening to a text and discussing it with peers in class). How researchers conceptualize listening then becomes an important lens to explore both in thinking about strategy instruction *and* for situating the study. Therefore, there is a focus on what constitutes listening comprehension as directly relevant to the dissertation.

Conceptual Framework: Ability vs. Process

Before I examine the research on L2 listening pedagogy, I first describe two competing definitions of L2 listening comprehension that prevail in the field: *listening as an ability* and *listening as a process*.

Listening as an ability. The first definition conceptualizes ***listening as an ability.*** Buck (2001, p.114) defines L2 listening as:

> the ability to: 1) process extended samples of realistic spoken language, automatically and in real time; 2) understand the linguistic information that is unequivocally included in the text; and, 3) make whatever inferences are unambiguously implicated by the content of the passage.

Buck's definition (2001) has been endorsed by Vandergrift and Baker (2015). This working description of L2 listening has largely been developed within a testing frame, and Buck has certainly defined it within an assessment focus. This definition is useful for a testing situation, but creates a tension for a teaching environment, even though Buck (2001) has clearly tried to combine testing – or competence-based models – with less controlled task-based models.

For instance, the first point, *processing extended samples of realistic spoken language,* is part of a task-based model. In a task-based lesson, the teacher does not pre-determine what aspects of the target L2 language will be studied; the lesson is based around the completion of a central task and the language aspects studied are determined by what happens as the students complete it. This can be helpful when the teacher introduces a topic, at the pre-task stage, and gives the students clear instructions on what they will have to do at the task stage, and might help the students to recall some language that may be useful for the task. The pre-task stage can also often include playing a recording of people doing the task. This gives the students a clear model of what will be expected of them. Students can take notes and spend time preparing for the task. During

the task-phase, students complete a task in pairs or groups using the language resources that they have as the teacher monitors and offers encouragement.

The second and third points, *understand the linguistic information that is unequivocally included in the text* and *make whatever inferences are unambiguously implicated by the content of the passage*, relate to aspects of a competence-based model. A competence-based model is an approach to teaching and learning where the unit of learning is extremely fine-grained (e.g., understanding the difference between a main idea and a supporting detail). Every individual skill or learning outcome (known as a competency) is a single instructional unit. Learners work on one competency at a time, which is a small component of a larger learning goal. The student is evaluated on the individual competency and can only move on to other competencies after demonstrating mastery of the skill being learned. After that, higher or more complex competencies are learned to mastery as they are also isolated from other topics. Another common component of competency-based learning is the ability to skip learning modules entirely if the learner can demonstrate mastery. This can be determined through prior learning assessment or formative testing.

A potential problem with the listening as an ability paradigm is that inferences by their very nature are often ambiguous (i.e., not "unambiguously implicated"). Thus, to assess only those inferences that are "unambiguous" would preclude many inferences a listener needs to make in virtually every listening task. Through a prosodic/pragmatic lens, it is not what a person says in English (or any language), but how they say it that reflects communicative intent. As Goh's (2000) previous example of a student-identified

L2 listening challenge related to *utilization* of the target language suggests, students understand the words, but not the message.

Although it is possible that Buck (2001) was aware of this potential problem with his definition, which may reflect an attempt at developing a definition based on the interaction of competence and task, it still reflects a traditional, systematic focus on testing rather than teaching learners how to learn to listen and listen to learn. Buck's (2001) proposed definition for listening reflects an underlying assumption that listening equals how much information each student can grasp from the speech, and the more, the better. This conforms to a testing frame because it is focused on the products of listening, that is, did a listener draw the right inferences and comprehend correctly rather than on learning how to listen. Buck's definition makes sense if a teacher's goal is to help students prepare for English tests. However, if a teacher's goal is to prepare students for their academic studies, there is a need to incorporate the "listening as a process" perspective in teaching and learning.

Listening as a process. Other researchers have proposed that we look at ***listening as a process*** (e.g., Chen, 2013; Goh, 2000; Graham, 2006). Under this paradigm, L2 listening is defined as an "active and complex process, in which listeners combine the detection of sounds, meaning of vocabulary, and grammatical structures and interpretation of stress and intonation, and finally interpret it within the immediate and … larger sociocultural context" (An & Shi, 2013, p. 632).

In this view, the listening process is the continuing construction and interpretation of meaning of the spoken input. Thus, the ability to adjust the interpretation – especially

new information – becomes crucial as L2 listeners engage in processes of decoding, comprehending, and interpreting multiple levels of information. In this process learners must use their knowledge of context, language, and sound to comprehend and respond to the incoming information. By viewing L2 listening as a process, the focus shifts away from "Can you listen and respond to quiz-like questions accurately?" to "What steps are you aware you have to take to try to understand what the target spoken language means?" This shift helps move L2 listeners beyond mere recognition of words within connected speech to what the words mean. In this light, it becomes the role of the language instructor to make this process transparent. Given the complexity of L2 listening, as Buck (2001) has emphasized, and because the process of listening is largely unobservable, it may be difficult for learners (and teachers) to have a clear understanding of how they go about listening in a foreign language, or, more importantly, how they might improve their performance (Graham, 2006).

The difference in definitions exemplifies the prevailing tension between testing and teaching L2 listening, a tension reflected in many of the studies to be reviewed here. Mendelsohn (2006) cautioned those interested in L2 listening development about this many years ago when he said: "Much of what is traditionally mis-named teaching listening should in fact be called testing listening" (p. 75). Historically, this reflects the pattern of both ESL and EFL listening and speaking classes having been taught by Native Speakers of English. As L1 listeners, these teachers may process listening input automatically without much conscious attention to word-by-word input. In contrast, most L2 listeners need to consciously decode the details and construct the meaning of the

listening input. Comprehension usually breaks down due to limitations of working memory and learners' L2 listening knowledge (Vandergrift, 2004).

Given the complexities of the phenomena, it is crucial to consider the interactions among context, language, and sound in L2 listening instruction, and how language teachers can facilitate L2 listening development in the most effective ways possible at the postsecondary-level. The aim of process-based listening instruction is to improve L2 listening pedagogy so language teachers can be more aware of how they might build L2 listening skills incrementally for their students rather than simply testing comprehension.

Methodology

To construct and execute this literature review, I focused on studies from peer-reviewed journals, and included quantitative, qualitative and mixed-method studies. I excluded virtually all mention of secondary sources except for those that helped me with my problem space framework and are considered central to the field because of their contribution to scholarship (e.g., Brown, Bransford, Ferrara, & Campione, 1983; Buck, 2001; Chamot, 1995; Chamot, Barnhardt, EI-Dinary, & Robbins, 1999; Graham, 2017; Vandergrift, 2007). For example, Vandergrift's (2007) state-of-the-art survey of all L2 listening development research through 2007 provided 155 relevant sources for me to review; Buck's (2001) *Listening Assessment* provided a definition of L2 listening comprehension through a testing lens; and Graham's (2017) *Research into practice: Listening strategies in an instructed classroom setting* provided a more recent review on research related to L2 listening classroom instruction. I then narrowed the results of the strictly empirical studies as described in the next section.

Organization of Research Studies

In addition to the secondary sources above, I drew on Chen's (2009) Listening Strategies Classification Scheme, which is relatively new to the field, but helpful when sorting Strategy Instruction (SI) categorically. Chen's scheme also traces some of the major contributors in the field, such as Goh, Graham, and Vandergrift, and builds from Vandergrift's (1997) and Goh's (2002) work in particular. Chen (2009) created the "Listening Strategies Classification Scheme" in order to synthesize and diagram L2 learners' reported listening strategy use. Her scheme identified three general categories of strategies: Cognitive, Metacognitive, and Social/Affective, which I will explain in the body of the review.

Building from Chen's classification, this literature review describes empirical studies related to each of the identified strategies employed by L2 learners. This classification scheme proved useful in narrowing down the scope of relevant sources. I am also augmenting Chen's classification by adding a fourth classification of "mixed strategies" because I found that some researchers conceptualized L2 listening along a continuum of cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective perspectives. This continuum reflects a view of listening as process.

Sources

I started with Vandergrift's (2007) state-of-the-art meta-analysis, which covered foundational developments in L2 and foreign language listening comprehension research through the early part of the 21st century. This produced 155 sources. I then looked at the sources within his review that were specific to listening at either cognitive,

metacognitive, or social/affective levels. I then expanded the search for post-2007 studies related to L2 listening and cognition, metacognition, or social/affective levels since the meta-analysis was more than 10 years old. I closely read and alphabetically logged 72 of these sources according to: the source, type of study (e.g., quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods, or theoretical), problem/issue, research question(s)/hypothesis, sample/participants, research method, analysis, major findings, limitations (from the article), critique (issues not addressed in limitations), and notes on how the study might inform L2 listening pedagogy. I then adjusted this once again for empirical studies rather than theoretical papers, and reduced the number to 42. From this, I examined the log for empirical studies that had a specific focus on some type of exploration of the process in developing L2 listening skills and thus focused again on those that pertained to the use of strategies and reduced the number to 25.

Participants in Postsecondary L2 Listening Research

Due to the fact that I am more interested in an L2 listening pedagogy that best supports L2 listeners who are either preparing for university or in university, I excluded the empirical studies that focused on subjects at the primary- and secondary-levels and focused exclusively on post-secondary sources, which narrowed the number of studies to 18. As I did this, I noticed two additional common variables in the studies: language background and skilled/less-skilled listeners. I then sorted according to whether the students in the selected studies were considered by the researcher(s) as either less-, mixed-, or more-skilled L2 listeners. I also looked at whether or not participants had come from the same L1 background or not, as this could complicate interpretation of

results that examine the use of SI.

L1 background. Of the 18 postsecondary L2 listening studies with a focus on strategy, 15 focused on subjects with the same L1 background; only three focused on post-secondary studies with mixed L1 backgrounds.

Skilled- and less-skilled listeners. I then sorted by less-skilled and more-skilled (whenever possible) focal points in the studies, and sorted according to whether the students in the study were considered to be less- or more-skilled listeners.

Of the 15 post-secondary shared L1 background studies, nine examined less-skilled listeners, two looked at more-skilled listeners, and five considered combining and/or dividing participants [e.g., Cross (2011) considered his participants less-skilled L2 listeners, but divided them into less-skilled and more-skilled groups for the study]. This comparative-grouping and/or relative-skill grouping was common in almost all of the studies.

Of the three postsecondary/mixed language background studies, only Field (2004) explicitly highlighted that participants in his study (n=47) were less-skilled, placing at the higher elementary- and lower intermediate-levels. In the other two studies (Carrell, Dunkel, & Mollaun, 2004; Vandergrift, 2003b), participants were of various language level abilities. See Appendix A: Overview of Individual Studies for more details.

Summary of Methodology for Review

In total, for this paper I reviewed 18 postsecondary empirical studies: nine quantitative (Carrell, Dunkel, & Mollaun, 2004; Chang, Millett, & Renandya, 2018; Chang & Millett, 2014; Cross, 2010; Field, 2004; Jensen & Vinther, 2003; Kiany &

Shiramiry, 2002; Matthews & Cheng, 2015; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010), six mixed-methods (Cheng & Read, 2007; Chen, 2009, 2013; Goh, 1998; Siegel, 2016a; Yelham & Gruba, 2016), and two qualitative (Goh, 2000; Vandergrift, 2003b). The review necessarily focuses more on less-skilled L2 studies, but includes the other levels, too, as noted in the body of the review. All of these studies looked at students as subjects, not teachers. For more details, see Appendix B: Studies Categorized by Language Backgrounds and Skill Level.

Results

This literature review is organized using Chen's (2009) Listening Strategies Classification Scheme of cognitive, metacognitive, and social-affective strategies. This scheme relates back to the distinction between ability and process, above, by focusing on strategies learners can use while in the process of learning to comprehend via listening as opposed to focusing on what students have already learned by testing listening (Mendelsohn, 1994; Vandergrift, 2004). For each strategy, I outline the basic tenets, elaborating them with reference to the broader literature, and describe the relevant research, emphasizing the questions posed, methods, and findings, including limitations. I include a category, Mixed Strategies, not a part of Chen's scheme, to account for studies that combine elements of cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective strategies, which relates to the ability/process distinction that exists in current listening research studies, but expands it to include further complexities of L2 listening which perhaps the ability/process distinction has occluded.

Cognitive Strategies: Overview of Listening Processes

A cognitive strategy is defined by Vandergrift (1997, p. 391) as a "mental activity for manipulating the language to accomplish a task." For the purpose of this review, a cognitive strategy, as an L2 learner listening strategy, means the use of linguistic knowledge (e.g., vocabulary and syntax) and pragmatic knowledge (e.g., topic, text, structure, schema and culture) (Vandergrift & Baker, 2015) to comprehend spoken language, which is similar to how learners process reading. Like reading, listening also entails top-down and bottom-up processing to apply varied knowledge sources to the language input during comprehension. "Both listening and reading necessitate cognitive processing that is flexible and adaptable to task demands in order to construct in memory a mental representation of what has been comprehended" (Vandergrift & Baker, 2015, p. 393).

However, listeners, unlike readers, need to comprehend language as it is spoken. They must attend to additional factors that complicate the comprehension process, making it more cognitively demanding than reading (Buck, 2001; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012) for a few reasons. For one, listening takes place in real time; the listener does not have the option of reviewing the information presented and has little control over the speed of the input. For another, in contrast to readers who have the luxury of spaces between words, listeners must apply phonological knowledge to the comprehension process to segment the sound stream (often unclear) into meaningful units and process them quickly. Given that L2 listeners have neither the luxury of reviewing information heard nor spaces between the words in a message, their working memory may be more

taxed when listening. Also, listening comprehension is highly context sensitive, necessitating attention to prosodic features such as stress and intonation, which carry important information. All of these factors add to the complexity of listening. As Vandergrift & Baker (2015) explained, "(u)sing the jigsaw puzzle as a metaphor for the comprehension process, Lund (1991) noted that listeners begin the comprehension puzzle with fewer pieces face up than readers: The overall contours of meaning are often less clear to listeners when they begin, and they have no stable visual text elements for reference" (p. 393).

In the L2 literature, cognitive strategies are divided into top down, bottom up and interactive. According to Hulstijn (2003), linguistic knowledge and world knowledge interact in parallel fashion as learners create a mental representation of what they are hearing. Listeners generally apply these knowledge sources using top down *and* bottom up processes (Vandergrift, 2007). Listeners may also use these processes adaptively. For example, "listeners favor top down processes when they use context and prior knowledge (topic, genre, culture, and other schema knowledge stored in long-term memory) to build a conceptual framework for comprehension" (Vandergrift, 2007, p. 193). But when listeners construct meaning from the phoneme-level up to discourse-level, they favor bottom up processes. Bottom up processes are typically developed through practice in word segmentation skills.

Although these processes interact, the degree to which listeners use one process more than the other will depend on their purpose for listening, level of proficiency, and context of the listening event. Although this study is describing how language instructors

conceptualize and teach listening, the particular focus on students' use of strategies relate to this larger purpose because they give us much needed evidence for what learning an L2 as an older learner (e.g., age 18+ years) might entail. In the following sections, I examine studies that look at strategy use among more and less proficient learners in listening contexts. I begin by describing 15 studies as they relate to top-down, bottom-up, and interactive cognitive processes involved in L2 listening.

Top-Down Processing Studies

How do L2 learners use contextual clues to work out meaning? Top-down processing strategies in L2 research have been studied through attention to note-taking and inferencing. The following three studies examine the role(s) of note-taking and inferencing as strategies for improving L2 listening comprehension.

Note-taking in L2 listening. Using an experimental design, Carrell, Dunkel, and Mollaun (2004) examined note-taking as a strategy for improving listening comprehension performance on a standardized exam. They asked whether note-taking during EFL/ESL computer-based listening tests would improve performance. Using "mini-talks" on the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), they examined the benefits of notetaking on L2 listening comprehension in both a computer-based and paper-based testing environment. They specifically investigated whether listening comprehension, as measured by the percent correct score on a computer-based test, was affected by a) the opportunity to take and use notes, b) the length (2.5 versus 5 minutes) of the mini-talk used to present the content, and c) the topic (arts/humanities versus physical science) of the mini-talk. They were also interested in interactions among note-

taking, lecture length, and topic on listening comprehension. The study included postsecondary (N=234; n=139 males; n=88 females) participants, representing "various regions of the world, various native language backgrounds, and various proposed fields of study" (p. 88), who were enrolled in an ESL intensive program at one of five participating universities. They were randomly assigned to testing conditions.

All the students took computer-based and paper-and-pencil TOEFL mini-talks listening comprehension tests. The mini-talks varied in length; short talks averaged roughly 2.5 minutes (ranging 2'19" to 2'45"; 365 to 422 words), and long talks averaged 5.25 minutes (ranging from 5'07" to 5'29"; 748 to 848 words. The topics for the study included arts/humanities and physical sciences.

Test items for the eight listening sets included main idea and three types of detail questions: supporting information, details, and minor details. The test items were intended to evaluate comprehension of items that were both explicitly and implicitly mentioned in each talk, the latter requiring more inferential processing. The test items also varied in response type: multiple-choice items, order/match items, and multiple-selection multiple-choice. In addition, the study included a constructed-response item type which required participants to type one word or a short phrase into a box on the screen. Each short lecture was followed by 6 items (five selected-response and one constructed-response), and each long lecture was followed by 8 items (six selected-response and two constructed-response). Where note-taking was allowed, the participants could use their notes while completing the comprehension questions that followed two of the talks (one short, one long).

The analysis focused on the effect of note-taking (allowed vs disallowed), considered here as a top-down listening strategy. Points in the Carrell et al. (2004) study clarified and reduced data analysis procedures: The researchers found that the use of notetaking positively impacted students' scores, and that students did significantly worse on longer passages. Furthermore, the effectiveness of notetaking depended on the topic and the length of the passage. For instance, on physical science topics, notetaking had no effect on student scores, but notetaking did significantly improve student scores on arts and humanities topics. One reason the authors gave for the difference in the effectiveness of notetaking related to student majors. 32% of the participants had declared majors in STEM fields, while only 14% in the humanities. Students appeared better prepared by background for the physical science listening, and so may not have needed notes. The effectiveness of notetaking also depended on the length of the passage. On short mini-talks, listeners performed statistically significantly better when they could take notes in both topic areas. Listeners performed about the same on long mini-talks whether note-taking was allowed or not.

Carrell, Dunkel, and Mollaun (2004) note several limitations of their study. Their core concern is that they did not examine the participants' actual notes. So, whether participants actually took notes when allowed to could not be determined. In addition, the quality of any notes taken was not available for examination in relation to listening test performance. Finally, the length of the mock lectures was quite short, 2.5-5 minutes, on average. The use of short, mini-talks (2.5 minutes in length) is problematic in understanding potential challenges for L2 learners as very few university lectures and/or

academic discussions are that short. Thus, the study may underestimate the difficulties L2 learners encounter.

Following the Carrell, Dunkel, and Mollaun (2004) study, note-taking grew in popularity. However, Siegel (2016a) recognized that descriptions of how to teach note-taking as a top-down L2 listening strategy to improve listening were rare. He devised a study to explore the relationship between note-taking instruction and students' actual note-taking. Note-taking instruction was added to an EFL listening and discussion course that focused on different topics each week. See Table 2.1: *Note-Taking Instructional Sequence Used in Siegel (2016).*

Table 2.1

Note-Taking Instructional Sequence Used in Siegel (2016)

Week	Focus of instruction	Sample activities
1, 2	Decide what	Using transcript*, listen and circle words that you would write if you were taking notes.
3, 4	Decide what	Focus on the speaker's intonational cues, pauses, stress, and repetition to complete the skeleton notes.
5, 6	Decide when	Listen for organizational markers, digressions, and pauses to make notes.

Note: *A full transcript of the lecture was used in Week 1.

Siegel conducted a mixed-methods study with 87 L1 Japanese university students. The students were all English L2 learners. He investigated whether explicit scaffolded note-taking instruction (30 minutes per session) over six weeks during a 15-week semester affected a) the quantity of information units in notes taken by the students, and b) the format of notes taken by them. He also investigated the students' views regarding explicit scaffolded note-taking instruction for the outline format.

Siegel (2012a) created six semi-authentic lectures based on course topics. He matched the lecture content to the themes of the course. He kept the rate of speech relatively consistent, and he delivered information in a manner suitable for taking notes in an outline format (i.e., with clear main heading, sub-topics, examples). When he recorded the five-minute audio segments, he noted key words from the course readings, and he spoke emphasizing these key words from his notes, as suggested by Flowerdew and Miller (1997). Each recording included features of spontaneous speech, such as repetitions and hesitations.

Siegel transcribed the lectures for in-class use and created note outlines, a pedagogic practice recommended by Dunkel (1988). "Each outline had a number of anchor points that helped learners follow the lectures and enabled them to reorient if they got lost" (Siegel, 2012a, p. 279). "Anchor points" served as chunks of language for L2 listeners to see and listen for during the guided listening activity. For example, an "anchor point" during Week 2 (of 6) of the study exemplified the following format (see Siegel, 2012a, appendix):

Multiculturalism in Australia

- Numbers
- History of immigration
- _____
- languages.

Australia's make up today

- today _____ million people

- million were born _____
- from different countries:
    - Europe: UK, Italy, _____, the Netherlands
    - UK has _____ million people in Australia
    - Asia: _____, Vietnam, _____, Philippines
    - _____: _____, Egypt, _____, Zimbabwe.

Each week, Siegel gradually reduced the information on the note outlines and anchor points. Thus, students had to do more independent note-taking. Siegel highlighted "the focus was not to just simply 'take notes'. Instead, I wanted to emphasize that taking notes (literally the writing of information) is the last part of a procedure that begins with listening" (p. 279). Siegel specified that the rationale for his decision to separate the note-taking task into fundamental parts (i.e., chunks) was to offer students an achievable, focused, and scaffolded activity. Rather than repetitively practicing the all-inclusive note-taking procedure immediately, this approach provided students (and the teacher) with an occasion to explore the extent to which key stages in L2 listening comprehension, as demonstrated through note-taking skills, can be developed in L2 contexts.

For the pre- and post- instruction note-taking activities, he created semi-authentic audio lectures on two African countries (Namibia and Mozambique) in the same way as the lectures used in the instructional phase. He intentionally chose these topics to counterbalance any effect of background knowledge, so they would have to take notes in order to follow the new information. As they listened, they took notes without the scaffolding. Students could only hear the lecture once. Siegel then collected and analyzed

the notes for total number of Informational Units (IUs), completeness, and format adoption. In Siegel's study and in studies of note-taking more generally, an IU is defined as representing the smallest detached item of information that can, on its own, be judged as true or false. Examples include '14 weeks of summer vacation' and 'school day finishes at 1pm'. The pre- and post- instruction lecture texts each included 57 IUs. Students had to try to match the 57 IUs he identified, and Siegel determined performance level by the degree of match to the identified IUs. Siegel also evaluated completeness by dividing the number of IUs in student notes by the total possible IUs. He analyzed the format adoption by a qualitative "visual inspection of the notes" (p. 280). A *t*-test revealed a statistically significant difference between the number of IUs recorded on the pre- and post-instruction notes ($t = -8.01$), suggesting that the increase in IUs was not by chance. However, his study was not designed to investigate whether the increase resulted from the note-taking instruction, improvements in listening comprehension over the six-week period, or a combination of both.

In sum, Siegel (2012a) and Carrell et al. (2004) have both identified note-taking as potentially useful in improving L2 listening comprehension. Siegel (2012a) investigated an intentional, systematic note-taking approach from an instructional standpoint. He carefully scaffolded L2 listening instruction to emphasize listening first and then gradually reduced the note-taking with scaffolding. Unlike Carrell et al. (2004), Siegel looked at actual notes. This difference is important for informing L2 listening strategy instruction as Siegel shows how to use note-taking to scaffold deeper listening for better comprehension. This makes the study more useful than Carrel et al. for

informing what an effective L2 listening pedagogy might look like, which is a point directly related to this study.

Inferencing in L2 listening. Goh (1998) studied the L2 listening comprehension strategies of less-skilled and more-skilled postsecondary ESL students (8 high- and 8 low-skilled). All were L1 Chinese learners who participated in a six-month intensive English program in Singapore. Goh selected the students based on results of the Secondary Level English Proficiency (SLEP) assessment (150 multiple-choice questions, 75 each for reading and listening). The listening component tests a range of listening skills, including listening for gist, listening for details, and making inferences. The input was in the form of single sentences, short passages, and conversations. Based on results of the SLEP post-test participants were then assigned to one of two groups: low- and high-skilled listeners. Eight subjects whose converted listening scores were in the top 30% (out of 80 overall test takers) formed the high-skilled group and eight subjects from the bottom 30% formed the low-skilled group.

After selecting and grouping subjects, Goh asked participants to generate retrospective verbal reports about their listening in order to collect data on their listening strategies and tactics. She used two methods: 1) interviewing subjects to encourage immediate retrospective verbalization after listening to short texts, and 2) reviewing entries that students made in listening diaries. The listening diaries represented a weekly account of the students' listening activities over 8 weeks. Students noted various ways they had "tried to understand what they heard as soon as possible after every listening activity" (p. 131). The diaries also included students' perceptions and beliefs (e.g.,

reconstruction activities, such as "Er, first I listen to the word, words, and the whole sentence. And I try to catch the word that I…very easy to understand, and to…connect them…get the meaning" (p. 136)) related to learning to listen in English both in and out of class. The subjects could choose to write in their diaries in either Chinese or English, but chose to write in English.

For the interviews, Goh used the following protocol: For the interviews, Goh included a warm up, an overview of expectations, and then the researcher read a 250-word text to the subject. After each part of the passage, subjects were asked to describe how they had tried to understand what was heard. The researcher then kept a tally of the types of strategies the subjects used.

Goh coded the data according to individual strategies identified as either cognitive or metacognitive. The strategies were then further categorized using terms found in established taxonomies of learner strategies (e.g., O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford 1990). For example, the strategy of guessing the content of the text from its title and anticipating details during listening were coded as cognitive strategies. They were grouped together under "prediction strategy" (p. 132). Goh then tallied the total number of occurrences for each strategy and refined any repetitions. The results of subjects' immediate retrospective verbalizations yielded the most data, while the diaries provided less on listening strategies. To compare the results of the two skill groups, Goh looked at the "tendencies in subjects' strategy usage using frequency counts and means" (p. 133). If five or more (out of eight) subjects in each group reported a strategy, then this was counted in the analysis as being a majority usage.

Goh identified six cognitive strategies used by students (p. 134), which could further be divided into strategy types (see below):

- ***Inferencing***: Supply missing information like parts of a text not heard clearly.
- ***Elaboration*** (also a form of inferencing): Relate new information to existing knowledge.
- ***Prediction***: Predict the contents from the title or topic before listening.
- ***Contextualization***: Relate new information to a wider context to produce a general interpretation.
- ***Fixation***: Pay close attention to one small part of the spoken text by searching for the spelling or the meaning of the word.
- ***Reconstruction***: Use words from text and (sometimes) background knowledge to construct meaning of the original input.

Goh found that the majority of high-skilled listeners used ten cognitive strategies, whereas the majority of less-skilled listeners used four cognitive strategies. The majority of high-skilled listeners used three types of *inferencing*, one type of *elaboration*, one type of *prediction,* two types of *contextualization*, two types of *fixation*, and one type of *reconstruction*. Four of these are also further categorized as top-down cognitive strategies (e.g., inferencing, elaboration, prediction, and contextualization). All of these strategies require listeners to draw on their prior knowledge and/or connect with wider context. In addition, the high-ability listeners tried to process input in a bottom-up manner using *fixation* strategies. The low-skilled listeners used only four of the top down strategies, with two, inferencing and elaboration, predominating.

Goh also compared the use of metacognitive strategies. She found that high-ability listeners used eight strategies (e.g., two for directed attention, three for monitoring comprehension, one for assessing parts of input, and two for evaluating comprehension). The less-skilled listeners used only two of these metacognitive strategies (e.g., confirming comprehension and identifying the parts they found problematic). A key difference between the two groups was not the number of metacognitive strategies that participants used, but the quality of the strategies used. She surmised that the low-ability listeners focused too much on difficult words or ideas that interfered with their ability to comprehend. She found that the high-ability listeners could keep listening even when they encountered problems (e.g., unknown words or ideas) by redirecting their attention to the task at hand.

To explain her findings, Goh speculated that the high-ability group used more strategies from their L1 than the low-ability group did. Goh suggests that future studies should work from the assumption that learners already have strategies, and the goal of language teachers should be to "unlock those first language strategies" so L2 learners can apply them more effectively.

Goh (1998) concluded that her study provided evidence for some of the cognitive differences that distinguish good listeners from weaker ones. However, it is still difficult to determine if it was the wide and flexible use of strategies and specific tactics that made the high-ability group more competent second language listeners or whether they could use these strategies because their overall proficiency was higher, so they may have generally had fewer listening challenges. The dramatic shift from pretest scores to post-

test scores suggests the first of the two explanations and highlights the value of utilizing strategies. Further, Goh noted that the subjects in this study did not receive any explicit strategy training, suggesting that the higher-ability group had been able to successfully transfer strategies they use in their L1 to the L2 context. This finding goes against what Mendelsohn (1994) previously noted when he claimed that many learners are unable to transfer L1 strategies into L2 listening. The low-ability group in Goh's study, however, could be an example of this (lack of) transfer phenomenon. Thus, Goh questions to what extent the low-ability group was restricted by factors such as vocabulary or unspecified features of spoken text rather than strategy use.

Summary of top-down processing studies. In summary, these three cognitive studies of top-down strategies examined various aspects of L2 listening and the integration of instructional supports and strategy use. Carrell, Dunkel, and Mollaun (2004) found 1) a positive effect for allowing notetaking, and 2) a positive effective for lecture length where shorter lectures produced higher percent correct scores than longer lectures. On short mini-talks, listeners performed statistically significantly better when they could take notes in both topic areas. Listeners performed about the same on long mini-talks whether note-taking was allowed or not. Their findings regarding topic also indicated that L2 listeners performed better on 'hard science' tasks than humanities tasks regardless of the role of notes. Siegel (2016a) provided evidence for instructional techniques for teaching EFL note-taking skill. His findings showed that learners recorded more information units and adopted a more visually accessible note-taking format following the pilot instruction, which emphasized scaffolding. In addition, Goh (1998)

found that learners utilize cognitive strategies to assist them with processing and with remembering new information, but that the strategies L2 learners used vary based on their L2 level.

Bottom-Up Processing Studies

This section examines recent literature on post-secondary cognitive studies with a bottom-up focus. A way to conceptualize bottom-up processing, what the literacy world calls *decoding,* is through the lens of an L2 language learner who must attend to intonation patterns, word prefixes, or other linguistic features to facilitate access to communicative meaning (Graham, 2017). When L2 listeners are decoding acoustic information, the decoding process starts from the sound elements of the target language, such as phonemes and syllables, and then progresses into words, phrases, and sentences. A number of studies have investigated the effects of bottom-up listening processes such as parsing (i.e., word segmentation skills) and other cognitive features of L2 listening comprehension (e.g., Goh, 2000; Jensen & Vinther, 2003; Kiany & Shiramiry, 2002).

Perception, parsing, and utilization in L2 listening. Goh (2000) *identified* five L2 listening challenges reported by learners. L2 listeners a) quickly forget what is heard; b) do not recognize lexical items they already know; c) understand words but not the intended message; d) neglect the next part of an utterance when thinking about meaning; and e) are unable to form a mental representation from words heard. Goh *cites* Anderson's (1995) three-phase model of language comprehension — *perception, parsing*, and *utilization* — as a cognitive framework. "Perceptual processing is the encoding of the acoustic or written message…. During parsing, words are transformed

into a mental representation of the combined meaning of these words. This occurs when an utterance is segmented according to syntactic structures or cues to meaning" (Goh, 2000, p. 57, italics in original). During the third stage, utilization, "the listener may draw different types of inferences to complete the interpretation and make it more personally meaningful, or use the mental representation to respond to the speaker" (p. 57). Although Anderson's (1995, 2005) three-phase model is based on first language (L1) comprehension, Goh proposes that it could also be relevant for understanding L2 comprehension. The purpose of Goh's study was to offer a cognitive perspective on the comprehension problems of L2 learners by identifying real-time listening difficulties faced by a group of ESL learners, and to examine these difficulties within Anderson's model. To that end, Goh examined the processing strategies of ESL learners and their descriptions of their listening difficulties.

To describe students' strategies and listening difficulties, Goh selected a group of Chinese students, average age 19, who were learning English in preparation for undergraduate studies. She employed a three-pronged methodology: 1) weekly diaries as part of participants' listening course (n=40), 2) small group interviews (n=17), and 3) retrospective verbalization of processing strategies (n=23). All of these data sources included the students' recall and descriptions of listening difficulties, which Goh did not elaborate.

To analyze the data, Goh read the transcriptions and listening diaries looking for any mention or description of problems during listening. She highlighted and summarized these with short descriptive statements, for example: "Sometimes there are two or three

words together and the pronunciation sounds like another word, and I get confused" (p. 58). Goh understood this comment as showing difficulty with recognizing individual words in a stream of speech, which she summarized as "cannot chunk streams of speech" (p. 58). After recording all of the different problems, she counted the number of times each was reported and highlighted repetitions, but did not include them as new incidents. She then analyzed and presented the data within Anderson's (1995) three-phase model of perception, parsing, or utilization. See Table 2.2: *L2 English Students' Self-Reported Listening Comprehension Problems from Goh (2000).*

Table 2.2:

L2 English Students' Self-Reported Listening Comprehension Problems from Goh (2000)

Perception	Parsing	Utilization
Do not recognize words they know	Quickly forget what is heard	Understand words but not the intended message
Neglect the next part when thinking about meaning	Unable to form a mental representation from words heard	Confused about the key ideas in the message
Cannot chunk streams of speech	Do not understand subsequent parts of input because of earlier problems	
Miss the beginning of texts		
Concentrate too hard or unable to concentrate		

Goh found 10 real-time comprehension difficulties related to the three cognitive processing phases outlined above in Table 2.2. Half of them were *perceptual processing problems* arising from *failure in word recognition* and *ineffective attention*. Three others were troubles with *parsing* and two with *utilization*. She commented that these findings

could have been related to numerous factors such as:

a) sound-script and word-referent processes that had not been automatized

b) poor sound representations of familiar words

c) failure to use appropriate comprehension strategies

d) a lack of appropriate schematic knowledge

e) insufficient prior knowledge

f) preoccupation with knowing the meaning of certain content words

g) limited processing capacity in short-term memory

h) shallow processing

These findings have broad implications related to the value of teaching listening strategies to make postsecondary L2 learners more aware of how to more effectively manage the factors that affect their listening difficulties. Goh encourages learners to take a more active role in overcoming their listening challenges rather than accepting them as "unavoidable" (p. 73). Goh also suggests that teachers should aim to increase learners' knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, and phonology as the foundation for strategy development: "We can help learners improve their listening comprehension directly by providing them with practice in perception of selected sounds, content words, pronunciation of new words and intonation features, such as prominence and tones" (p. 71). She then outlines, under the three categories of *perception*, *parsing*, and *utilization*, 25 strategies for students to use in an attempt at guided listening practice.

One important limitation of this study is the lack of direct empirical evidence to support each of Goh's proposed L2 listening strategies. Nevertheless, this paper makes a

contribution to language teaching with its overview of real-time comprehension complications from the view of the learner. Goh also offers several insightful suggestions for future research ranging from the extent word recognition problems are due to ineffective sound-script and word-referent automatization as well as other constraints such as limited vocabulary to the effects of inadequate parsing and the effects of syntactical knowledge so they can be prioritized for teaching purposes.

Dictation in L2 listening. In this next study, Kiany and Shiramiry (2002) explore the role of dictation as an exercise for improving listening. Dictation has been recommended in many books about language teaching, but not much studied**.** They cite Celce-Murcia (1991) who proposed that listening comprehension in language learning and language teaching has moved from “a status of incidental and peripheral importance to a status of significance and central importance" (p. 105). This claim reflects the importance of teaching spoken language and the benefit of understanding the processes of comprehension. The purpose of their study was to investigate the effects of frequent dictation on listening comprehension of elementary-level EFL learners**.** To that end, they asked: Is there a significant difference between the listening comprehension ability of elementary EFL learners who are given frequent dictation exercises and the listening comprehension ability of those who are not?

To answer their question, Kiany and Shiramiry (2002) selected 60 postsecondary Iranian lower-proficiency EFL learners who were all male between 20 and 35 years of age of the same language background. They divided them into two groups: Two of the four classes (n=30) were assigned randomly to the experimental group (dictation

exercises), and the other two classes (n=30) to the control group (no dictation). To assure the homogeneity of the two groups in terms of their general English proficiency, participants took two pretests: The Nelson Test 100A and the National Council of Teachers of English Listening Test (e.g., Elementary Listening Test). They found no significant differences in general English language proficiency or listening comprehension ability among the participants.

In the study, both the experimental and control groups participated in 20 sessions utilizing listening exercises from their textbook (e.g., *Headway Elementary*), but the experimental group also performed 11 dictation exercises. While the control group only practiced the listening exercises in the book, the experimental group practiced both the listening exercises and dictation tasks (e.g., short passages and conversations consisting of 100 words each). The dictation materials included the native-recorded passages and conversations in the textbook, and a detailed systematic procedure, which ranged from activation of students' background knowledge, playing of the passage without any pauses, replaying the audio and pausing after meaningful chunks, and listening a second time to the whole passage to review notes. Students compared their written transcripts to the textbook's corresponding version for accuracy. Participants sometimes also listened again to the audio, while looking at their dictation, to give more directed attention to their mistakes.

At the end of the 20 treatment sessions, both student groups were given the same 40-item listening post-test used in the pre-test, and the researchers found that the experimental (dictation) group performed significantly better than the control group

($t(58)=20.59$, $p<.001$). Kiany and Shiramiry note that one possible limitation to this finding pertains to the fact that the students in both the control and experimental groups were taught by one instructor who also happened to be a co-researcher of the study. Although they do not explicitly state it, this implies that the researcher could have subtly impacted the findings by teaching one group better than the other**.** The authors also note additional limitations such as the homogeneous gender, level, language background, and relative age range (20-35 years) of the participants. To my knowledge though, gender differences have not been studied much in L2 listening with the exception of the Bagheri and Karami (2014) and Karimnia (2003) studies. Also, while the same language background may affect some of the results to be more uniform in terms of positive (or negative) uses of phonology and grammar from L1 to L2, the results are still useful in a study like this one that examines instructors' L2 listening teaching for students of mixed language backgrounds. The study's finding has narrow implications in that dictation is one teaching strategy that might be incorporated into a larger system of process-based L2 listening instruction.

Thus, this paper makes a contribution to the field of language teaching with its methodology, as dictation can easily be used in various kinds of EFL classes (for both teaching and testing purposes). The authors point to further areas of research such as: studying the effects Anderson's (1995, 2005) stages of phoneme perception and parsing**.**

In another article related to the role of dictation as a bottom-up L2 listening strategy, Matthews and Cheng (2015) identify L2 listening comprehension as the least understood and least researched area of L2 learning, but a critical skill in overall L2

development. They describe how proficient listening comprehension enables learners to understand the spoken discourse of the target language, which in turn aids the development of other language skills such as speaking (Dunkel, 1991; Rost, 2002 as cited in Matthews & Cheng, 2015). They also explain how listening as a skill is of strong contemporary significance to L2 learners as it enables engagement with a vast range of online spoken target language samples such as those from video sharing websites and digital audio/video on demand systems (Robin, 2007). They also point to how the growing significance of listening comprehension has given rise to increased research effort towards understanding the processes which underpin successful L2 listening (Field, 2008; Vandergrift, 2007). "This emerging picture of the specific knowledge types which support skilled L2 listening provides a useful framework for further advancements in L2 listening research, teaching, and testing" (p. 2). One sphere of knowledge they cite is linguistic knowledge at the word level (Graham, Santos, & Vanderplank, 2010). According to Matthews and Cheng (2015), previous studies have confirmed the value of various constructs of word knowledge in supporting and predicting L2 learners' listening comprehension proficiency level (Bonk, 2000; Staehr, 2008, 2009). Arguably, the aspect of word knowledge that is of strongest importance in successful L2 listening comprehension is the ability to recognize words in the speech stream (Field, 2008; Hulstijn, 2003; Rost, 2002).

To that end, Matthews and Cheng (2015) asked to what extent does the ability to recognize high frequency words from speech correlate with listening comprehension scores? To answer their question, they selected postsecondary L1 Chinese students

(N=167) enrolled in seven different classes (with a range of twenty-four different majors) at a university in China as participants. The researchers assessed the participants' English word recognition from speech using a partial dictation test which targeted high frequency vocabulary items. "Partial dictation is one of the alternatives to standard dictation. In this simplified form, the aural input is still presented in its full form, but part of the text is presented to the test taker in written form as well" (Cai, 2013, p. 182). In this partial dictation, the researchers chose target words that had been previously categorized as belonging to either the first-, second-, or third-thousand-word frequency levels through comparison with the British National Corpus as well as the Corpus of Contemporary American English (BNC/COCA) word family lists. They assessed participants' listening ability using results from the listening section of the International English Language Testing System (IELTS), a standardized examination. The procedure for the administration of the two tests occurred in seven testing sessions with various class groups, sized 17 to 37. Participants did both tests in one single session that lasted no more than one hour.

Matthews and Cheng (2015) concluded that 1) the facility to recognize high frequency words from speech is predictive of the aptitude to hear, and 2) knowledge of words at the 3,000 Wilson Reading System (WRS) level is indicative of successful L2 listening comprehension. More specifically, there was a clear difference between participants who scored at the 3,000 WRS level than those who scored at the 1,000- and 2,000-WRS levels. In other words, L2 listening comprehension increases as the ability to detect at least 3,000 words from speech is reached. This finding suggests the importance

of a learner's ability to recognize high frequency vocabulary from speech as a key component of skilled L2 listening comprehension. This finding has *broad* implications in that word recognition from speech tests can provide explicit information about the strengths and weaknesses of a learner's word knowledge status in relation to different word frequency levels, and implies that control of greater word recognition from speech can increase L2 listeners' ability to more successfully negotiate listening comprehension tasks.

This study also suggests that testing the ability of learners to recognize high frequency vocabulary from speech and responding strategically to the diagnostic information derived from such tests could be an important priority in the listening classroom. "Being able to recognize the phonological form of high frequency words provides a broad coverage of the spoken language and establishes a strong platform of linguistic knowledge" (p. 10). The notion of teaching the aural forms of vocabulary as a learning strategy also supports Siegel's (2016b) claims that the aural features of vocabulary need to be emphasized in the language classroom as learners less developed in word recognition from speech are known to strongly inhibit L2 listening comprehension (Goh, 2000). Thus, the potential value of this diagnostic information as with other frequency-based vocabulary tests (Laufer & Nation, 1999; Nation, 2001; Schmitt et al., 2001, as cited in Matthews & Cheng, 2015) is significant because regular low stakes testing of high frequency words from speech may draw attention to the need for learners to be able to recognize the phonological form of words in the manner these vocabulary items are likely to be encountered in connected speech. This form of testing

may help contribute to learners' L2 listening process development and may shift L2 learners' perspective that oral/aural forms of speech are "too fast" to more awareness that co-articulation is caused by the influence of adjacent sounds as well as assimilation of sounds across word boundaries. If learners can learn to parse connected speech features by learning to tease apart the aural forms of known vocabulary, then L2 listening comprehension might be expected to develop at a faster rate.

Although the construct of word recognition from speech was able to account for a large portion of the variance observed in listening comprehension scores, a considerable proportion of variance (approximately 45%) was not, which is not atypical in studies**.** However, the researchers suggest it might be interesting to determine whether measuring WRS of words from beyond the high frequency level is able to add predictive power to models seeking to explain variance within listening comprehension test scores. This idea supports Reed and Michaud's (2015) view that where the fall/rise pitch contour falls creates the sentence prominence in English and stress on different words can change the meaning of a sentence. So, an additional strategy that the authors do not propose might be to teach not only high-frequency content words — noun, adjectives, adverbs — like *strategic* but high-frequency collocations of those words (Hinkel, 2019) such as *strategic plan*, *strategic advantage*, or *strategic decision*. Thus, Matthews and Cheng's study contributes to the fields of language education and applied linguistics by providing both learners and educators with a clearer idea of the relation between students' word recognition skills and target L2 listening comprehension. I now turn to another bottom-up concept, which is the role of exact repetition as a form of input enhancement.

Exact repetition and reduced speech rate in L2 listening. Another relevant line of research operating at the input stage that has been the focus of research involves input enhancement. Previous studies that compared the effectiveness of visually enhanced versus non-enhanced input yielded limited results for this mode of focus on form in which task design involves preselection of target forms. However, a type of input enhancement which is delivered orally through exact repetition has shown more favorable results as the following study demonstrates.

In their two-part investigation, Jensen and Vinther (2003) *explored* the effect of exact repetition and speech rate reduction as input enhancements that could potentially support L2 listeners' selection of focus of attention in L2 listening material. The authors hypothesized that learners would try to extract meaning from an utterance during the first time listening, and that during the second time, learners would already have located "the problematic features of the stream of sound" (p. 380), which would help them focus on forms and, therefore, aid their detailed level of comprehension. *To* test their hypothesis, Jensen and Vinther selected 84 upper intermediate L2 Spanish learners to participate in an experimental procedure to study the effect of exact repetition and speech rate reduction on listeners' comprehension of dialogues as seen in video recordings. Their goal was to see if listening to the video dialogues in different modes, Fast (F) or Slow (S), had an effect on listener comprehension, acquisition of decoding strategies, and acquisition of linguistic features.

Using an experimental methodology, they created a pre-test/post-test design to study the effects of the two different types of input enhancement, Fast (F) or Slow (S),

among participants as well as input-driven instructional conditions. All groups, two experimental and one control, took both the pre- and post-tests, which were fragment-by-fragment imitations of video-supported spoken input in which participants recorded, in a laboratory setting, their imitations of what they heard/watched in the video (i.e., elicited-imitation task). The instruction-phase was brief in scope involving three successive viewings over two weeks of movie clips experimentally manipulated for speech rate in three conditions (Fast-Slow-Slow, Fast-Slow-Fast, and Fast-Fast-Fast).

Jensen and Vinther reported clear gains over a control group on pre- and post-test elicited imitation performance for the three input-driven instructional conditions (rather than one). All three experimental groups, F-S-S, F-S-F, and F-F-F, outperformed the control group in more detailed comprehension of the audio text and in acquisition of phonological decoding strategies. Reduced speed, however, did not account for better performance since the F-F-F group outperformed the other two experimental groups. In other words, when exposed to verbatim repetitions of videotaped dialogues in the different modes F or S, all three experimental groups outperformed a control group in detailed comprehension and acquisition of phonological decoding strategies. Furthermore, the F-F-F group outperformed the other two groups, demonstrating that reduction in speed of audio text will not necessarily improve comprehension. Therefore, the authors concluded that repetition allowed students to first process meaning and then reformulate hypotheses about language form and meaning during the subsequent listening. This finding suggests that learner control over speech rate and pausing enhances immediate listening comprehension, and repetition and adjustments in rate of

speech can aid in the development of L2 listening comprehension over time.

Jensen and Vinthers's (2003) study mirrors a number of other studies that have also concluded that repetition has a positive effect on listening comprehension (e.g., Cabrera & Martinez, 2001; Cervantes & Gainer, 1992; Elkhafaifi, 2005). The researchers further extend possible implications for the study. One, that listening perception training should be integrated with regular listening activities that allow students to "indulge in hypothesis work regarding all the linguistic features" (p. 419), an approach also advocated by Goh (2002). Two, this study gives evidence for another way in which authentic materials can be made more attainable through the manipulations of recordings that technology affords. For example, the digitized nature of podcasts can be exploited to allow L2 learners of all levels to use authentic listening materials to extract meaning and improve their listening comprehension. Three, the study certainly supports the claim that when using authentic contexts, form and speech rate should not be sacrificed in the interest of simplifying L2 listening for the language learner. Finally, it supports the notion that repeated experiences with formulaic utterances also increase the likelihood that learners will notice the relationship between the form and function of utterances as others (e.g., Gass, Mackey, Alvarez-Torres, & Fernández-Garcìa 1999) have suggested, which is also consistent with Derwing and Munro (2001). This suggests that repetition itself may serve as a form-focusing device underlying learning. Thus, repetition might be considered a cognitive priming method.

Summary of bottom-up processing studies: In summary, the studies examined here explore the role of strategies to help L2 listeners decode the form and meaning of

audio input. Goh (2000) identified problem areas in listening: perception as well as parsing. And problems with perception were greater than parsing. Dictation would involve both perception and parsing. Building from Goh's (2000) finding that one of the major learner-identified challenges to L2 listening is the ability to parse aural input, Kiany and Shiramiry (2002) investigated the usefulness of dictation as a strategy for teaching students how to parse. Matthews and Cheng (2015) found additional use for emphasizing the value of high frequency vocabulary words. Jensen and Vinther's (2003) repetition studies were also trying to find a solution to these perception and parsing problems that Goh identified. Their study involved exact repetition and its effectiveness as a bottom-up strategy. While repetition can give lower-proficiency listeners an opportunity to process input for both meaning and form individually and without the constraint of time, listening strategy training can help learners become more aware of the various listening processes used by successful listeners and decide when to use them. This training can then enable learners to guide and evaluate their own comprehension as well as help them work with more difficult material. Next, I examine the role of interactive (top down and bottom up) processing by describing studies that have examined strategies for understanding its role in L2 listening and learning to listen.

Interactive Processing Studies

In real life communication, people use an interactive processing model that actively combines both top down and bottom up processes. The studies included in this section focus on interactive processing, which is useful for understanding L2 listening. Fluid interactive processing is a sign of skill, and L2 learners are not likely to use both

bottom up and top down skills efficiently and effectively (e.g., Field, 2004). A goal of current research is to better understand how L2 learners use bottom up and top down skills to promote more integrated processing. For example, researchers (e.g., Chang & Read, 2007; Field, 2004; Yeldham & Gruba, 2016) are exploring the relation between L2 skill and reliance on top down or bottom up processing skills to gain further insight into what a more focused listening practice, for L2 learners, might entail.

In an important study, Field (2004) claimed that a considerable degree of interdependence between bottom-up and top-down processes makes it a complex relationship. "What is at issue when investigating this aspect of second language listening and reading is not which path is chosen but which of the two processing routes is preferred over the other" (p. 364). He further pondered which of the two processes an L2 listener is likely to trust if top-down and bottom-up evidence conflict. He hypothesized that either some L2 learners place greater trust in top-down evidence than in bottom-up, which then reflects an underlying lack of confidence in their ability to process the sounds of the target language accurately, or that instead of always assuming that unrecognized words represent new items of vocabulary, some learners prefer to match them very approximately to known words which are supported by top-down evidence. To study this problem Field designed three experiments to test whether L2 listeners were more likely to place their trust in top-down rather than bottom-up information.

To investigate, Field recruited 47 postsecondary, lower intermediate and high elementary mixed L1 students at a private British EFL school. They were chosen because they represented a block of learners whose familiarity with English was limited - - all had

achieved 31%–40% accuracy on the school's placement test - - and because of their diverse L1 backgrounds (e.g., German, Italian, Korean, Arabic, Spanish, Portuguese, Cantonese, French, Japanese, Russian, and Thai). Field played the audio text for each of the following three experiments once only, and subjects recorded their answers on an answer sheet.

Experiment 1: In the first experiment, Field grouped words together (all at the 1000-level and likely to be known by subjects); in some instances, all words belonged to the same lexical field (e.g., *wet, cloudy, dry, cold, hot*) and sometimes only the last two words were (e.g., *big, new, empty, cold, hot*). "In all the target items, the onset of the last word was then changed to turn it into an item which did not belong to the set (*hot -> got*). Foils, where the last word had not been changed, were mixed in with the target items" (p. 370). Field asked participants to listen to each group of words and write down the last word in each. "The purpose was to establish if top-down influences (here based on vocabulary sets) would so constrain the subjects that they would overrule the 'bottom-up' evidence of their ears and substitute a semantically more appropriate item (HOT for got)" (p. 370).

Experiment 2: In the second experiment, Field substituted a predictable word, *noise*, given the context, with a word that differed by only one phoneme, *boys*, and that was not predictable by the context. Field gave the participants a semantically constraining sentence in place of a list of words. He played the sentences for subjects who had to write down the last word in each. For example, "*I couldn't listen to the radio because of the boys* [NOISE]" (p. 370). He played the sentences twice to participants and asked them to

write down the last word in each. "The purpose was again to see to what extent the context (this time, the propositional content of the sentence) encouraged them to write down a different word from what they heard" (p. 370).

Experiment 3: In the third experiment, participants listened to sentences that provided meaningful context for low-frequency items but a contradictory one for the high-frequency alternative. For example: *When the plane didn't arrive, the passengers were in a terrible plight [not FLIGHT*]. Learners had to write down the last word they heard. The goal was to see if participants opted for a known, frequent, and phonologically similar word despite the fact that it was inappropriate in the context, or whether learners were prepared to accept the presence of a new vocabulary item *plight* or use their top-down strategy for a higher frequency word like *flight*, which was at least familiar even if not consistent with the utterance.

Using the results of a 20-item listening comprehension test as data, Field reported the following results for each experiment: In the first, no evidence was obtained of subjects reinterpreting what they had heard in order to fit it to the lexical set (he also later noted that there had been an error in the experimental design). In the second, though words were not consistent across items, words in seven of the 20 items were substituted, with some surprising substitutions. For example, for the first item "*I couldn't listen to the radio because of the boys*. (Predicted: NOISE), subjects preferred to substitute the word VOICE, whose onset shares labiality with *boys*, even though this meant ignoring the voicing of the offset by substituting /s/ for /z/" (p. 371, italics in the original). In addition, though subjects sometimes would allow top-down evidence to prevail over bottom-up,

the effect only occurred with items where the context was extremely constraining. For example, "*The people at the party were Germans, Italians, Spanish, and some friends*, 42.1% substituted FRENCH OR FRANCE for *friends*" (p. 372, italics in the original). Results for the third experiment revealed that a mean 33% of all responses involved the substitution of another, usually more frequent, word for the target – regardless of semantic context. More importantly, "40% did not accept phonetic-acoustic evidence that the item was unknown and instead matched it, very approximately, to a known one" (p. 372). Further, many of the known words that were proposed were selected by participants without any regard to the appropriateness; not only were many of them semantically inappropriate, but "around 50% were not even in the correct word class." Field thus concluded that "there is evidence here of a strategy which is neither bottom-up nor top-down but is lexical – a rough attempt at a one-to-one match with a known item which potentially overrules contextual information and modifies perceptual" (p. 373).

Although the results of the three experiments varied, the study gives evidence that trusting in onset of words (rather than the coda) appears to be a reliable word recognition strategy for learners. In addition, due to the fact that participants frequently chose to match what they heard with a known word which is approximately similar, the match often disregards context and word-class or simply draws upon deeply embedded top-down expectations from their L1. The implications for this work remain open as the study suggests that lexical knowledge trumps interactive listening processes at the psycholinguistic level.

The more individualized modes in L2 listening. In a longitudinal study, Yeldham and Gruba (2016*)* described the gap in deeply chronicling how individual learners develop with L2 listener strategy instruction. Given the variation in how learners develop individually with said instruction, they cited previous scholarship which has combined the aims of strategies instruction with relevant past research (e.g., Goh, 1998; O'Malley, Chamot & Küpper, 1989, Vandergrift, 1997, 2003). Given the lack of insight from these previous studies into how individual listeners progress in a strategies course, they proposed to investigate this learner development with a focus on top-down, bottom-up, and metacognitive/general strategies with an orientation toward vocabulary assessments, standardized language exams (e.g., CELT), and cognitive learner tests (e.g., The Group Embedded Figures Test). To that end, they sought to depict the learners' development and evaluation of their headway through various aspects of metacognition as a framework, but they did not pose a central research question.

To study the development of L2 English learners, Yeldham and Gruba selected four lower proficiency-level Taiwanese university L2 learners of English**.** They collected the following data using longitudinal multi-case studies to acknowledge individual variation and varying contextual elements in the study, which they sought to track over time. They first designed a listening course that combined explicit strategy instruction based on process-based listening research as well as activities that had been empirically supported (e.g., predict words – Vandergrift, 2007; write down key words while listening as basis to construct meaning – Field, 2008). They then employed various assessments (e.g., vocabulary, language, and cognitive – as outlined above) as well as

qualitative instruments such as researcher observation and informal interviews. To gain insight into the learner's listening strategies, the researchers also used verbal reports in addition to pre- and post- instruction, semi-structured interviews and questionnaires (to establish learner profiles and learner change through the course), observations, informal learner interviews, and artifacts (e.g., student's classroom worksheets). The researchers recorded these data in a journal and conducted a thematic analysis of the qualitative instruments.

Yeldham and Gruba found both similarities and differences in their cross-case analysis. For example, all four students had never had a listening assessment as part of their college entrance exams nor had they received much listening practice or listening strategy instruction prior to entering university. The four participants otherwise varied in both their performance on the assessments as well as in their reflections of their educational experiences. The individual results give evidence for, in this case, the individual and complex interrelationship between various cognitive factors. For example, all four participants' listening test scores improved, but varied from 2-14 percentage points. In addition, their ability to recall main ideas increased by 28-59.5 percentage points; and ability to recall details increased by 17-37 percentage points. Qualitative results described learners demonstrating "a more balanced, efficient use of top-down and bottom-up strategies" (p. 28); for instance, one participant claimed she had more flexible listening skills and better recognition in how to adapt particular strategies to context. The training also helped some of the participants to realize that learning targeted English listening skills "was useful for purposes other than passing tests" (p. 27). The study's

limitations included the fact that one student dropped out, which is not uncommon in longitudinal studies. In general, the small number of participants make the results of this study less generalizable, though the authors claim that was not their goal. One limitation they did not point out was the lack of affective strategies (e.g., how to manage anxiety), which does not seem uncommon in studies reviewed thus far.

Thus, the broader implications of the work demonstrate that strategy-based listening instruction can develop an L2 listening comprehension - - even with varied results. It also provides evidence for the effectiveness of strategy instruction, which can develop various learner individual characteristics, particularly confidence, concentration, motivation, and feeling of control over one's listening.

Chang and Read (2007) were interested in types of support for L2 listeners in terms of their effectiveness and limitations. For example, they included pictures/written background text (e.g., Ginther, 2002) or repetition of the test input (e.g., Chang et al., 1993), which are two different cognitive styles (top-down and bottom-up) during listening assessments to see if the supports had any effect on performance.

To explore this, they developed four different conditions for the participants: two of the conditions provided support in the form of either a set of pictures or a written background text; a third condition repeated the test input; and the fourth excluded support during an L2 listening comprehension test (e.g., Test of English for International Communication). They recruited 140 postsecondary Taiwanese students enrolled in a required English listening course to test these specific strategies in terms of students' ability to comprehend spoken input. After each participant completed the test, they

completed a short questionnaire and select participants were also interviewed. They designed the post-test questionnaire to elicit participants' reactions to the test. For example, the first four items asked participants each type of listening support they experienced, a fifth elicited an estimate on their self-perceived comprehension level, and a last item asked participants to rank all three forms of support for their perceived effectiveness. In order for all of the participants to experience each type of listening support, the four classes took different combinations of the listening passages and the experimental treatments, which the authors claimed would control for "a possible order effect in relation to both the passages and the conditions" (p. 383).

Results revealed that the repeated input condition produced significantly higher scores than the other three conditions. In addition, the test takers scored significantly better in the visual- and textual-support conditions than when they received no support. Additional questionnaire results revealed that the ratings of the repeated input condition, a bottom-up strategy, were the most positive overall, followed closely by visual support, a top-down strategy, with textual support receiving "noticeably lower ratings" (p. 385). Interview findings revealed mixed points of view, but all interviewees commented that they had a concern for "fast speech rate and unfamiliar vocabulary" (p. 389), which are universal L2 listener concerns as others have claimed (see studies by Goh). What was striking though was the participants' implications that the role of repeated input had a psychological effect in reducing their test-taking anxiety, which is something Arnold (2000) has investigated.

Although the study was limited to less-skilled L2 English listeners, and therefore

not generalizable for understanding the effects of support on more-skilled L2 English listeners, the study is helpful for demonstrating the role of repetition, a bottom-up strategy, as favorable in mixed-strategy conditions. The authors also suggest that ELTs use graded readers and their accompanying audio to supplement listening materials. They cite a study conducted by Chang (2006) in which her students' attention span improved after listening to only seven audio readers. They theorize that such material, along with supports, offers teachers a basis for both teaching and testing listening.

The role of audio graded readers in L2 listening. Other studies have begun to explore the role of extensive listening, a practice of developing L2 listening fluency through longer listening tasks, such as audio graded readers, as a strategy in tandem with access to orthographic representations of language, such as the accompanying script. To explore this fairly underdeveloped area of research, Chang and Millett (2014) examined whether a reading-while-listening group would show higher performance on a listening comprehension exam than reading- and listening- only groups. Working with 113 postsecondary low-intermediate EFL university students of same L1 (e.g., Mandarin), the researchers designed three conditions for the study: a reading only (RO) group, where participants read the graded readers without listening to the audio recordings; a reading while listening (RL) group, where participants first simultaneously read and listened to the graded reader once, then simultaneously listened and answered listening fluency development questions without referring to the text; and a listening only (LO) group, where participants did not read the graded readers, but simultaneously listened and answered listening fluency development questions. All of these strategies exemplify

interactive cognitive processes.

The second author designed the listening fluency practice questions, which the study employed. The questions included short-answer, yes/no, true/false, gap-fill, and multiple-choice options, following the sequential order of the graded readers' (e.g., adapted for language learners) storyline. In total, they employed ten graded readers with 110-287 corresponding questions.

Results indicated that the use of simultaneous reading and listening before focusing on listening only is the most effective approach in improving L2 listening fluency, based on the results of comprehension questions related to graded readers. Among the three groups, the RL group scored the most consistent and significant comprehension results. The authors state that one limitation to the study is the notion that teachers need to "be cautious while implementing [extensive listening] in an L2 classroom because the aural foundation of L1 and L2 learners is different" (p. 38). Nevertheless, they cite four implications from the study such as: (1) establishing a reasonable time frame for listening practice (e.g., an audio book with 200 corresponding questions/week); (2) combining skills like reading and listening to boost students' confidence**,** and practice the reading first so students know roughly 98% of the vocabulary (as suggested by Nation & Newton); (3) selecting interesting materials that suit students' language competence; and (4) completing the listening cycle by offering extended practice that solely focuses on listening with follow up fluency practice so students pay full attention to the listening task.

These results differed from those established later by Chang, Millett, and

Renandya (2018) who also wanted to know if reading-while-listening (RL) was a more effective strategy than listening-only (LO) or reading-only (RO). Working with 69 EFL postsecondary students of the same L1 (Mandarin) background in Taiwan, the researchers found that the LO and RL groups could comprehend the more complicated practiced texts, meaning those they had previewed and/or worked with ahead of time, at faster speech rates and also maintain higher levels of comprehension than the RO groups. When listening to the unpracticed texts, meaning texts they had never heard before, the RL group could do as well as they did on the practiced texts, but the LO group could process the more difficult texts at faster speech rates without decreasing their comprehension levels. Interestingly, the RO group maintained the same comprehension level as in the pre-test, which was 49%, but their comprehension declined slightly to 44% on the post-test, and further decreased to 33% when the speech rate increased and the text become more difficult.

Chang, Millett, and Renandya indicated that a performance comparison between groups was unnecessary because previous (uncited) research had shown that listeners with textual support comprehend better than those without support. Equally, the consistently higher performance from the RL and LO groups across three post-tests warrants further discussion because of salient differences in treatment between the RL and LO groups. That is: the comprehension levels of practiced (i.e., repeated) versus unpracticed texts (i.e., unrepeated).

Practiced texts (i.e., repeated): The RL group had opportunities to read and listen to the text, which provided participants with necessary background knowledge (i.e., a

top-down skill). Top-down processing has to do with how one uses one's background knowledge of the world (i.e., schema) to comprehend a text. So, when they listened and did the listening fluency practice they could devote more attention to the details of the text, allowing them to have a deeper level of comprehension. This gives support for integrated-skills tasks (e.g., Nation & Newton, 2009). Also, after reading while listening to the texts, the RL group had already met some unfamiliar written forms of vocabulary; thus, the process of matching the spoken forms with the written forms may have become somewhat less taxing for these participants, which may have enabled them to access the input better and comprehend more. The LO group, in contrast, had to decode (i.e., a bottom-up skill) the language and comprehend the text simultaneously. They rationalized that if a listener spends too much effort on lower-level processing, such as decoding word meaning, then "little attention can be paid to comprehending the text's message, which may result in less satisfactory performance" (p. 13). And, as stated in the previous study, the RL group had an opportunity to repeat what they learned, which affected their superior performance.

Unpracticed texts (i.e., unrepeated). The RL group also made significant improvements from the pre-test to each of the post-tests; while the LO group only made significant improvement on one of the post-tests. In the RO group, there was no significant difference in the first post-test, but there was a decline in the second- and third- post-tests. Across groups, however, all three groups performed best on the first post-test and worst on the third post-test as tasks became more difficult (e.g., faster speech rate and longer texts).

The contention that repeated practice - - or focused practice - - can provide preparation and support for a later activity is a L2 listening strategy that many researchers support (e.g., Chang, Millett, & Renandya, 2018; Jensen & Vinther, 2003; Nation & Newton, 2009). In addition, studies focusing on specific skill combinations, such as reading/listening (Chang, Millett, & Renandya, 2018) and speaking/listening (Jensen & Vinther, 2003) suggest the potential of using integrated skills for improving L2 listening comprehension. However, these studies do not directly address L2 listening teaching methodologies. This might be because an integrated approach would not consider teaching listening in isolation. Moreover, it seems that the reading/listening approaches identified here were really focused on reading comprehension over listening comprehension.

Summary of cognitive strategy findings. Language learners use cognitive strategies to help them process, store, and recall new information. For example, in listening and reading, learners infer the meaning of difficult words or ideas to facilitate their comprehension of the text. Cognitive strategies involve processing incoming information directly, often with the help of existing knowledge from long term memory.

These specific cognitive studies seem to indicate that there are overwhelming benefits for using strategy instruction to help develop L2 listening comprehension (Yeldham & Gruba, 2016). Specific successful L2 listening strategies are: providing textual/visual support (Chang & Read, 2007), and reading while listening combined with listening only (Chang & Millett, 2014; Chang, Millett, & Renandya, 2018). Other studies give evidence for the positive effect of note-taking, particularly for arts and humanities

content (Carrell, Dunkel, & Mollaun, 2004; Siegel, 2016), the use of classroom dictations (Kiany & Shiramiry, 2002; Matthews & Cheng, 2015), and the value of students' ability to monitor listening comprehension in order to use strategies effectively (Goh, 1998). This was true even though the researchers speculated that this was because most of the students were math/science majors and perhaps did not need to take as many notes because they were more familiar with the content. Yet, without explicit strategy instruction and/or individual monitoring of strategy-use, some learners may inappropriately apply strategies, such as top-down ones, as Field (2004) suggested. The role of exact repetition or repeated input, as indicated favorably by Chang and Read (2007), and less clearly by Jensen and Vinther (2003) remains unclear.

Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies go beyond cognitive manipulation and transformation of incoming information. They involve learner reflection on their own developmental process and action steps to manage, evaluate and regulate these processes. For the purpose of this literature review, metacognitive strategies are "higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of a learning activity" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, pp. 44-45). An example of a metacognitive strategy is when a student decides in advance to listen for specific aspects of input. For instance, L2 learners may decide in advance to: listen for familiar content words or notice intonation features (e.g., falling and rising tones). Some researchers, like Goh (1998), feel that metacognitive strategies may be equally or more important than cognitive strategies, such as inferring the meaning of difficult words or ideas, to facilitate their

comprehension of the listening text. To clarify the distinction between cognitive and metacognitive strategies, the previous section focused on conditions rather than strategies (e.g., opportunities for note-taking and dictation), while this section focuses on learner-directed approaches. The following three studies highlight metacognitive strategies in relation to the development of L2 listening.

Cross (2011) argues that teaching and learning about listening comprehension in the language classroom is not an easy undertaking. Although modern course books often recommend the explicit teaching of listening strategies as a way of facilitating less-skilled learners' understanding, he suggests that the narrow focus of such an approach does not provide learners with adequate knowledge about the nature of L2 listening, associated challenges, and the cognitive and emotional factors involved. Thus, the goal of his study was to see if metacognitive instruction as an L2 strategy could benefit less-skilled listeners' comprehension in the context of his own classroom.

Working with 20 postsecondary EFL L1 Japanese students studying at a language school in central Japan, Cross (2011) developed an intervention focused on improving metacognition in listening, and tested its effectiveness using pre- and post- test measures of listening scores (not strategy use). The study design involved the participation of learners in a task sequence of predicting, monitoring, problem identification, and evaluating in each of five listening lessons aimed at promoting their comprehension of television news items (e.g., BBC TV News items as a form of authentic material). All the news items were approximately two minutes long and shown in segments. The task sequence included the explicit sharing, discussion, and evaluation of strategies by

learners. Essentially, participants read a text, predicted the listening content, shared their predictions, listened for two minutes, took notes, shared what they heard with a partner and discussed what strategies they had used to try to understand the news segment, and considered together strategies they could employ to deal with identified gaps in their understanding. They listened to the segment a second time, took notes, discussed strategies used, and worked together to write a summary representing an agreed account based on their notes and discussion of the main points in the segment. They followed seven steps in the 'pedagogical cycle' for five lessons. After listening to all segments and completing the associated tasks, the complete news item was played and learners were given the transcript to read simultaneously. Then the whole news item was replayed again while participants looked at the screen and listened without referring to the transcript. They subsequently discussed how successful their listening strategy use had been and shared possible strategies they could try in the future to help with problems they encountered.

To assess the effect of the intervention, Cross (2011) administered pre- and post-listening tests that he developed for measuring improvement in listening comprehension of the BBC News items. The tests were a compilation of the students' notes taken while listening to each segment and their written summaries of the segment's main points. Cross scored the individual student's responses for the two tests using a partial scoring system that had been empirically supported by Bonk (2000). Cross, and a colleague trained in the scoring system, awarded points ranging from one (isolated words) to four (a coherent and complete main point), but the researcher did not utilize any metacognitive

assessments. From the 20 students, Cross identified four less-skilled and four more-skilled listeners for further study. He found, through a comparison of the raw pre- and post-test scores at the end of the intervention, three of four less-skilled listeners made notable gains across the five lessons, whereas only one of four more-skilled listeners improved. These findings add support to the view that metacognitive instruction utilizing a systematic pedagogical cycle may help less-skilled listeners to develop their listening ability, although there may be a threshold for higher skill levels beyond which effects are minimal.

In a longer-term study, Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) investigated the effects of a metacognitive, process-based approach to teaching second language (L2) listening over a semester. They recruited 106 postsecondary university-level students of French as a Second Language (FSL) drawn from six intact classes (two high-beginner and four low-intermediate classes) as participants. The participating teacher in the experimental group led the learners through the metacognitive processes of prediction, planning, monitoring, evaluating, and problem solving while practicing L2 listening texts. The same teacher led the control group and employed the same listening texts but without any metacognitive strategies.

Listening achievement was measured using Version A (i.e., the university's listening section of their placement test) with subtests that included questions with multiple-choice (MC) responses, a short telephone conversation with two MC questions, a student-student dialogue with two MC questions, an advertisement with four MC questions, a radio interview with five MC questions. Metacognition was measured via the

MALQ questionnaire, which consists of 21 randomly ordered items, which measure students' perceived use of the strategies and processes underlying five factors (e.g., planning and evaluation, problem solving, directed attention, mental translation, and person knowledge) related to regulation of L2 listening comprehension. The listening test was given at the beginning and end of the study, and the MALQ was administered at the beginning, middle, and end of the study immediately after a listening activity. In addition, the researchers randomly selected six students from the experimental group to participate in a stimulated-recall session on their MALQ responses at the middle and end points of the study. During these sessions, the six participants discussed any discrepancies (e.g., two point differences) in their responses and possible reasons for such discrepancies based on their final completion of the MALQ.

Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari analyzed the participants' performance on listening tests as well as their responses to questionnaires and stimulated recall interviews. They determined that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group on the final comprehension measure, a multiple-choice listening test, with even the less skilled listeners making greater gains than their more skilled peers. Transcript data from stimulated-recall sessions provided further evidence of a growing awareness among participants at different levels (e.g., high-beginner and low-intermediate) of the metacognitive processes underlying successful L2 listening. Another important finding of the study was that MALQ student responses changed over the course of the study, particularly in the areas of problem solving and mental translation. "An important characteristic of skilled listening... is the ability to overcome a compulsion to attempt to

process what one hears word by word" (p. 489). The reported increased use of mental translation could reflect a greater lexical knowledge or an ability to inference more accurately (and hence problem solve more) as listeners learned to use all the linguistic data at their disposal. This study gives us positive support for a pedagogy of L2 listening comprehension that helps learners become overall strategic listeners by leading them through the metacognitive processes underlying listening, particularly in terms of aiding less-skilled L2 listeners.

Wang and Treffers-Daller (2017) later explored what proportion of the variance in L2 learners' listening comprehension is explained by general L2 language proficiency, L2 vocabulary knowledge, and metacognition. Using the placement test results and a modified MALQ, they looked at data from 151 postsecondary L1 Chinese university students and determined that vocabulary size is the strongest predictor of L2 listening proficiency, followed by general language proficiency, with metacognitive awareness less important. These results are in tension with those from Cross (2011) and Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) showing more favorable metacognitive findings.

Summary of metacognitive strategy studies. The metacognitive intervention studies reviewed here show favorable findings for a metacognitive strategic approach (Cross, 2010; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010). It should be noted here that in the Wang and Treffers-Daller (2017) study, which contrasted with these findings, metacognition was measured through self-report rather than by measures which tap more directly into participants' cognitive functioning. Wang and Treffers-Daller (2017) acknowledge that further studies will need to focus on assessing metacognition more

directly.

Mixed Strategy Studies

Two researchers (Chen, 2009, 2013; Vandergrift, 2003) have examined a range of strategies, what I call here: Mixed Strategy Studies. That is, these researchers have situated their studies along a continuum that encompasses cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective frames for L2 listening research. A social-affective learning strategy is a technique used to deal with emotional and socio-cultural challenges that learners encounter in their learning process (Oxford, 1990).

In a foundational study, Vandergrift (2003b) describes the gap between L2 listening theory and practice by examining the effect of two tasks designed to teach students how to listen**.** He proposes that listening anxiety often spirals from an implicit notion that L2 listeners must grasp every word, as well as substandard experiences with a 'listen and answer the following questions' approach to listening activities often taken by textbooks and teachers (Holden, 2002; Mendelsohn, 2001). "When the focus of listening activities is limited to verification of comprehension, students become more anxious and often resort to inappropriate and ineffective strategies" (Vandergrift, 2003b, p. 426), which I would assert is the whole focus of the literature in the cognitive strategies section I just reviewed. The root of this anxiety is preempted by the divide between L2 listening researchers and actual classroom teachers. While researchers advocate a consciousness-raising approach to teaching L2 listening comprehension (Field, 1998; Mendelsohn, 1994, 1995, 1998, Vandergrift, 1999 as cited in Vandergrift, 2003b), practitioners who use a traditional textbook approach do little to attend to the development of their

students' metacognitive knowledge that is necessary to understand that listening development is a process.

Vandergrift asserts that by understanding the psycholinguistic principles of L2 listening and learning, language teachers can teach students *how* to listen, which is the focus of the current dissertation. The key is for instructors to understand the principles that concern the role of listening which include the use of cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective strategies that facilitate comprehension and make learning more effective. This means that language instructors need to understand "the ways in which the listener utilizes incoming speech, and the interaction between different kinds of background knowledge and strategic thinking by the learner" (p. 426). The purpose of the study, therefore, was to raise student consciousness of the process of successful listening and help them gain greater control over their listening efforts**.** To that end, Vandergrift's goal was to determine the effectiveness of focal language tasks in *(a) facilitating listening comprehension,* and *(b) raising student awareness of the process of L2 listening.*

To test his idea*,* Vandergrift (2003b) designed a small-scale study which involved two groups of university-level students in a beginner-level French as a Second Language course to experiment with tasks that could teach students how to listen and then to determine the effectiveness of these tasks based on the premise that integrating a metacognitive approach into regular listening exercises will raise student consciousness of the process of listening and help students gain control over their listening efforts, ultimately leading to self-regulated listening outside of the classroom as well. The elected two groups of L1 English students in their second semester of beginner-

university-level French (N=41) completed two tasks over a 13-week period, and wrote reflective journals, which the researcher analyzed every two weeks for views on different aspects of students' perceived learning and progress. The listening tasks and procedures involved a mixture of top-down (e.g., making predictions) and metacognitive (e.g., reflecting on specific details in order to establish a sequence of events) listening activities. At the end of the course (week 12), students reflected solely on a task sheet (i.e., the effectiveness of this approach to listening and its usefulness in facilitating comprehension). Vandergrift analyzed the qualitative data for "commonalities relating to task utility and development of listening strategies regarding (a) student perceptions of the effectiveness of these tasks in facilitating listening comprehension, and (b) student awareness of the process of L2 listening" (p. 432).

Vandergrift found that students responded positively to both tasks and proposed an appropriate recommendation for improving Task B**.** Although most students found Task B helpful for practicing the listening skill, especially when "the speaker speaks kind of fast" or "the task sets up an anticipated sequence to listen for" (p. 434), almost all students also commented that there were too many logical options for the sequence structuring. For instance, one said, "I had no framework to know whether they fished or shopped first…" (p. 434). As a solution, the students proposed that a starting point and (possibly) an end point should be provided. Further analysis of the students' comments pertaining to the effect of student awareness of the listening process revealed the following benefits:

- The crucial nature of predictions

- The usefulness of the discussion with a partner
- The motivational dimension of this two-pronged approach

The students' comments support "the contention that *consciousness-raising* can (a) encourage students to take on the responsibility for planning, monitoring, and evaluating their own learning, and, (b) motivate students through success that makes them feel good about themselves and their abilities" (Paris & Winograd, 1990, as cited in Vandergrift, 2003, p. 435, italics added). In Vandergrift's study, students were taking on responsibility for critiquing the tasks. The only process students did not mention in their reflections was the metacognitive process of evaluating.

Nonetheless, it appears that these types of L2 listening tasks are effective for helping students understand a more difficult text, provided that at least a starting point (and perhaps endpoint) is provided when schema is not immediately apparent. It also appears that systematic consciousness-raising led these students to become more sensitive to the process of listening and to their development of metacognitive knowledge about L2 listening.

This finding has broad implications in that the achievement obtained in this study, e.g., systematically leading students through the process of listening as part of regular listening activities and encouraging students to practice the metacognitive processes involved in listening, has been positively noted as students appeared to become "more sensitive" to the process of listening (p. 438). However, one important limitation of this study is the lack of empirical listening comprehension tasks (or tests) to assess the effects on listening achievement**.** Nevertheless, this paper makes a contribution to the

field of language teaching with its study design and it also affirms the benefits of promoting both language content and knowledge pertaining to language processes in postsecondary language classrooms. It also outlines a classroom methodology that can be adapted by teachers in a variety of listening comprehension activities in order to teach students how to listen. Thus, the study plays a role in bridging theory and practice.

In a similar situation, Chen (2013) examined students' perceived listening problems over time as they developed their listening strategies in the context of a Taiwanese technical college. Strategies were both cognitive and metacognitive, but not social/affective. Chen recruited 31 EFL, L1 Mandarin, postsecondary students enrolled in a course entitled: English Listening Practice, at a technological college in Taiwan. The methodology for this study included placing the participants in a class that met for two hours a week for fourteen weeks. The listening materials adopted in the intervention course included a textbook, supplementary daily-life authentic audio and video clips (around140 words/minute with a range of 1-3 minutes), and listening comprehension test practice. The SI was integrated as an extension of the listening curriculum. In every SI session, the instructor modeled listening strategies for unidirectional listening tasks. The general SI highlighted were as follows:

- **Metacognitive strategies**: The teacher familiarized the students with the procedures of pre-listening planning, while-listening monitoring, directed attention and selective attention as well as post-listening evaluation as strategies to deal with a listening task.
- **Cognitive strategies**: The teacher modeled listening for gist, listening for

details, inferencing, predicting, elaborating, visualizing, summarizing, and note-taking.

- **Social/affective strategies**: The teacher encouraged cooperation and confidence building during the SI sessions.

The general SI planning procedures followed the phases suggested from several strategy training models (Chamot, 1995; Chamot, et al. 1999, Mendelsohn, 1994; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990), such as:

- **Strategic-awareness raising,** with the teacher modeling and employing think-aloud procedures.
- **Demonstration,** with the teacher modeling the strategies appropriate to the task demands.
- **Practice,** with students practicing the focused strategies with similar tasks and discussing their strategy use, problems they encountered, and possible solutions.
- **Evaluation,** with students self-evaluating the effectiveness of the focused strategies.

Chen (2013) examined pre- and post-questionnaires along with reflective journals. She found changes in the following three areas: a) unfamiliar vocabulary, b) rapid speech rate, c) linking sounds between words. For example, she compared, with a one-sample t-test, the results of the students' perceived listening problems between the pre-test and the post-test questionnaires. Among ten perceived listening problems between the pre- and post-tests, there were significant decreases on the following: "Unfamiliar vocabulary and

phrases" ($t=3.89$, $p< .001$), "Rapid speech rate" ($t=3.62$, $p < .01$), "Linking sounds between words" ($t=3.42$, $p < .01$), followed by the problems of "cannot listen to the next part when thinking about meaning" ($t=2.63$, $p < .05$) and "speaker's accent" ($t=2.38$, $p< .05$). Likewise, the listening problems reported from initial, middle, and final sets of reflective journals (N=31) revealed that students' perceived problems shifted from "unfamiliar vocabulary" (37%) and "rapid speech rate" (28%), which indicated challenges with bottom-up modes of processing listening to "cannot segment the speech," "cannot remember what was heard," "cannot form a mental image from words heard," "cannot figure out the main idea," and "lack of background knowledge", which reflect greater awareness of both bottom-up and top-down modes of processing in listening. One student reported, "I could recognize some words while reading, but I couldn't recognize them while listening, even some very easy words. Maybe I'm not familiar with the sounds but the spellings" (p. 94). Chen felt this comment reflected an honest response to a traditional L2 teaching practice that prioritizes memorizing word meanings and spellings but neglects instruction on how to say the words. It also reflected that the L2 learner had a better understanding of their difficulties and were more willing to employ more effective strategies as solutions, which would indicate that the metacognitive training also had a positive effect.

Chen made another interesting observation. As students became more aware of the strategies available to them, the number of listening difficulties they reported increased. For example, in the category of "cannot figure out the main ideas of the message," two students stated: "Although I listened to key words, I still don't know what

the news really going to express for" and "I predicted what was going to say and inferred the words meanings from the context, but when all the parts were put together, I still couldn't get the overall meanings" (p. 94). Thus, participants noted higher level processing difficulties as they developed in their strategy use. Although students attempted to also employ top-down strategies, such as looking for the main idea of a text, this remained challenging for them. Chen hypothesized that this difficulty could be due to either a lack of background knowledge about a topic or insufficient linguistic ability to take in important points (i.e., the message). She supposed that some students might not have had the confidence to keep listening to a text once they realized they had only partial comprehension at the beginning of it. Some also might not be tolerant with the ambiguity in processing listening input. As a result, they would rather return to their habitual strategy use of focusing on the meaning of every single word. When this happened, students returned to their former complaints regarding 'unknown vocabulary' and 'rapid speech rate.' Chen speculated this might persist for these learners until they could engage in higher level strategy use again to try to be more effective in strategy application. By contrast, students who were more confident of their adapted strategy use would keep reflecting on how to deal with their newly emerging difficulties.

The Chen 2013 study uses the same study design and the same participants as an earlier study, Chen (2009), which exclusively analyzed the students' reflective journals and found that they reported greater awareness and control of their listening strategies. For example, in the first set of reflective journals students indicated that at the outset of strategy instruction (SI) they favored what the researcher referenced as *inferencing,*

understanding each word/detail, fixation, and *replay (*mostly bottom-up skills*)*. However, as the SI proceeded, all proficiency levels increased their use of top-down strategies, or what Chen referenced as *listening for gist, elaboration, prediction, visualization, summarization, note-taking,* and *resourcing*. By the end of SI, the middle proficiency L2 listeners used more top-down strategies (e.g., *listening for gist, inferencing, prediction, note-taking,* and *resourcing*) while the high proficiency listeners used only two of the strategies: *elaboration* and *summarization*, both of which are top-down. Taken together, both of Chen's studies provide positive support for strategy instruction in aiding the development of L2 listening skills and provide researchers with some insight into which strategies listeners use at specific levels.

The implications of these Mixed Strategy Studies are broad for L2 teaching pedagogy. Although the studies in this section took place in actual classrooms, the same was not true for most of the studies previously reviewed in the above sections. As L2 listeners employed higher-level strategies, they gained deeper insight into their listening challenges. This awareness may help to move L2 learners toward consciously skilled L2 listeners (Anderson, 1995, 2005; Vandergrift, 2003b) via level-appropriate, targeted strategies.

Summary of mixed strategies studies. The mixed strategy studies highlight some of the positive benefits of strategy instruction. Vandergrift (2003b) identifies the benefit of predictions, the usefulness of discussion with a partner, and the motivational effect of focusing attention on the process as well as the product of listening. And Chen's (2009, 2013) studies provide evidence for L2 learners who gained a better understanding

of their difficulties and were more willing to employ more effective strategies as solutions, which would indicate that the metacognitive training also had a positive effect. Furthermore, strategy-instruction affects learners differently depending on their level of proficiency. For example, the middle proficiency L2 listeners in Chen's (2009) study used more top-down strategies (e.g., *listening for gist, inferencing, prediction, note-taking,* and *resourcing*) while the high proficiency listeners used only two of the strategies: *elaboration* and *summarization*, both of which are top-down.

Discussion of Findings

In this literature review, I set out to describe the strategies that L2 listening researchers have identified as useful in improving L2 listening comprehension as well as the evidence developed in their studies. In terms of L2 listening-focused research, I found multiple forms of evidence for L2 listening strategies among the 18 different studies explored along a continuum of cognitive/metacognitive/mixed studies (see Table 2.3). I note that in attempting to answer my research questions, most of the empirical studies to date have largely been defined by what students do, but they do not address language teachers' instructional practice. In the end, I found a lot of evidence for strategy instruction to support L2 listening development, but questions still remain both for the field and for myself specifically as to the testing instead of teaching focus on L2 listening instruction. So, yes, there has been some interesting work on L2 listening strategies, but the studies reviewed do not address teacher education or instructional practice directly.

Table 2.3

L2 Strategies Identified with Specific Studies and Nature of Evidence

L2 strategies identified	Specific studies	Nature of evidence (positive, negative, mixed, neutral)
Cognitive		
Note-taking (for tests and scaffolded instruction)	Carrell, Dunkel, and Mollaun (2004); Siegel (2016a)	Positive
Inferencing, elaboration, prediction, contextualization, fixation, reconstruction	Goh (1998)	Mixed by level
Perception, parsing, and utilization	Goh (2000)	Negative
Dictation/ability to recognize high frequency words	Kiany and Shiramiry (2002)**;** Matthews and Cheng (2015)	Positive
Exact repetition and reduced speech rate	Jensen and Vinther (2003)	Positive/Negative
Trusting in onset of words/Disregarding context and word-class	Field (2004)	Mixed
Confidence, concentration, motivation, and feeling of control over one's listening.	Yeldham and Gruba (2016)	Positive
Pictures/written background text; repetition	Chang and Read (2007)	Positive
Reading-while-listening; repeated practice	Chang and Millett (2014); Chang, Millett, and Renandya (2018)	Positive
Metacognitive		
Systematic pedagogical cycle	Cross (2011); Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010)	Mixed by level: Positive for less-skilled; neutral for more skilled

Metacognitive awareness	Wang and Treffers-Daller (2017)	Neutral/Negative
Mixed Strategies		
Making predictions; reflecting on specific details with a partner	Vandergrift (2003b)	Positive
Pre-listening planning, while-listening monitoring, directed attention and selective attention as well as post-listening evaluation; listening for gist, listening for details, inferencing, predicting, elaborating, visualizing, summarizing, and note-taking; cooperation and confidence building	(Chen, 2009, 2013)	Positive

More specifically, I found repeated positive evidence for *predicting, evaluating, monitoring, note-taking, dictation, visual support, text support, modeling, peer-based discussion*, and *self-reflection*. I found both positive and negative evidence for the role of *repetition* as the Chang and Read (2007) and Jensen and Vinther (2003) studies demonstrated. The role of metacognition also seems positive; though I note the Wang and Treffers-Daller (2017) study as a possible caution. In the discussion below, I explore four limitations and several possible implications of this work for teacher education and instructional practice.

Limitations of Existing Research

In my synthesis of the limitations of existing research, I now focus on four limitations — focus on student outcomes, quantitative focal points, unidirectional listening contexts, and favoring note-taking for listening — which I contextualize with a

description of the kinds of academic discourse such students will encounter.

Focus on student outcomes. Overall, researchers have continued to claim a positive effect of explicit strategy use on improving learners' listening proficiency across a range of settings (e.g., Chen, 2003, 2009; Goh, 1998; Graham, 2017; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Vandergrift, 2003; Yeldham & Gruba, 2016). It is important to note though that most of these studies have concentrated on examining the outcome of the strategy instruction, based on pre- and post-test designs with students serving as focal subjects rather than on the process of strategy instruction. It could also be argued that it is not the quantity of strategy use, but the quality of strategy use that is crucial to solving learners' listening problems and arriving at successful listening comprehension (Chen, 2010; Goh, 2002; Graham, 2003; Oxford, 2001). Therefore, this section suggestions that the field needs more studies of students' processes of learning and using listening strategies *as well as* or alongside investigations of teaching practice.

Quantitative focal points. Although the effectiveness of listening strategy instruction on improving learners' listening proficiency has been recognized across various studies in a range of settings, most of these studies have also been based on quantitative pre- and post-test designs measured by learners' gains on listening tests (Arnold, 2000; Carrell et al., 2004; Chang et al., 2018; Chang & Millett, 2014; Chang & Read, 2007; Cross, 2010; Field, 2004; Jensen & Vinther, 2003; Kiany & Shiramiry, 2002; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010; Wang & Treffers-Daller, 2017; and Yeldham & Gruba, 2016) or on increases in the number of listening strategies used (Chen, 2009; Goh, 1998). Few studies have focused on the development of learners' strategy acquisition in

dealing with their listening problems during the process of strategy instruction. Chen (2013) is an exception, having documented how learners adapt their strategy use to overcome obstacles that occur during the listening process.

Unidirectional listening contexts. Nearly all of the studies reviewed also focused on unidirectional listening and usually as a form of testing (e.g., Arnold, 2000; Carrell et al., 2004; Chang & Millett, 2014; Chang, Millett, & Renandya, 2018; Chang & Read, 2007). This construction presupposes that students, at all levels, know how to make sense of what an academic interlocutor is expressing (i.e., processing the aural input), both pragmatically and functionally. It also presumes that if students can perform well on unidirectional listening tests, then they will be able to manage the even greater cognitive load of multi-party listening contexts such as academic discussion groups. Carrell, Dunkel, and Mollaun (2004), for example, used short scripts, which constrain the listening task. It is one thing to understand a scripted conversation for 2.5 minutes, but it is another to understand an unscripted classroom lecture of much longer length (even longer than five minutes, which was their 'long' version). Lectures of such brevity are rather rare in academia. Further, the evidence for note-taking as a strategy presupposes that the students know how to make sense of what is being communicated in this form of unidirectional listening.

Favoring note-taking for listening. In many ways, notetaking can be seen as demonstrating an orthographic version of what one has heard as another form of testing. Although both the Siegel (2016a) and the Carrell, Dunkel, and Mollaun (2004) studies found positive evidence for the use of notes when responding to comprehension

questions, it is hard to say if taking notes actually improves L2 learners' listening comprehension. Notes may show a learner's comprehension, orthographically, for teachers who do not otherwise know if they are providing effective L2 listening instruction. However, note-taking does not necessarily provide evidence for listening accuracy or a learner's decoding skill. All of that said, it may provide evidence for the value of teaching word boundaries. As Cutler (2012) put it:

> "Words arrive at the listener's ear not as clearly separated units, but embedded in a continuous stream of speech without robust or reliable boundary signals; to understand messages, listeners must parse the stream into individual words. Here too the native tongue helps: listeners develop segmentation procedures based on phonological likelihood." (p. 170)

This review summarizes evidence for the effectiveness of cognitive, metacognitive, and mixed strategies for developing L2 listening comprehension. It also points us to some of the linguistic features of language that may need to be prioritized in teaching and teacher training. Perhaps if the fields of second language phonology (e.g., L2 listening) and TESOL can agree on some of the features of aural input that must be taught in a language classroom, then teacher education programs will have a shared focal point that might shift listening from a neglected skill in language teaching programs to a well-developed skill that links theory and practice (Vandergrift, 2003b). What is most important now is an explicit focus on teaching specifically listening that prepares L2 learners for various forms of discourse.

Possible Implications for Future (Teacher) Research

What other forms might instruction in L2 listening take? The field has interesting evidence for the role of postsecondary learners' strategy use, but a particular type of scaffolding (of notetaking) is also a promising framework for more focused attention to development of listening, which only one study (e.g., Siegel, 2016a) explicitly explored. In other words, we have evidence of strategy use and challenges in L2 listening, but now the question is how to scaffold its development. I now briefly discuss my thoughts on what that might look like in light of other studies that have been reviewed.

Scaffolding as a form of instruction. In the context of classroom instruction, a teacher needs to provide assistance, or scaffolding, in facilitating the process of how to do something (e.g., listen) and also recognize when assistance is no longer needed (e.g., Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Nasir, Rosebery, Warren, & Lee, 2014; Pea, 2004; Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). A scaffolded approach enables learners to accomplish tasks beyond their current capabilities through a collaborative process in which a teacher or a more proficient learner provides support or guidance to assist a less proficient learner (Pea, 2004; Wood et al., 1976). Assisted performance, which in this context would entail/constitute scaffolding, in an L2 environment might focus on the activities involved in a multi-party critical discussion where L2 listeners have to listen to numerous, unscripted ideas while also discussing one central topic.

In other words, other forms of L2 listening instruction might take the form of scaffolding an oral activity that involves the complex tasks of both speaking and listening. As we can see from this review, Vandergrift's (2003b) study showed favorable

evidence for peer discussion regarding comprehension tasks. We can also see that some of the studies isolated vocabulary instruction as an incremental part leading toward more robust performance on L2 listening comprehension assessments as measured by vocabulary size. The Siegel (2016a) study affirms that scaffolding the note-taking process and sharing with peers proved favorable in working toward greater listening comprehension. Thus, in this case, the Siegel (2016a) study would not constitute a purely cognitive approach, but a more nuanced form of listening pedagogy. These steps in the language development process may play a crucial role in shifting from unidirectional listening environments to more complex multi-party talk (e.g., panel discussions). Also, the findings from Mixed Strategies research might reflect more of the complexities involved with L2 listening than the cognitive or metacognitive approaches have included.

In short, a Mixed Strategies approach to L2 listening instruction might be further explored in a teaching context that describes the process of how teachers scaffold the listening process in facilitating both less-skilled and more-skilled postsecondary learners' development.

Conclusion

The focal empirical studies described in this review of the postsecondary L2 listening literature have highlighted cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective strategies as critical to listening in academic contexts. However, they leave unaddressed the questions of how to teach and not just test listening, and what other forms of instruction L2 listening might take, such as Mixed Strategy and scaffolded instruction. Though I have intentionally only focused on strategies in this review of the literature,

certainly other L2 listening studies exist, not focused on strategies, about other forms of instruction. I suggest that future studies might consider exploring both of these with teachers and/or students as the focal participants. However, this current study is a step toward better understanding by first focusing on teachers. I also think the field could benefit from more qualitative studies that describe L2 listening strategies so they can be replicated by others. The field might also consider shifting from its well-informed unidirectional listening tasks to more complicated multi-party talk. This seems particularly poignant as professors continue to move away from the traditional monologue 'lecture format' to more interactive and participatory-based classroom/learning environments (including on-line formats).

L2 listening development remains critical for second language development, but has not been adequately addressed from a teaching perspective. Indeed, it is well recognized in the field that L2 listening has not been an active focus of classroom instruction. For decades, researchers such as Field (2008) and Goh (2010) have called for more teaching of listening as a skill in its own right, rather than something which teachers assume will develop naturally. Yet "[l]ittle attention has been focused on systematic practice in L2 listening (see DeKeyeser, 2007) – that is, on the integrated instruction of a sequential repertoire of strategies to help L2 learners develop comprehension skills for real-life listening…"(Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010, p. 471). Thus, an approach to real-life listening based on scaffolding critical but nuanced listening skills may be worthy of investigation if we are to improve L2 teaching and support L2 learning for academic contexts.

CHAPTER THREE:

Research Methods

In this chapter, I present the research questions and methods. I also describe the study's design, data sources and collection procedures, and the process of case analysis employed. I conclude this chapter with a discussion of the study's integrity, including issues of validity, and limitations.

Research Questions

In the previous chapter, I described studies that have documented the effectiveness of L2 listening strategies. Now, I will differentiate between a "strategy" and a language "skill", like listening, in the context of a program that teaches English language skills. While a strategy is a systematic plan, consciously adapted and monitored, to improve one's performance in learning, a skill is an acquired ability to perform well (i.e., proficiency). The overarching goal of this dissertation is to investigate practices and challenges associated with teaching English learners how to develop their current listening skills in a well-established university-based intensive English program (IEP) in the northeastern United States. The 40-year-old program had recently transitioned from an integrated-skills (i.e., combining reading, writing, listening, and speaking in one course) to a paired-skills (i.e., combining reading and writing in one course and listening and speaking in another course) approach. My goal was to investigate in what ways listening, the L2 skill researchers have claimed is the least understood and the least practiced (Field, 2019; Graham, 2017; Graham, Santos, & Francis-Brophy, 2013; Siegel, 2018; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012), was being approached programmatically as well as

pedagogically in the new paired-skills structure. Accordingly, the research questions guiding this study are:

RQ 1A: How have historic challenges influenced program leaders' decision to move from an integrated- to a paired-skills program?

RQ 1B: Do the program leaders see connections between the skills-shift and the new assessment requirement? What connections specifically?

RQ 1C: How do the program leaders envision that these changes will improve students' learning and what do they see as the key challenges?

RQ 2A: When describing their past experience teaching listening in an integrated-skills context, what do instructors highlight as valued forms of instruction and/or challenges to their work?

RQ 2B: When describing their current experience teaching listening in the paired-skills approach, what has changed specifically in their practice? What are they finding productive? What are they finding challenging?

RQ 3A: What listening instructional practices are instructors observed to engage in under the new listening paired with speaking program emphasis?

Research Methods and Design

To conduct this study, I used interpretive qualitative research and case study methods. In line with Ravitch and Carl's (2016) recommendation, I use a conceptual framework as a "generative source of thinking, planning, conscious action, and reflection

throughout the research process" (p. 34). A conceptual framework also serves as a means of explaining why my topic is important practically and theoretically as well as detailing how my methods will answer my research questions. As described in Chapter Two, the conceptual framework for this study looks at ***listening as a process*** (Chen, 2013; Goh, 2000; Graham, 2006). Under this framing, L2 listening is defined as an "active and complex process, in which listeners combine the detection of sounds, meaning of vocabulary, and grammatical structures and interpretation of stress and intonation, and finally interpret it within the immediate and … larger sociocultural context" (An & Shi, 2013, p. 632). With this orientation in mind, I sought to understand administrators' and teachers' thinking and practice as the program transitioned from teaching L2 listening in an integrated-skills context to a paired-skills context to see in what ways L2 listening was being approached, both programmatically and pedagogically. Similarly, I describe L2 listening practice in the new program because I am interested in how it is being taught, which includes whether as a process or product, which is aligned with my conceptual framework (i.e., that the framework of listening as process requires attention to how listening is taught and learned within a particular classroom context).

This study lends itself to a case study design (Yin, 2014), being an inquiry into a particular language program in transition as a case within a bounded system of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). Yin (2009) stated, "The distinctive need for case study arises out of the desire to understand complex social phenomena. In brief, the case study allows an investigation to retain holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events" (p. 4). Taking an interpretive qualitative approach to

the analysis of the case, the study examines the focal program from the perspectives of both administrators and instructors. It describes how administrators and listening instructors approached the instructional opportunities and challenges in L2 listening as the program shifted its focus from an integrated to paired-skills approach. It also focused, through observation, on documenting the instructional practices of two classroom teachers in the new program. In this way, the case study tells a story of a particular educational context with practical implications for teachers of L2 listening in academic EL programs.

Research Site

The research site is a university-based Intensive English Program (IEP), hereafter known as University Studies English Programs (USEP) (pseudonym), in the northeast quadrant of the United States. USEP is a branch of Global Programs that oversees study abroad and international student scholars as well as students who are still developing English language and culture skills as part of their preparation for undergraduate or graduate experience. Thus, the Global Programs department is a larger umbrella of a university that hosts USEP. The university itself has a student population of over 30,000 and 25% percent are international students from a wide range of cultural and linguistic backgrounds including China, Colombia, Japan, Kazakhstan, Korea, Kuwait, Mexico, Saudi Arabia, Taiwan, United Arab Emirates, and Venezuela. USEP offers a range of language levels, from beginner to advanced, as well as other specialized programs for global professionals.

Instructors who teach in the program typically hold a master's degree in TESOL

or applied linguistics, which has historically been considered the terminal degree in TESOL. Many of the instructors have lived and taught abroad. Many have spent their entire career teaching at USEP and are considered skilled and able to switch program levels and courses with very short notice.

Despite varied student L1 backgrounds, for most of the students in the program the goal is uniform: to pursue higher education at a university where English is the medium of instruction. For these adult learners (ages 18+), idealized target performance is the ability to function extremely well in all four skill areas, e.g., reading, writing, speaking, and listening as measured by standardized test scores (e.g., Test of English as a Foreign Language). The program describes the goals for an English for academic purposes concentration on their website as: *This concentration will prepare you to succeed in an American college or university. You will improve your overall abilities in both spoken and written English, as well as your understanding of U.S. academic culture*.

Researcher Access

Having worked in the program for over ten years, I knew the language instructors and program leaders. As a doctoral student, I approached the program leaders to see if I could use the opportunity of their program shift to document approaches to L2 listening. After gaining their approval, writing a proposal, and gaining IRB approval, I solicited volunteers for the study via fliers, approved by the program administrators and the IRB, which I distributed to each instructor's physical mailbox (See Appendix C: Recruitment Script). I also posted fliers in central areas such as the breakroom, restroom, and copy room. Of the eight teachers delegated to teach listening/speaking during the semester of

the study, seven volunteered to be in the study, and two of the seven were later selected to participate in the second phase of the study, which I describe below. Based on our prior professional relationship, the two program leaders readily participated in the study.

My history with the program helped in recruiting participants; all were colleagues with whom I had interacted professionally for over a decade. This also helped me to target the instructors assigned to specifically teach in the new paired-skills listening/speaking section of the program during the semester of the study. In addition, the program leaders and instructors felt comfortable in sharing and reflecting on their beliefs and practices regarding L2 listening pedagogy. At the study's conclusion, the participants expressed their appreciation of the benefits of speaking with me about their beliefs and practices; individually each instructor observed that our conversations made them think more about how they taught L2 listening.

Standard Frameworks: Level Descriptions

Description of Language Levels

In higher education, there are several frameworks that are used to measure or qualify the wide array of language levels. At USEP, the standard frameworks for level descriptors are mid- to advanced- language levels, or what USEP refers to as Levels 2-8 [in the Common European Framework of References (CEFR) language levels A2-B2+/C1], which I describe in more detail below. Due to the fact that USEP is an academically-oriented university-based IEP, most students who enter the program place into the intermediate or advanced level after taking the Oxford English Test. USEP does not in fact offer low beginner or Level 1 language classes. For an overview of the USEP

levels and corresponding listening student learning outcomes, see Table 3.1: *USEP Standard Program Curriculum for Listening*. I also include the European equivalent for each level in the table as these more widely known levels than USEP's level categorization.

The description of the USEP language levels (see Table 3.1) serves as background as I later analyze the complexity of what an L2 listening teacher must think about when conducting a language lesson. I also provide a description of these levels, as terms such as adapted and unadapted listening materials (and their corresponding suggested length) surface in the observational descriptions of this study. It should be noted that in the former integrated-skills program, students were placed in a course based on their cumulative score on the Michigan Placement Test (0-100). So, in both theory and practice, students' listening abilities were very mixed. In the new paired-skills program, students were placed into reading/writing or listening/speaking classes based on their more isolated scores on the Oxford Placement Test. Thus, students' listening abilities were more generally aligned. Therefore, part of the program shift was also to create more homogenous groupings of students within particular levels.

Notice that these outcomes are prescribed to USEP instructors without any instructional support or recommendations.

Table 3.1:

USEP *Standard Program Curriculum for Listening*

USEP [Common European Framework of References (CEFR) for] Language Level:	**Student Learning Outcomes:**
Level 8 (CEFR: B2+/C1)	Students can extract key information from linguistically unadapted college level audio/visual materials on unfamiliar topics up to 12–15 minutes in length. Students can also synthesize the listening with other reading or listening texts they have been previously exposed to. Students can follow and respond appropriately to extended academic discussions with multiple participants and points of view. Students can do the above following clear, standard speech and with little need for support with repetition or clarification.
Level 7 (CEFR: B2+)	Students can extract key information from linguistically unadapted, high school level audio/visual materials up to 10–12 minutes in length on unfamiliar topics. Students can also synthesize the listening with one other reading or listening text they have been previously exposed to. Students can follow and respond appropriately to an academic discussion with multiple participants. Students can do the above following clear, standard speech and with little need for support with repetition or clarification.
Level 6 (CEFR: B2)	Students can extract key information from linguistically unadapted high school level audio/visual materials 8–10 minutes in length on familiar topics. Students can also relate the listening to their personal lives, following and responding appropriately to a discussion with multiple participants. Students can do the above following clear, standard speech and with some need for support with repetition or clarification.
Level 5 (CEFR: B1+)	Students can extract key information from adapted audio/visual materials 6–8 minutes in length on familiar topics. Students can also relate the listening to their personal lives. Students can follow and respond appropriately to a simple discussion with multiple participants. Students can do the above following clear, standard speech with some need for support with repetition or clarification.
Level 4 (CEFR: B1)	Students can extract key information from adapted audio materials 4-6 minutes in length on familiar, general interest topics and relate the listening to their personal lives. Students

	can follow and respond appropriately to a simple discussion with multiple participants. Students can do the above following a modified speaker's pace and with a consistent need for pausing, repetition or clarification.
Level 3 (CEFR: A2+)	Students can extract key information from adapted audio materials 3–4 minutes in length on familiar, general interest topics and relate the listening to their personal lives. Students can follow and respond to a simple conversation. Students can do the above with written or visual supporting material, a modified speaker's pace, and a consistent need for pausing, repetition or clarification.
Level 2 (CEFR: A2)	Students can extract key information from adapted audio texts 2 minutes in length on familiar, highly predictable topics and relate the listening to their personal lives. Students can follow and respond to a simple conversation. Students can do the above with written or visual supporting material, a modified speaker's pace, and a consistent need for pausing, repetition or clarification.

Note. Listening student learning outcomes by course USEP Levels 2-8 (CEFR A2-B2+/C1).

Participants

The subject population included two program leaders and seven listening/speaking instructors who were teachers of adult (age 18+) learners and assigned to a paired skills listening/speaking class during the Spring 2020 semester when I conducted the study. All of the instructors who participated in the study had been teaching at USEP for a minimum of ten years, and all held a minimum of a master's degree in TESOL, applied linguistics, or its equivalent, and had been assigned to teach a listening/speaking course during the period of the study.

To address my research questions, I interviewed the two program leaders (i.e., Director and Associate Director) and seven instructors to gain understanding of their thoughts on the program, as it was before and after the skill focus change. I interviewed

both administrators and instructors in the USEP program for their perspectives on various facets of the program as well as its educational components. In my review of the literature, I did not find any studies that investigated the phenomenon of L2 listening through the lens of a program's administration and faculty in my review of the literature was on L2 listening strategies in Chapter 2. Moreover, there are few studies that describe the instructional opportunities and challenges that arise when programs and teachers shift their instructional focus.

Researcher Role

My role in this study was as a researcher, but also as a practitioner with considerable experience in this particular program. As a teacher educator, this study increased my understanding of experienced, in-service instructors' beliefs and practices regarding the teaching of L2 listening. It was my hope that by following these instructors and program leaders, I would be able to see the connection or disconnection with regards to L2 listening pedagogy that exists in TESOL teacher preparation courses as well as in the development of ESL/EFL programs.

Data Collection

The data for this study were collected in three phases over four months. Figure 3.1 shows my data collection model. Phase 1 (interviews) took place before USEP's spring semester in the physical program space. Phase 2 (in person classroom observation) took place during four weeks of the first six-week teaching cycle in a physical USEP classroom. Phase 3 (remote classroom observation) took place during four of the second six-week teaching cycles via remote platforms (e.g., Zoom and Blackboard), which was

not anticipated, but was a response to the COVID-19 pandemic.

During Phase 1, each program leader (n=2) and each listening/speaking instructor (n=7) engaged in one interview during the month of January before classes were scheduled to begin. During Phase 2, one instructor, from an advanced-level listening/speaking class was observed during Weeks 2–5 of the six-week teaching cycle. These observations took place in a physical classroom at USEP. Subsequent to data collection in this classroom, I invited the instructor I observed to highlight any sections of the observations of the listening/speaking classes that she thought were directly connected to listening pedagogy; however, she felt extended as it was and did not offer further comments. During Phase 3, one instructor from an even more advanced-level listening/speaking class was observed during Weeks 2–5 of the second six-week teaching cycle. I did not ask the second teacher I observed, who was teaching in remote mode, to comment on the field notes.

Each observation was scheduled for three hours, the length of an entire class, on Tuesdays and Thursdays, 9am–12pm. Before each observation occurred, I asked the instructor to submit a copy of the day's lesson plan, which I used to help structure my field-notes (see Appendix F for observation form and protocol). In total, I conducted 6-7 observations per instructor (two per week for four weeks), conducted during Weeks 2-5 of each six-week cycle, in order to optimize typical listening-skill classes (e.g., students are settled and a routine has begun that does not focus on diagnostic- or summative-assessments). During all observations, all classroom artifacts (e.g., homework assignments, in-class activities, assessments) were collected as they were distributed to

students, but I did not collect any graded or marked instruments that had students' personal data on them.

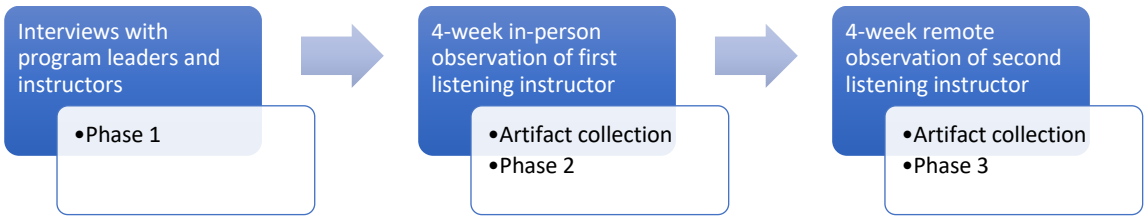


Figure 3.1. Data Collection Model.

Interviews

I interviewed each participant individually once at the beginning of the study using uniform interview protocols, digital recording, and transcription. Each interview lasted approximately 60 minutes and was face-to-face. The program leader interviews took place in their private offices, and the instructor interviews took place in a meeting room, which I had reserved specifically for the study. They were all one-on-one interviews with no other people present.

Program Leaders. The program leader interviews generally inquired about perceived challenges and opportunities for the new paired-skilled curriculum. Table 3.1 shows examples of questions from each category. The complete interview protocols are included in Appendix E. The initial set of questions targeted the shift from integrated to paired-skills instruction (e.g., "How would you describe USEP's approach to L2 skills instruction before the recent shift in focus?"). Although it was not a central focus to the present study, I also asked questions about the new emphasis on formative assessment (e.g., "What challenges or problems or needs are you hoping to address through the

design and use of formative assessment?") and connections to the shift to paired-listening/speaking skills instruction.

I sent a list of the questions to interviewees ahead of time so they knew what I would ask them. My rationale for this was to respect their time limitations for participation in the study and to streamline the efficiency of the procedures. To add to the overall picture of the program, I sometimes asked one interviewee to comment on something another interviewee had said. The idea here was to take the opportunity the first comment had presented to gain a deeper understanding of the issue. Thus, I tried to remain mindful to not shy away from internal tensions if they arose. See Table 3.2: *Examples of Program Leader Questions from Interview Protocol.*

Table 3.2

Examples of Program Leader Questions from Interview Protocol

Category/Description	**Questions**
Questions related to the shift from integrated to paired-skills instruction	1. How would you describe USEP's approach to L2 skills instruction before the recent shift in focus? 2. How would you describe the shift in focus from integrated-skills in one core class to more paired skills in separate classes? 3. What challenges or problems are you hoping to address through this shift? 4. What kinds of effects or outcomes do you hope for? 5. Could you please tell me a little about the current USEP focus on more isolated skills for reading and writing, but the treatment of speaking/listening as one unit?
Open-ended question	1. Is there anything else that you think I should know regarding the culture, challenges, or goals of USEP that might inform the field of Second Language Acquisition and/or L2 listening pedagogy?

Instructors. The second set of semi-structured interviews was designed for faculty who taught a listening/speaking skill classes at USEP during the time of the study. I intentionally casted a wide net to recruit as many listening instructors as possible in order to compare/contrast their views on L2 listening instruction at various skill levels (intermediate through advanced at USEP). Seven instructors participated in individual interviews, and I treated the seven participants as one cohort rather than as individual cases.

The interviews explored listening instructors' views regarding listening instructional practices both historic and present, focusing on what they found productive and/or challenging about teaching L2 listening when teaching in an integrated-skill context and when teaching in the new paired-skills approach. Table 3.3 shows examples of questions from each category. The questions focused on teachers' experiences with the shift from integrated-skills classes to paired-skills classes, for example: *"Could you tell me about your past experience teaching listening in an integrated-skills context?"* "*Could you please tell me about your current practice teaching listening linked with speaking?*" I was interested in seeing what instructors described as what worked well for them in the past as well as descriptions of what has changed for them since the inception of the new paired-skills program.

Procedures for the instructor interviews were as follows. First, I arranged to use a private room at USEP, so participation in the study could be confidential and secure. Second, I gained consent from each individual participant before the interview began. I set aside at least 60 minutes for each interview (see Appendix D: Consent Form). When I

interviewed more than one person in a day, I set aside 30 minutes between interviews in order to reflect and memo. I generally tried to limit each interview to just 10-12 questions, and I sent out a list of the questions to interviewees ahead of time so they knew what I would ask them (see Appendix E: Semi-Structured Interview Questions). My rationale for this was to have the participants reflect on their practice ahead of time rather than put them on the spot.

Table 3.3.

Examples of Questions from Instructor Interview Protocol

Category/Description	**Questions**
Questions related to listening instructional practice	1. How would you describe your experience teaching listening? 2. Could you please tell me about your past experience teaching listening in an *integrated-skills context* (with reading, writing, listening, and speaking combined)? a. What worked really well for you? b. What did you find challenging? 3. Could you please tell me about your current practice teaching listening linked with speaking? a. What has changed about your practice? b. What do you find is working well for you and is valuable for students? c. What are you finding challenging? 4. How has it been since the new change (e.g., *the shift from integrated to paired-skills instruction*) was implemented?
Open-ended question	1. What do you expect students to know and do by the end of a typical six-week teaching cycle for listening? a. How will they show that they know and can do these things? b. What instruction do they need in order to get there?

For each interview, I used the protocol as a guide to ensure consistency of interview topics and key questions. The actual interviews sometimes expanded upon topics when participants had something particularly insightful to say that warranted further explication or if they were vague and I asked for examples. Thus, I went with the flow of the interview and would also elaborate questions as the conversations moved in other relevant directions. During interviews, I took shorthand notes, to capture my own thinking during the interview and allow for a record of the main ideas expressed by the participant, as well as my initial reactions. I transcribed 100% of the interviews as soon as possible after the completion of each interview. This typically involved listening several times to the recordings and verifying the text to ensure an accurate transcript. At the conclusion of the data collection, I once again carefully verified each transcript against the digital recording to ensure complete accuracy. Further, in order to increase validity, I sent the participants their interview transcripts and asked them to read through them and let me know any areas where they felt what they said in the interview was inaccurate or could be misconstrued. None of the participants found any issues of disagreement with the transcribed data.

Observations and Classroom Artifacts

During the second and third phases of the study, I observed two listening/speaking instructors (one in each phase). The first listening/speaking instructor I observed seven times in a USEP classroom, February-March. The second listening/speaking instructor I observed six times via remote platforms (e.g., Zoom and Blackboard), March-April. Each observation was 180 minutes in duration twice per week

on their designated teaching days. These observations allowed me to see and document first-hand the pedagogical and curricular choices of the teachers, and thereby gain a better understanding of their teaching practice, particularly in relation to L2 listening.

My observations tracked classroom activity and interactions between the teachers and students. During observations, I took extensive field notes using a uniform observation field note protocol (see Appendix F). I digitally recorded all classroom observations, which allowed for transcription of teacher talk only in each observed class. I had IRB approval to digitally record these sessions and I disregarded any student talk.

I also collected all classroom artifacts (e.g., classroom handouts, homework assignments) given by the teachers to students. When observations were remote, I downloaded materials from the Blackboard site the instructor used. The purpose of artifact collection was to gain a better understanding of how the teacher constructed the listening component of the listening/speaking course.

My role was slightly different during the face-to-face observations as compared with remote in that the instructor I observed could directly hand me copies of all teaching materials and sometimes stayed after class to chat with me about how the class had gone. In contrast, the virtual observations included fewer instructional artifacts and less informal talk to review how the class went though I would always stay on the Zoom call to see if the teacher had anything to say or add, and to thank the teacher for allowing me to observe.

At the conclusion of the observation-phase of the study, in order to increase validity, I sent the participants their observation forms. I asked them to read through the

observations and let me know any areas where they felt what they said during class was inaccurate or could be misconstrued. Other than a comment regarding notes on formative assessment, the teacher did not comment further. When I moved into the third phase, observing a second listening instructor, I continued to observe and did not monitor for the use of formative assessment. I have included a summary of the data collection procedures in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4

Summary of Data Collection Procedures

Research Question	Data Type	Collection Frequency
How have historic challenges influenced administrators' decision to move from an integrated- to paired-skills program and to include formative assessment?	1. Audio recordings and transcripts of administrator semi-structured interviews 2. Field notes from interviews and reflective field memos after interviews	Once (beginning of study)
How do the directors envision that the program changes will improve students' learning and what do they see as the key challenges?	1. Audio recordings and transcripts of administrative semi-structured interviews 2. Field notes from interviews and reflective field memos after interviews	Once (beginning of study)
When describing their past experience teaching listening in an integrated-skills context, what do instructors highlight as valued forms of instruction and/or challenges to their work?	1. Audio recordings and transcripts of instructors' semi-structured interviews 2. Field notes from interviews and reflective field memos after interviews	Once (beginning of study)
When describing their current experience teaching listening, what has changed specifically in their practice? What are they finding	1. Audio recordings and transcripts of instructors' semi-structured interviews	Once (beginning of study)

productive? What are they finding challenging?	2. Field notes from interviews and reflective field memos after interviews	
What listening instructional practices do instructors engage in under the new program emphasis?	1. Field notes and audio recordings from intensive in-classroom observations 2. Instructors' materials (e.g., lesson plans, handouts, textbooks, audio files), and formative assessments 3. Field memos	Twice per week for eight weeks (during the study).

Data Analysis

My data analysis followed a combination of what Huberman and Miles (1994) adopted as a systematic approach to analysis; and what Wolcott (1994) considered a more traditional approach to research from case study analysis. All advocated for similar processes as well as a few different approaches to the analytic phase of qualitative research. In the end, I used a thematic approach for the administrator and instructor interviews as described by Braun and Clarke's (2006) procedures for thematic analysis, which included the use of open coding. For the observation data, I used grounded theory with open and axial coding (Charmaz, 2000; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998). Throughout the study, I used memos to track any themes I was seeing in the data, as well as any early conceptualizations related to the research questions and conceptual framework, which guided my analysis. For example, after extensive review of the observation transcripts and field notes, I organized the observation code book based on before-, during-, and after-listening forms of instruction with a specific focus on the systematic attention to listening instruction (i.e., strategies observed).

Thematic Analysis of Interviews

After the interview data were transcribed, my analysis of the transcripts generally followed the six stages outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006) with multiple iterations of code and theme generation: (1) immersion in data (e.g., transcribing, reading and rereading transcripts, listening to recordings), (2) generating initial codes (e.g., creating a list of as many potential codes as possible), (3) searching for themes (e.g., sorting the initial codes for overarching themes, thinking about relationships between codes), (4) reviewing or refining themes (e.g., deciding whether items coded at a particular theme 'hang together,' creating an initial conceptual map), (5) defining and naming themes (e.g., identifying the 'essence' of each theme and writing a detailed description or analysis of each theme), and (6) producing the final analysis. For example, for the instructor interviews, some of the codes or themes were shared practices for pre- and post-listening processes, note-taking strategies, small group discussion, and content-based instruction. For the program leader interviews, larger themes pertained to, for example, curriculum and instruction, where codes were divided into: (1) distribution of instructional focus (with 7 sub-codes), (2) responsive and adaptive teaching (with 8 sub-codes), (3) variation in teacher and student performance (with 6 sub-codes), and (4) differences between classroom testing and feedback (with 4 sub-codes). The other major theme pertained to program-level outcome metrics, where codes were outcomes-based focal points (with 10 sub-codes) and program-level feedback (with 4 sub-codes). Appendix G includes an accounting of the detailed process I went through, and how I expanded Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-stage thematic analysis.

Analysis of Classroom Observations

I employed a grounded theory design, which is a systematic, qualitative procedure used to generate a theory that explains, at a broad conceptual level, a process, an action, or an interaction about a substantive topic (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). I chose this because I wanted to generate a theory rather use one "off the shelf" to explain the processes, actions, and interactions that I saw when I observed two instructors. In addition, the step-by-step, systematic procedure allowed me to stay close to the data.

In the first stage of the analysis, I checked my observation notes against the digital recordings of each classroom observation and verified the accuracy of all teacher talk. I also reviewed the digital files to note the length of audiovisual materials (if used) in each class as well as the number of times the listening materials were either repeated, or paused during the instructional-phase, and generally cleaned up any messy data. In the second and third phases, I used a systematic process of coding which included open, axial, and selective coding. After multiple readings of the transcripts, I started to develop categories that I based on a logical flow of the observations, such as what a teacher does before, during, and after a listening experience during class, and coded for context, core categories, strategies, and results of teacher instruction. For example, some of the codes for pre-listening tasks were: (1) Activating/querying prior knowledge; sub-codes for this category were: vocabulary tasks (matching), discussion tasks (activating background knowledge), students presenting answers to prepared questions, instructor providing background information, prediction, intonation patterns, and pictures or written background); and (2) Sharing new knowledge before listening; sub-codes for this

category were: Pronunciation/intonation tasks, oral corrective feedback, direction for writing abbreviations as pre-listening notetaking task, and extended explaining.

In the next stage of analysis, I focused on describing these categories, and finally I made several concrete charts of findings. For example, I structured the listening experiences that the two instructors were observed to have offered based on listening experience object, teacher observation and observation number along with listening mode (uni-/bi-/multidirectional), before listening practices (e.g., provides procedural direction), during listening practices (e.g., provides listening practice), and after listening practices (e.g., assesses knowledge). Appendix H includes an accounting of the detailed process I went through. Central to the analysis was a constant comparison of the data, which I followed inductively (from specific to broad), which allowed me to generate and connect categories by comparing incidents in the data to other incidents (e.g., the type of audio material used during instruction), incidents to categories (e.g., a specific type of instruction), and categories to other categories (e.g., before vs. during listening).

Integrity of the Study

In this section I describe the procedures I used to ensure validity and reliability. In qualitative methods, concerns about reliability and validity are better described in terms of trustworthiness or credibility of the data being collected and analyzed (Cotton et al., 2011; Doucet, 2008; Hays & Singh, 2012; Josselson, 2011, 2013; Maxwell, 2013; Williams & Morrow, 2009).

Trustworthiness and Credibility

According to Maxwell (2013), validity is the "correctness or credibility of a

description, conclusion, explanation, interpretation, or some other sort of account" (p. 122). I applied this principle throughout data collection, analysis, and reporting.

In order to establish credibility, I clearly framed the interviews and the observations for participants. The instructors whom I interviewed and observed needed to understand that I was not assessing the quality of their teaching. I clearly described the role of the research (e.g., looking to better understand L2 listening pedagogy), and explained that my goal was to learn about what they thought about listening in integrated-skills in contrast to paired-skills classes.

From Lincoln and Guba's work on trustworthiness in qualitative research, validity is constituted by credibility, transferability through thick description, and dependability and confirmability through an audit trail. In conjunction with this, Maxwell (2013) offered a checklist for qualitative researchers to help test the validity of a researcher's conclusions and potential threats to those conclusions. From this checklist, I adopted several important components to increase my study's validity. These included: (1) intensive, long-term involvement, including repeated interviews and/or observations, and a sustained presence as a researcher in the setting studied to allow a greater opportunity to test alternative hypotheses; (2) the collection of rich data that were detailed and varied so as to provide a full and revealing picture of what is occurring; (3) respondent validation or member checks to solicit feedback about data from the people being studied, helping to reduce the possibility of misinterpretation; (4) triangulation, or the collecting of information from a diverse range of individuals and settings, and by using a variety of methods.

Assumptions and Limitations

The following assumptions were present in the study: (1) Interview participants in this study were not deceptive with their answers, and participants answered questions honestly and to the best of their knowledge. (2) This study is an accurate representation of the current situation in the participating university-based IEP in the United States.

Although the collection of data from an emic standpoint was valuable, it also had its limitations: One, it has been difficult to maintain rigor despite all of my attempts to increase reliability. (1) I had member checks from the participants on the interviews, but despite my best efforts, I did not have participant member checks on the observations; (2) I had both in person and remote observations, which might have affected teachers' practice. (3) My presence as an investigator, which is inescapable in qualitative research, could have influenced the subjects' responses and interactions with students in class. Just knowing that one is being questioned or monitored on record can add an element of stress or anxiety to any participant no matter how familiar the relationship is between researcher and participant.

Limitations

Although the collection of data from an emic perspective was rich, it also had its limitations: One, it was difficult to maintain rigor despite all of my attempts to increase reliability. For one, although I had member checks from the participants on the interviews, I did not have participant member checks on the observations (even though I did offer them). Two, my presence as a researcher, which is unavoidable in qualitative research, could have affected the subjects' responses and interactions with students in

class. Just knowing that one is being interviewed or observed on record can add an element of stress or anxiety to any participant no matter how close the relationship is between researcher and participant. Three, the COVID-19 pandemic hit the United States in March 2020 right after I had finished the first round of in-person observations.

Therefore, the second round of observations with the second instructor participant took place remotely via Zoom and Blackboard, which had not been part of the original design, and may have influenced the instructor's stress and anxiety level as well as pedagogical comfort-level. Luckily, I knew the participant very well and we talked through any potential threats to the observations such as technological challenges or power outages. I remained diligent about the observation protocol and followed it accordingly, but reminded the participant that I was there to document what L2 listening pedagogy looks like rather than to evaluate how the instructor handled technological challenges or incidents (see Appendix F: Observation Form and Protocol).

Despite these challenges, I have tried to address these limitations by asking for member checks when possible (e.g., interviews), using a systematic approach to data collection and analysis, and using my insider status as an asset to help create trust in assuring participants that I was not analyzing their views and practices, but describing their views and practices in a methodical way in order to see what challenges and opportunities present themselves in a paired-skills approach to L2 listening.

Summary

Three vantage points of the case study provide an empirical overview to what it looks like to facilitate a more focused program on L2 listening pedagogy (instruction and

assessment). The overall study was developed to focus on the program's leaders and key faculty who taught listening skills during the Spring 2020 12-week semester (January-May). I first conducted semi-structured interviews with program leaders and participating listening instructors. I then observed two instructors to gain a more detailed account of L2 listening pedagogy. Thus, the bulk of the study included individualized interviews and observations with participating L2 listening instructors regarding their views and practices with L2 listening instruction.

In Chapter 4, I provide the findings from the initial interviews with the program leaders, which serves as an overview into the rationale for the curriculum renewal project.

Overview of Organization for the Case Study Findings Across Participants

The research on the complexities involved in L2 listening pedagogy reviewed in Chapter 2 showed that few studies have investigated L2 listening qualitatively from a program-level perspective, including the perspectives of administrators and experienced teachers. Chapters 4–6 examine the past, present, and possible future of one university-based IEP in order to understand both the opportunities and complexities that arise when more explicit attention is given to L2 listening pedagogy.

Chapters 4, 5, and 6 present findings from the study. In Chapter 4, I focus on findings from the interviews with the two program directors. Their leadership perspectives establish the background and rationale for the program restructuring, in particular, what they perceived as problematic about L2 listening pedagogy under the old program and why they felt compelled to change the program. In Chapter 5, I share a

second set of findings focused on the perspectives of instructors who teach the paired-skills class. In Chapter 6, I share findings from observations of L2 listening pedagogy in classrooms, documenting the practices of two instructors. Finally, in Chapter 7, I look across the three sets of analyses in order to synthesize major findings for the entire case.

CHAPTER FOUR:

Interviews with Program Leaders

Establishing Background on Program Shifts: Leadership Perspectives

In order to further understand some of the complexities surrounding L2 listening pedagogy, I conducted research at University Studies English Programs (USEP) to provide deep insights into the program being studied. I started my investigation of why and how language instructors teach listening skills by interviewing the two USEP directors. I interviewed the program's administrators because they recently revised the curriculum in order to replace their former integrated skills approach to teaching reading, writing, listening, and speaking. The USEP administration revised the curriculum, in favor of a paired-skills program, in an effort to increase the emphasis on teaching all four skills equally. The purpose of interviewing the directors was to establish a clear picture of the rationale behind the curriculum change and expected outcomes for student learning experiences.

Leadership Participants

Who are the USEP program leaders and what are their respective leadership roles? Ms. Momo ((self-selected pseudonym)) is the Managing Director of USEP. I refer to her hereafter as the Director. Her responsibilities include providing leadership for all USEP activities, ranging from strategic planning to academic program development and delivery. At the academic level, Mr. John ((self-selected pseudonym)) is the associate director for academic programs at USEP. In his role, he is responsible for academic

programs ranging from faculty supervision to curriculum development. I refer to him hereafter as the Associate Director. Both of them had central roles in reshaping the language program curriculum to focus on paired-skills (e.g., reading/writing; listening/speaking) and required assessments (e.g., formative and summative assessments). The decision to pair skills is not a cutting-edge decision, and some view it as more traditional than an integrated-skills approach (Oxford, 2001). Hence, the rationale for this major program shift, and the decision to require more assessments, is a central focal point in the interviews. In this chapter, I address three central research questions.

Research Questions

RQ 1A: How have historic challenges influenced administrators' decision to move from an integrated- to a paired-skills program?

RQ 1B: Do the directors see connections between the skills shift and the new assessment requirement? What connections specifically?

RQ 1C: How do the directors envision that these changes will improve students' learning and what do they see as the key challenges?

Findings

Overall, most of what the directors discussed was broadly about the program and not specifically about L2 listening. They were aware of my interest in L2 listening but did not comment in detail on L2 listening exclusively. They did say, however, that they considered listening to be THE central comprehension skill on which all other language

and content skills are built. They also stated that the program changes to listening and speaking as paired skills has made them more aware that faculty struggle with L2 listening pedagogy, specifically with knowing what and how to assess for L2 listening. Previously, they were unaware that L2 listening assessment was challenging for faculty. In their role as program directors, they hope the new approach will address the challenge through more faculty collaboration, more measurable summative assessments that are quick and easy to grade, and more formative-level assessments to report on students' progress in-vivo while they are working toward a learning outcome. I discuss each of these main finding in the sections that follow. (See also Appendix I: Themes from Leadership Interviews Based on Research Questions.) In the following sections, I provide evidence from the interviews for all of the claims, above, in the sections that follow.

I. Rationale for the Program Shift: Variation in Curriculum, Teaching, and Instructional Focus

The two program leaders, the Director and Associate Director, spoke at length about what they considered to be USEP's historic challenges. However, when they made the decision to revise the program's curriculum, they were unaware that L2 listening assessment, and possibly instruction, was challenging for faculty.

When asked to describe the integrated skills program, the directors expressed particular concerns with ***the variation in curriculum and teaching*** in the integrated

program and a concern for ***the wide distribution of instructional focus***, which I exemplify below. These were two of the thematic historic challenges that influenced their decision to move from an integrated- to a paired-skills program. For example, up until recently, instructors had full autonomy in their classes. This meant instructors could choose the content for their classes, their textbooks, and their instructional approach. In addition, formal assessments of students were often part of instructors' practice, but they were not regulated or systematically reviewed. Therefore, instructors could teach their integrated-skills course in numerous ways. According to the Director and Associate Director, this level of autonomy proved to be problematic, because feedback provided to the program leaders suggested that the wide variation in instructors' approaches, expectations of their students, and instructional content led to student learning outcomes that varied too greatly to be considered reliable. For instance, the Director said,

> I guess the way I would describe it is somewhat haphazard. That's the word that sort of came to mind. Thinking about the outcomes that we saw students having attained if they were in the same level, but with different teachers. There was no consistency. Which is the primary reason why the shift from an integrated-skills curriculum seemed to be necessary. (Director interview, January 8, 2020)

> A lot of teachers themselves were saying, 'Well, I have all these students who are continuing students and they are coming from three different classes at the same level; some of them should have learned to do this very

> simple thing two semesters ago.' So, that's the primary issue that I'd like to be able to address. (Director interview, January 8, 2020)

In addition, due to the fact that students who joined the program had varied discipline-focused interests, more flexibility and choices (from the students' perspective) also proved necessary for the program. For example, as the Associate Director indicated, students joining the program, when given a choice for their core focus, routinely chose English for Academic Purposes (EAP). This was the most popular selection regardless of university major in future undergraduate programs or specialization in future graduate-level programs. Yet, there was tension because within the EAP focus, students would want individualized content attention depending on their interest in, for example, business or science. So, some students expressed disappointment to program leaders when their EAP class offered a different type of content than what they had expected for a university-preparation program. Students also expressed concern to the program leaders for the wide variation in curriculum and teaching. As the Associate Director said,

> So, one of the big complaints that we would get from students was they wanted more of a content-focus for how they self-identified as being interested in certain [academic topics]. Very frequently students wouldn't get the concentration they were interested in because even though they at some point down the road they were planning to study business or science, they would choose English for academic purposes on their application. However, they wouldn't necessarily get that content or the type of content

> they were hoping to get later on [once they were fully matriculated]. (Associate Director interview, January 2, 2020)

Before the program shift, the Director corroborated that there had been a mismatch between students' and instructors' expectations for what constituted EAP. The Director felt the wide variation pertained to not only discrepancy in expectations, but also inconsistent student learning outcomes. For example, the Director said:

> [There was] a wide variation in expectations and a wide variation on actual student product as well as outcomes. [There was] wide variation across the curriculum: assessment, materials, teaching, …how the classroom was conducted. There was too much variation. From what I was observing, and again this is from a distance so I'm probably not the most educated in terms what actually happened in the classroom, but that's reports that I got. Conversations with students that I had. Some conversations with faculty that I had that corroborated that feeling that there wasn't much consistency, much of *any* consistency. And so that sort of led to again to that shift in thinking. And the decision to move away from an integrated-skills curriculum to a more paired-skill focus that could be more, not necessarily accurately, but more systematically assessed and observed. (Director interview, January 8, 2020)

Similarly, the Associate Director explained,

> And then also to address just sort of the reality of how classes were *actually* being taught rather than…while we had the *concept* or *the idea* on

> paper that we were integrated skills, but there was so much variation in what actually happened in the classroom. (Associate Director interview, January 2, 2020)

This lack of consistency may have also influenced instructors' varied attention to individual skills like reading, writing, speaking, and listening in an integrated-skills context. Thus, the decision to dissolve the integrated-skills curriculum meant that a new paired-skills focus should compensate for any skills, but particularly certain skills like listening, which had hypothetically received less attention than others. It seemed essential to the program to not only give equal attention to the four skills, but to also value the foundational role listening plays in overall L2 development. Both the Director and the Associate Director elaborated on the rationale for the new pairing of skills. For example, the Director explained that listening naturally paired with speaking, but out of all of the skills, listening comprehension is one that has a vital impact on all of the other skills. They said,

> The speaking and listening, it wasn't ever on the table to split those. The idea was that because they feed each other so nicely we couldn't split them apart. (Associate Director interview, January 2, 2020)

> Yes, they are a natural pairing, but out of all of the skills, [listening] comprehension is one that has a crucial impact on pretty much all of the other skills. So, really kind of honing in on that…improving that piece and giving it its own dedicated time and attention seemed to make sense. But

> then the practice, it's a lot more difficult. It's proving to be a lot more difficult to assess in particular. (Director interview, January 8, 2020)

The lack of shared communication among faculty about their L2 listening pedagogy, which included instruction and assessment, was something that the program leaders also considered to be a bit of an enigma. The program leaders explained that a lack of consistency in curriculum and teaching outcomes were a result of the absence of communication and transparency about teaching practices. For example, the Associate Director said,

> With the previous curriculum, even since I've been here since 2015, there's been very little discussion. It has been hard to get that information shared. So, I guess in some ways I don't think that the way faculty have assessed students has changed a lot, but at the same time we're trying to talk about it more and we're trying to get more transparency regarding how assessments are being done. (Associate Director interview, January 2, 2020)

Indeed, the theme of ***lack of consistency in curriculum and teaching outcomes*** seemed to co-occur with an absence of ***communication and transparency***. In addition, the program directors described a lack of information sharing or discussion around what was happening in the classroom, particularly with assessment. Program leaders also added that they considered their faculty to be very good at L2 writing pedagogy.

II. Connections Between Skills and Assessments

The program leaders saw connections between the skills-shift and the new assessment requirement. Data analysis revealed two themes in connection to the skills-shift and the new assessment requirements: (1) ***Program-level feedback***; and (2) ***Distribution of instructional focus***. More specifically, the program leaders shared that the program changes to listening and speaking as paired skills has made them more aware that faculty struggle with L2 listening pedagogy, specifically with knowing what and how to assess L2 listening. Previously, the program leaders were unaware that L2 listening assessment was challenging for faculty. As the Director said,

> I think the most difficult [skill] has been: listening. Because listening is one of those skills that is usually assessed in conjunction with something else, and having broken it out as a separate skill has sort of resulted in this feeling of we need to treat this as its own thing. So how do we assess it as its own thing? As opposed to still continuing to say, 'yes this is listening, but the way I'm assessing it is through a writing piece that they have done'. And still sort of having that connection with other skills and maintaining that as a necessary component of the class. Regardless of whether the classes…yes this is listening and yes…I understand X, Y, Z and the other thing. The only way to demonstrate that is to then do something that doesn't involve listening. I think maybe that's where some of the difficulty has sort of surfaced. (Director interview, January 8, 2020)

The Associate Director elaborated that the new curriculum change exposed a weakness in the faculty's abilities that had previously gone unnoticed:

> We struggle assessing reading and listening. I think part of the reason we struggle with both of those is, from one standpoint, we have a heavy reliance on textbook tests in both cases. So, with the change to our curriculum and having a greater challenge with finding materials that sort of fit with the curriculum, that really has exposed an area of weakness for the faculty. (Associate Director interview, January 2, 2020)

The Associate Director expanded more on what generally was problematic about reading and listening (i.e., comprehension skills) and why textbooks' assessments for reading and listening were not useful or were not working well for the program. To start, he commented that general challenges with comprehension skills like reading and listening were twofold: (1) The curriculum renewal committee wanted students at all levels to be able *to look at a text* and analyze it or make inferences about it; and (2) They wanted students at all levels to have the opportunity to showcase their critical thinking skills. (However, these seem more problematic for reading than for listening specifically.).

The Associate Director also thought that standard textbooks assessments lacked good inference questions and open-ended questions. As a representative of the program, he thought assessments should provide a place for students to share their own interpretations of a text. The Associate Director said,

> When we were working on writing the (new) curriculum, we wanted to

> give students an opportunity at all levels to demonstrate their analytical abilities: to look at a text and analyze it, or can make inferences based on what they ***hear or read***. It's different from what an advanced-level student can do, but it seemed important to incorporate at the lower levels too because [lower-level placement] doesn't indicate that [students] are less able to perform those higher order functions. It's just how it comes out and how it comes across. So, as we were putting together the curriculum, we wanted to make sure we incorporated some of the critical thinking skills into all levels of the curriculum. (Associate Director interview, January 2, 2020)

Thus, instructors reported to program leaders that they were dissatisfied with assessments produced by textbook publishers because their products for reading and listening assessments did not evaluate students' higher-order thinking skills. In response, instructors felt compelled to write their own assessments, but instructors sensed they did not know how to write them, especially for listening. He said,

> And what frequently is missing in textbook assessments are good inference questions or good opportunities for students to sort of analyze and come up with their own interpretation, or something like that. I think with the faculty, there's now sort of an idea that they can't use textbook materials or assessments. (Associate Director interview, January 2, 2020)

Previously, this had not been much of an issue because little was known about how instructors were assessing students (or if they were). The Associate Director said,

> So, um, assessment at USEP was somewhat of a black box. Different instructors assessed students in different ways, and there was very little conversation about assessment in general. (Associate Director interview, January 2, 2020)

Therefore, through the connection between the skills-shift and the new assessment requirement, the program leaders could now see that not only was L2 listening pedagogy, particularly listening assessment a challenge for instructors, but the process of talking about how instructors teach and assess listening, and reading, was also lacking. While the focus is on listening, reading is also highlighted in these data excerpts, and the question of how to assess reading in a way that is authentic and reflecting of what readers know and can do is also an ongoing puzzle for the reading field, more generally. The focus was so much on the product, the end result or the summative assessment, that the formative piece was either not being discussed or was simply not part of their thought process. It also reinforced the notion that writing, as opposed to listening, was a program strength. The Associate Director, in particular, spoke extensively about this topic.

> What coincided with this shift to paired-skills instruction is a greater conversation about how we're monitoring our students, and how we're noting whether they're making the outcomes or not. But I think it's also sort of highlighted where our strengths are as an organization, and where are strengths are as…where the strengths of the faculty lay, and where we need more work. I think in general, we …the faculty have a…writing is a

> strong point for the faculty. Assessing writing is...different people have different ways of assessing it, but I think in general, students leaving our program are well taught in…writing. Um…how much time faculty on providing feedback, that's another story, but I think that we do a really good job of teaching writing to students. (Associate Director interview, January 2, 2020)

Hence, program-level feedback — particularly from instructors who proclaimed that designing L2 listening assessments was a challenge and that they were unsatisfied with textbook L2 listening assessments that lacked inference questions and critical thinking questions — are new insights that the program leaders gained in connection to the new paired-skills program and assessment requirements. They believed that stronger faculty collaborations and more transparency about assessment practices should lead to more consistency in curriculum and teaching. However, how to design listening assessments at the formative- and summative-levels remains an open question, and ***the process of how to teach L2 listening*** [at the formative-level] also remains unclear to the program.

III. Goals for the Future

When asked to describe their goals for the future and any residual challenges, the program leaders generally referred to ***outcomes-based focal points*** and ***responsive and adaptive teaching.***

More specifically, they envisioned that the curriculum changes would improve students' learning in three focal ways: (1) more faculty collaboration; (2) more formative-level assessments to report on students' progress *in vivo* while they are working toward learning outcomes; and (3) more measurable summative assessments that are quick and easy to grade.

First, they hoped that there would be ***more faculty collaboration in the future***. More specifically, the Associate Director hoped that as a program, instructors and program leaders would have more focused conversations about assessments. In addition, as instructors become more comfortable creating and writing their own assessments, then there should be more transparency and discussion around the distinctions between formative and summative assessments. Thinking about what program leaders said in the previous section, it appeared that they thought of formative assessment as more important for listening and reading (as processes) because they are harder to "see" and therefore most traditional/textbook assessments lack nuance and higher-order questions/tasks. While it may be argued that formative assessment is important for all four domains (reading, writing, speaking, and listening), it seems that the program leaders saw reading and listening as uniquely challenging. As the Associate Director said,

> I'm really that as we [program leaders] get more faculty writing and working with assessments, and we're more consciously talking about assessments, in general, then we will have more transparency or discussion about formative rather than the summative. (Associate Director interview, January 2, 2020)

> I think as we get better at assessing and as we get better at formative assessment and generally more comfortable with the curriculum, I think what we will have in the longer term is students who are better, who understand how the skills that they've acquired at USEP can serve them in more than just "I need to take the TOEFL, so that is going to get me a better grade on the TOEFL." How those skills will benefit the in the academic arena, will benefit them in professional life, benefit them in interactions with native speakers or with other non-native speakers of English. So, how it can help them be more successful as students. Um…that's not just language skills building, but student-skill building. (Associate Director interview, January 2, 2020)

Second, the program wants ***more measurable summative assessments*** that are quick and easy to grade. The Associate Director further commented on the need for [summative] assessments to be gradable in a reasonable amount of time, so in his view, instructors favored assessments that had multiple-choice answers.

> So, they need to write their own, and we want them to be gradable in a reasonable amount of time. So, there's a focus on multiple-choice. (Associate Director interview, January 2, 2020)

The instructors' current focus on multiple-choice assessment was a tension within the program when contrasted to what the program leaders said above about wanting more opportunities to see how students were making sense of text (reading or listening) and supporting more higher-order thinking. Taken together, there is a focus on ***outcomes-based focal points*** and ***responsive and adaptive teaching***. The Director feels that these themes will provide the program with greater confidence when reporting on students' progress in the program. She also felt that a stronger focus on outcomes-based focal points would enhance faculty collaboration as more discussion would ensue as a whole. While instructors discussed how they would get their students to particular outcomes-based focal points, their instruction would ideally become more responsive and adaptive to the students' authentic needs along the way; thus, moving them along a continuum, or process-based approach that was clearer for students to see too because students were, ideally, receiving more formative-level feedback form instructors as they went through the language program as opposed to discovering how they performed on a summative assessment at the very end of the course. As the Director said,

> Greater confidence in being able to speak to students about the student learning outcomes. Um…greater collaboration across the faculty as a whole. And also, a greater sense on the student-side of things that a student in a class, level blah blah gets the same treatment as a student in

> class b, same level. While it may not look, and feel exactly the same because the teacher is different and the material is different, they're working toward the same outcomes, and are being…their learning is verified in the same manner. It may not look exactly the same and probably won't look or feel exactly the same, but there's more confidence on the student-side as well. (Director interview, January 8, 2020)

Despite these program-wide goals, the Director shared her sensitivity to the level of stress these curriculum changes have caused students, instructors, and staff, noting that ***change remains the primary challenge***. As the Director said,

> I think the primary challenge is change. Um, dealing with change. Accepting change. And that's true for all constituents across USEP. That's students, faculty and staff. Because change is never easy. And if it's a change as big as and as over-arching as the changes we are implementing, then it's particularly difficult. It will take time for people to buy into it. That's the primary challenge that I see. (Director interview, January 8, 2020)

Conclusion

Overall, the program leaders hoped the new paired-skills approach would address challenges with both L2 listening (and in some ways reading) pedagogy and assessment through more: (1) faculty collaboration; (2) measurable summative assessments that are quick and easy to grade, (3) formative-level assessments to report on students' progress

in-vivo while they are working toward a learning outcome. Although they were previously unaware that L2 listening assessment was challenging for faculty, the new program-level focus on skills combined with more required assessments, at both the formative- and summative-levels, opened their eyes to this challenge. This remains a critical challenge as they view comprehension skills, such as listening, as the primary basis for all other linguistic advancement. At the heart of the challenge is change: changing practice.

CHAPTER FIVE:

Exploring Instructors' Ideas and Experiences Concerning L2 Listening Pedagogy

In the past four chapters, I have explored how complex second language (L2) listening is, which has been supported by Field (2008), Siegel (2013), and Vandergrift (2004). Considering the dearth of research on L2 listening from a pedagogical perspective, it remains an open question as to how program administrators and teachers think about L2 listening and especially how it can be supported through curriculum and pedagogy (Siegel, 2013). In the last chapter, I examined the thinking and expectations of two program administrators regarding L2 curriculum and pedagogy broadly and L2 listening more specifically as they oversaw a shift toward paired-skills instruction in their program. In this chapter, I explore instructors' perspectives on L2 listening in relation to the program's historical focus on integrated skills instruction and its current shift to paired-skills instruction. I was interested to learn if they approached L2 listening pedagogy as has been documented in the literature by using a comprehension approach (Field, 2004; Graham & Santos, 2020), which typically takes the form of asking learners to listen to an audio recording, asking a few comprehension questions, waiting for the answers, and then moving on, or if they were approaching L2 listening differently.

For this dissertation, I had the rare opportunity to explore a university-based intensive English program after it had recently modified its academic program. Historically, the program taught all four core skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking in an integrated-skill approach. The program now has a more focused paired-skill approach (Hastings, 2013). This allowed me to investigate how seasoned instructors

treat L2 listening in both instruction and assessment in this shift.

In this chapter, I share findings from interviews with seven experienced instructors, who have been teaching English as an L2 for 10-40 years, to gain insight into some of the complexities they face as instructors who make decisions about how to effectively instruct L2 learners. I address the following research questions:

> RQ 2A: When describing their past experience teaching listening in an integrated-skills context, what do instructors highlight as valued forms of instruction and/or challenges to their work?
>
> RQ 2B: When describing their current experience teaching listening in the paired skills approach, what has changed specifically in their practice? What are they finding productive? What are they finding challenging?

In presenting findings, I focus first on how the instructors discussed their approaches to listening as an "integrated skill", combined with reading, writing, speaking (and grammar). I then focus on how they describe their new curriculum, which pairs listening with speaking. I describe what they expressed as their teaching commitments and what they described as challenges within each of the two pedagogical approaches. I conclude the chapter with a description of what they said has changed for them in the new program and what tensions have emerged for them with the new paired-skill approach. The descriptions that follow, which include rich perspectives from well-qualified and experienced language teachers, provide much needed practitioner-based perspectives (e.g., Graham et al. 2011; Siegel, 2013) on L2 listening instruction.

Participants and Setting

Seven experienced instructors who had been teaching in the program for more than ten years and all of whom held at least a master's degree in TESOL or applied linguistics participated in the study. Their self-selected pseudonyms are: Linda, Max, Thomasina, Marie, Carsen, Sarah Bloom, and Judah. I invited these focal instructors to participate in the study because they had been assigned to teach the listening/speaking course during the period in which I conducted the study. A list of the instructors, their assigned language level to teach during the study, and the number of years teaching in the program can be seen in Table 3.4:

Listening/Speaking Participants.

Table 5.1

Overview of Speaking/Listening Instructors

Participating Instructors Pseudonyms	**Assigned USEP [3] Speaking/Listening Course Level**	**Approximate Number of Years at USEP**
Linda	Level 5	14
Max	Level 5	24
Thomasina	Level 6	33
Marie	Level 7	10
Carsen	Level 7	13
Sarah Bloom	Level 7	40
Judah	Level 8	15

Although I had worked with all of the participating listening/speaking instructors in various capacities for the past ten years, this was the first time I actually talked with each of them at length about their craft. Before each interview began, I reviewed a

[3] Level 5 (CEFR: B1+) - (Level 8 (CEFR: B2+/C1)

consent form and asked for permission to digitally record the interview. Then I proceeded with the first four semi-structured interview questions (see Appendix E); although there were more than four, I focused on just the first set of questions for this particular study. The later questions pertained to formative assessment, which I will use for a future study. I asked them to describe their experience teaching listening in the integrated skills approach and in the current paired-skills approach, including what has worked well for them and what they have found challenging in both approaches and what in their practice has changed with the new approach.

In the next two sections, I will describe what the listening instructors did in the past when the program had an integrated-skill focus in juxtaposition to what they shared they are doing now when listening is paired with speaking.

Findings

Through a systematic thematic analysis of the participants' interview transcripts, I identified three themes related to how instructors believed that L2 listening pedagogy had changed due to the new program curriculum: (1) Embedding listening into instruction; (2) Assessing listening; and (3) Managing different levels of listening skill among students.

I. Embedding Listening into Topic-Based Instruction

Overall, the seven participating instructors valued an integrated approach to listening pedagogy because they could ideally link the four skills (e.g., reading, writing, listening, and speaking) through one common topic in a content area. They believed that a focus on topic-based instruction was an easier way to approach teaching the skills and a more natural way of blending academic content for the university-level language learners

in their classes. For example, they chose a weekly topic that focused on content, such as social justice, and then framed the four skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening around the topic. However, in this approach, listening is subsumed by the other tasks of reading, writing, and speaking. When the curriculum shifted to the paired-skills approach instructors were concerned that they would not have enough time to link the skills to a particular theme or content focus because their time with students was much less and their concentration had shifted from content to skill.

Integrating Listening into Topic-Focused Instruction: You Can Cover More Birds with One Stone

In this section I present data from Thomasina, Max, Carsen, Sarah Bloom, Judah, and Marie regarding how they used topic-focused instruction (e.g., content- or project-based instruction) as a valued form of integrated-skills instruction.

Thomasina began by describing how historically she integrated certain skills like reading and listening in a thoughtful sequence linked by topic: "In terms of combining skills, I would often use a combination of reading and listening, generally starting with the reading first because the students have more control…but finding a reading and a listening on the same topic" (Thomasina, interview, January 20, 2020). Max also saw value in the integrated-skills approach as a way of efficiently constructing unity among the four skills by topic. He said,

> "So, the advantage I think was that things were topic-based. Topic and project-based. So, you know you're dealing with a set of vocabulary, a set of contexts, and you're dealing with the skills. So, in some ways it was -

> more real. And …you actually covered more birds with the same [stone]." (Max, interview, January 16, 2020)

Sarah Bloom also talked about how she used a content-based approach. She said, "So, I think a lot of [content] wound up being stuff around either science stories, for which you didn't need a huge background; cultural stuff that might be really interesting to them; or psychology, a particular link that was universal" (Sarah Bloom, interview, January 15, 2020). Judah also viewed thematic planning as an advantage to the integrated-skill curriculum because it considered various learning styles. As he said, "I think the real advantage in integrated skills is they use different aspects of learning, and can take into account learning styles in a more holistic way because you're dealing with the same thematic material: Listening, reading, writing…" (Judah, interview, January 21, 2020). Marie mirrored Judah's support for a unified, thematic approach:

> I think teaching integrated skills has its benefits for several reasons. So, if you teach 15 hours a week with the same group of students each day, then you get to have the flexibility of doing a little of each skill each day. And combining that skill with the same material. (Marie, interview, January 13, 2020)

Marie further elaborated on some of the projects she did with her students that integrated all of the skills. In their projects, she asked her students to do research and read a lot. She also discussed how the four skills naturally play into each other when doing content-based activities. She noted that in order to really teach listening, writing had to be included: "Teaching listening specifically is interesting in an integrated-skills program

because in order to see how well a student listens, you have to have them produce something in writing. Right? Note-taking, summary writing, etcetera" (Marie, interview, January 13, 2020). Hence, for Marie, writing was a skill that can be used to assess listening.

However, Carsen took a different approach through co-teaching which for her meant she was already doing a form of paired-skills. Thus, Carsen is saying something different from what Thomasina and Max contributed. In an integrated-skill context, Carsen always collaborated with her co-teacher. Her co-teacher was the teacher with whom she shared her class on opposite teaching days. This meant that students' days with the two different teachers were more unified. She said,

> Frankly, it was never [integrated]. I co-taught all the time and we split the skills. Um…so I tended to you know be happy to take on the listening/speaking because it's my favorite. Um…I guess back then I felt like if I introduced a reading, big deal. It's just another way to approach the material. Um…it was a little more maybe…no, I'm very topic focused. Um…one thing that is true though about that…usually we had the same topic. So that the reading and writing teacher has the same topic. So, I knew they were getting input in the same area even if I wasn't the one to introduce it. (Carsen, interview, January 8, 2020)

To restate what I just conveyed, Carsen felt that she had never truly integrated the four skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening because she had always divided the four skills into pairs (with any possible combination) with a co-teacher who took the other two

skills. This system always worked well for Carsen.

Embedding Listening into Paired-Skills: "A Lot of It Is a Re-Think"

The new program provides a paired-skill framing with clearer guidelines for how the skills should be divided. Within this new frame, there is a clearly designated *Listening and Speaking* class two days a week for three hours each day. With the new six hours dedicated to listening and speaking, clear student learning objectives and outcomes have also been prescribed, which teachers are expected to have their students reach by the end of a six-week cycle. Instructors have interpreted these changes to mean that they are now: (1) Re-conceptualizing listening pedagogy; (2) Doing less theme-based (i.e., project) work; and (3) Focusing more on note-taking skills.

Re-Conceptualizing Listening Pedagogy. The new program focus has many of the instructors thinking about how they will need to re-conceptualize their listening pedagogy. Linda explained, "So, a lot of it is going to be to re-think. Like, okay, if we do a listening, then how am I going to have them produce the language? Like am I going to do oral summaries instead of write a summary?" (Linda, interview, January 16, 2020). In her interview, Sarah Bloom shared some of the difficulty L2 listening pedagogy presented in terms of her teaching identity: "Well, um, I think writing has always been a big part of what I do and I think I'm…I hate to say this about myself, but I think I'm a pretty good writing teacher" (interview, January 15, 2020). Max also weighed in: "So, going to just a speaking and listening combo - it's more traditional. I've had to rethink everything, but it's easier in a way. It's more conventional, students are more used to it, and you have a narrower focus" (Max, interview, January 16, 2020). Max also pointed

to a possibly hidden problem in upper level EAP that the new focus brought into focus, namely, the tendency to assume that students had the foundational skills to understand advanced content texts:

> So, [my listening pedagogy] is mainly focused on expository, presentation of information, and um understanding main ideas, supporting detail. So much less conversationally, informally focused. Although that of course, you know, especially if I were teaching at lower-levels, of course, that's the foundation. And perhaps that's the problem with, you know, with English for special [academic] purposes at the upper-level is that you know your objectives are usually focused on the specifics and people may not have had adequate foundation in the basics. And so that's sometimes part of the challenge. (Max, interview, January 16, 2020)

Doing Less Theme-Based Work: "Less Inclined to Do a Project." In the new program emphasis, some instructors are finding it challenging to incorporate project-based work in the new curriculum and find authentic materials that match previous themes they taught. As Carsen said, "First of all, two days a week, six weeks, it's a short time…. A lot of projects involve research, so that's reading, notetaking, and a lot of vocabulary. So, I'm not sure about that. I'm going to look into it" (interview, January 8, 2020). For many instructors, there will be fewer projects, which means less of a focus on topic-based or thematic planning. "So, I'm less inclined to do a project now" (Carsen, interview, January 8, 2020).

Another new aspect of the program also includes a stronger emphasis on using

authentic materials — meaning any materials written in English that were not created for intentional use in the English language classroom. They are unlike ESL materials, worksheets, study guides, or other forms of lesson plans that can be downloaded from the web. Although thematic, project-based materials can use either authentic or adapted materials (e.g., from ESL textbooks), some instructors indicated they were finding it challenging to find listening materials that were both authentic and focused on topics that instructors have historically taught: "[Advanced learners] are supposed to be able to listen to up to 15 minutes of an academic lecture. So, I was trying *really hard* to find something that was academic and that it was also talking about concepts" (Marie, interview, January 13, 2020). Marie is referring to the social change movements that structured her lessons in the former integrated-skills approach.

Linda also found authentic listening tasks to be more time consuming to prepare because she had to scaffold the longer, unadapted listening materials on her own — meaning, she had to listen to something such as a TED Talk before class, highlight any new vocabulary words to pre-teach her students, and prepare discussion questions to evaluate students' listening comprehension. So, she finds the more explicit focus on the use of authentic listening materials in the new paired-skills program more challenging than the previous iteration of the integrated-skills program that did not explicitly value the use of authentic materials as much. For instance, Linda said:

> With longer listening like TED Talks I always feel like my biggest challenge is finding the time for the scaffolding and the prepping. Also, the out of class time to prepare it and the in-class time to make sure we

> cover everything that they need for it. Which is of course vocabulary and background and just a little bit more preparing them for it. … I mean I do like it because it's challenging, but that's also why it's really hard to do listening. (interview, January 16, 2020)

Focusing More on Note-Taking: "*A Lot* of Attention to Note-Taking." Note-taking [4]is highly valued in the new program as an integral student learning objective for the listening skill, but instructors also view it as a limitation. Although program leaders did not directly discuss their thoughts on notetaking, they did discuss how much they value CEA's feedback. For example, Marie discussed how she can see some students taking a lot of notes but contributing very little to discussions with peers. She wonders how it is possible for some students to take a lot of notes, and seemingly understand a lot, but then have very little to say in a conversation.

> And I think it's hard, too, because with speaking, if they're having a discussion in class, you know if the student is just not motivated to speak because they're just shy or, you know, they have social anxiety, but they may take great notes. You may be able to actually see – wow! Look at all of the notes you took! But then if you listen to them have a discussion with their partner, they're not giving anything and it's just because they're not confident in their speaking skills. Maybe. Right? Or maybe it's just

[4] Notetaking, as a listening skill, is valued by both the Common European Framework of References (CEFR) and the Commission on English Language Accreditation (CEA). CEA is of the major accrediting agencies for language programs worldwide; thus, USEP values it because they rely on feedback from CEA to maintain accreditation standards.

> that they're shy. I don't know. There's just a lot of elements that go into play there. So, it's hard I think when you're *just* focusing on listening. I think it's really a challenge for a teacher. (Marie, interview, January 13, 2020).

Hence, Marie questions how shy students may not have the motivation to engage in class discussion, but can often take "notes." So, really a challenge for Marie is to figure out how to tease apart the listening rather the listening and another skill (e.g., writing). Due to the fact there is writing involved here too, it seems that Marie is also wondering about the value in having to tease apart each individual skill. In other words, it seems like the goal is to gain a sense for what L2 listeners are understanding/taking away from listening, and so she is not sure why it matters so much what modality students use to communicate their understanding.

Max wondered if there was a limitation to emphasizing note-taking in a listening/speaking class when the goal was to move out of the written mode and into the aural mode. As Max put it, "We have *a lot* of attention to note-taking, so we're not totally out of the written mode, right? We're spending a lot of time on getting them to listen and take notes" (interview, January 16, 2020). Although Max considered teaching note-taking "essential," she also wondered how much instructors should prioritize it given the time constraints of the new six-week program. Max continued,

> There is always what you *have to* cover and what you *would like to* cover. Right? I would like to have more freedom … to just work literally on listening.…and have it be about the flow of sound, and the meaning

> encoded in that. And given our academic focus, that's hard to fit in here. (interview, January 16, 2020)

Linda summarized some of the challenges with embedding materials into a listening-focused lesson when she explained that she liked the challenge of finding materials for the different levels, particularly at the upper levels where the materials are more authentic. Yet, she also wonders "how are you going to scaffold it so the students don't get frustrated and you also get … your goal? What are the outcome and the objectives … with that particular listening? And that's always very challenging" (Linda, interview, January 16, 2020). Thus, the tension for Linda is how to scaffold longer unadapted/authentic pieces of listening materials so students can access the meaning of them more easily while simultaneously reaching the new program goal to use more authentic listening materials, which she finds quite challenging.

In summary, instructors referred to aspects of L2 listening that centered around embedding content via thematically orchestrated lesson plans that aimed to integrate the four skills, but the biggest challenge they noted was finding and using authentic academic listening materials. A few instructors also expressed some doubt about the role of note-taking and questioned its usefulness in developing students' listening skills. Linda, in particular, said she would really be interested to learn about systematic ways to scaffold listening.

What Changed? "I Won't Be Focusing on Reading and Writing"

The new curriculum is highlighting listening, combined with speaking, with one effect being that instructors are thinking more about aural input than written output.

Listening now receives more focused attention. "So…first of all, on a basic level, I won't be focusing on reading and writing very much" (Judah, interview, January 21, 2020). This narrower approach was echoed by other instructors. For example, "Well, I will definitely be focusing on [listening and speaking] more. So, all the assignments and activities in class, that will be the focus" (Linda, interview, January 16, 2020). Even with focused attention to listening and speaking two days a week, some instructors noticed that listening still receives less attention than reading and writing, which receive at least three days a week of instructional focus. As Max said,

> I can see that a listening/speaking focus also has its advantages because in the context of a program such as ours, which is academically-focused, I think we ended up probably putting more weight and time into reading and writing in the integrated-context. You know? To have a stand-alone course, in listening and speaking, means that it's gonna get full attention. Although it's ultimately gonna get fewer hours if we're looking at the particulars of this curriculum. It's still getting fewer hours than reading and writing. (Max, interview, January 16, 2020)

Some of the re-conceptualizations were more explicit in their focus, as Thomasina shared:

> Honestly, I don't think that the kinds of activities that I'm going to do are going to change so much. I think it's more focusing on that outcome that we've been provided with, and I notice that … the listening and speaking are two very different outcomes. For example, the outcome for the

> listening for this half of the term is about being able to understand a dialogue. So, I think what I'm gonna do is start building up elements of dialogue. So that's not something I necessarily would have done in the past. (interview, January 20, 2020)

Linda and Judah further elaborated on how they were re-conceptualizing the interplay of other language skills that tend to naturally co-occur with listening such as vocabulary preparation, reading words, writing, and taking notes in the context of instruction. For instance, Linda said, "We're losing the integrated-skills, but you can't leave everything out; [listening and speaking are] just going to be your focus. You're still going to do some vocabulary preparation where [learners are] reading the words, doing writing, taking notes" (interview, January 16, 2020). Judah also described his understanding of the main difference in the program shift, which meant to him that although there would not be much of a reading or writing component on a regular basis, he would not ignore those skills. However, he would no longer evaluate his students' listening ability primarily by their reading and writing ability, but he did not elaborate on what his new assessments would look like, and he admitted that he had been on the hunt for sample listening assessments from previous instructors who had taught in the new paired-skills program, but he had only been able to find example speaking assessments thus far.

Although the intent of the program leaders when they made the shift was not that other skills, like reading and writing were not allowed in a speaking and listening course, but rather they wanted instructors to use class time to treat each of the four skills more

equally so that students had an equitable language learning experience.

Summary of content versus skill. In their interviews, all seven instructors uniformly agreed they would choose topic-based (i.e., content-based) instruction in an integrated-skills program. However, in this approach, listening is subsumed by the other tasks of reading, writing, and speaking. In the new program instructional focus, they had to center more of their pedagogy on speaking and listening, and did not feel they could incorporate as much topic-based reading and writing as they historically did. While before they had unified topics to try to engage university-age learners' interests, the focus was more on content than skills. However, once the four skills were teased apart in the new program, these very experienced instructors had to re-conceptualize not just their listening pedagogy, but their whole approach. Now that the curriculum has shifted, they are wondering what L2 listening pedagogy is like when there is less of a focus on projects and more of a focus on note-taking and more focal receptive skills. This new focus also has many of them re-considering how they assess listening.

II. Assessing Listening

Based on a synthesis of instructor interviews, in the integrated-skills context, instructors did not give as much thought to listening assessments as they did reading and writing assessments. When they did assess listening, it often took two forms, both peer-based. In one, instructors asked students to embed listening quizzes into their oral presentations. For example, two students would give the class an oral presentation on a topic, and at the end of their presentation, they would include 3-5 questions to ask the audience. Students in the audience were expected to respond appropriately to the student-

provided questions. In the other, instructors asked students to monitor their comprehension through group discussion. In the paired-skills program, instructors found listening assessment to be the most challenging aspect. They now have questions about what L2 listening assessment is or could be. They also all agree that in the new program there are far too many assessments in too short a period.

Assessing Listening with Other Skills Was Easy: "We Would Stop and Check"

Instructors talked about their former approach to assessing listening, which included a focus on the whole class experience as well as peer-based assessment.

The Focus Was on the Whole Class Experience. Many instructors used class time for discussion and assumed that their students' listening comprehension was at a sufficient level to naturally engage in discourse. So, attention to L2 listening pedagogy often took the form of an assigned listening task to be completed individually outside of class by students as preparation for in-class discussion. As Linda shared, she often had her students read or listen to something outside of class, and then come to class prepared to discuss what they had read or heard with reference to at least one source. Although it was difficult to rely on students to complete the task outside of class, and they did not always meet her expectations for citing sources, she did find that it was easy to facilitate an in-class discussion where "they have to respond to each other" (interview, January 16, 2020).

Sarah Bloom also used a lot of peer-based comprehension checks to assure students were grasping content, with tasks that were always focused on a song and its transcript. Although students could choose their song source, she always had students

focus on the lyrics. It was each student's responsibility to choose a song to share with the class and create a listening cloze task in which students included the song transcript with omitted words. When they played the song in class for their peers, their peers were expected to complete the cloze task. Then, the class would review the cloze for accuracy and finally the student leader would facilitate a conversation about the meaning of the song. "When we were doing a cloze with song lyrics, I always had them check with each other. So, we would hear it the number of times they felt they needed it, and then we would stop and we would check" (Sarah Bloom, interview, January 15, 2020). Sarah Bloom noted that the class did not have a systematic approach for when they paused the audio – it varied from a few lines, a stanza, or "whatever seemed to be the right place to stop. We would stop and check."

At the formative level, Linda reported that she would circulate around the classroom when students were working in pairs to observe how they were interacting with one another and to monitor whether or not they seemed to be understanding each other. "I listen in to their conversations, and see if they actually [could understand]. Sometimes I said, 'Actually, I don't think that's what your partner said.'" (Linda, interview, January 16, 2020). As an instructor, she sometimes had to do some oral correction, but at the upper levels she expected students would "clarify for each other." Carsen also talked about the role of peer-comprehension checks. "Um…so then we check of course. Check their understanding. Check with each other. Discuss differences if they had differences in opinion about what the answers were [to comprehension questions]. Then we use the topic for exploration. So, the post listening" (Carsen, interview, January

8, 2020).

Peer-Based Assessment. Other post-listening tasks in the integrated-skills context took the form of peer-based assessments as described by Sarah Bloom:

> [Peer-based assessment] … gets at a whole lot of stuff, and… I try to… always have [student presenters] write a five-question quiz that they have to give the students at the end [of their oral presentation]. The students have to ask the questions orally, the other students respond in writing, and then the students hand in their written answers to the quiz. The two presenters take them home, grade them, and then give them back. (interview, January 15, 2020)

Linda also discussed the role of peer-based assessments in her classes. She typically would have students choose a TED Talk that the whole class would listen to, which students then summarized in writing. "They have to give a summary and they have to write comprehension questions based on their own summary that they give to their peer, and then they also have to write a discussion question" (Linda, interview, January 16, 2020).

Assessment Conundrums Within the New Paired-Skills Context: "It Gets Difficult to See"

Instructors shared their struggles to understand how to assess listening (paired with speaking), considering that listening is a receptive skill. They also shared a concern for the juxtaposition between formative and summative assessments and the measurability of listening in assessments.

Assessing the Invisible Skill. "I think teaching listening is always very challenging. One of the reasons for it is because there's no way you can just assess listening in itself" (Linda, interview, January 16, 2020). Some instructors also indicated that the new assessment focus had them re-conceptualizing how to assess listening altogether. While some instructors, like Linda, felt strongly that a receptive skill like listening had to be assessed via a productive skill like speaking or writing, other instructors like Marie questioned the possibility of pulling apart listening from writing and speaking in assessment. For instance, Marie said, "So, it gets difficult to see if you're really assessing their listening skills or their writing and speaking skills" (Marie, interview, January 13, 2020).

Marie wondered if she was focusing too much on students' writing skills if she asked them to write a summary of something they had listened to. She also seemed perplexed about linking listening with speaking assessments because certain students were not always active participants in discussion tasks. She commented that she could never be sure whether a student was not actually motivated to contribute to a discussion or simply too shy to participate. The modality of assessments also surfaced earlier in this chapter, instructors, like Marie, were still wondering if it matters what modality the assessment happens in, if the goal is to get a sense for how students are comprehending when listening? However, lack of verbal participation did not necessarily mean a student could not comprehend the aural input because sometimes they showed evidence of comprehension through their notes. "And I think it's hard, too, because with speaking, if they're having a discussion in class, you know if the student is just not motivated to

speak because they're just shy or, you know, they have social anxiety, but they may take great notes" (Marie, interview, January 13, 2020). Linda said,

> The challenge of listening is that you can't tell listening, like how well somebody understands something without them producing some language. To me, that's always about: Well, how is your listening comprehension? It might actually be fine, but the student doesn't really know how to express it. Like they don't have the productive skills. They have the passive vocabulary. They understand a lot, but how do they prove it? Nodding? Shaking their head? That's just body language where you can tell a lot, but it's not quite the same as- … Anyway, those are always interesting questions. How do you separate those things? (Linda, interview, January 16, 2020).

Thus, it was not clear whether instructors felt skills should be separated in the first place, especially when it comes to assessment. Carsen also felt that listening assessments are difficult because listening is a skill that is challenging to quantify and perhaps best approached through task-based assessments that require students to identify the main idea, the details, or a written response. "I just think that [listening] is a very difficult skill. It's a little hard to measure…there's tasks they do - select the main idea, details, and write a response. Things like that that are useful for assessment…I don't know" (Carsen, interview, January 8, 2020).

The Juxtaposition of Formative Versus Summative Listening Assessments. Marie shared some of her challenges with the new focus on more systematic formative and summative listening assessments:

> But the biggest challenge so far has been with formative and summative assessments. The *pressure* of that because before we had much more flexibility. So, we were really able to just do this on *our own* - like when we wanted to give a quiz, we could give a quiz. We didn't have to give the week in the syllabus like when exactly are you going to give that quiz. You know, like when is your formative assessment going to be versus your summative? And then having to hand in our summative assessments was totally new. We've never had anybody check those before. So, that was definitely a challenge. (interview, January 13, 2020)

Some instructors also expressed a concern as to whether or not formative assessments should be part of a student's final grade for a course. In the past, students were evaluated based on effort (E = Excellent; S = Satisfactory); however, when the program changed, the administration also asked that instructors monitor students' performance numerically. Thus, students now receive a final grade at the end of each six-week session. While instructors like Max felt formative assessments were useful, they did not have to be graded. "Every day, every class, if you're looking carefully at how things are working, you're asking yourself, 'Are they getting this? And what do we need to do to get them to get it?' From one activity to the next" (Max, interview, January 16, 2020). However, with the added element now of a final grade, Max felt strongly that formative assessment

grades should not be part of the final grade. “That’s not what by definition formative assessment is” (Max, interview, January 16, 2020). Max’s conceptualization of formative assessment is more consistent with the field’s general understanding: Formative assessments are not about a grade—they are about whether students are benefiting from the instruction, and then what would need to change in the instruction to better support their learning.

In contrast, when assessments were less central to the program, Thomasina felt that instructors had more leverage to experiment with their teaching methodology. “When it didn’t matter if assessments were great, you could just scrap it and do something else. Then it wasn’t very challenging, but now it might be a little bit more challenging because things carry weight and grades… (Thomasina, interview, January 20, 2020). Thomasina added that instructors have to be much more mindful now about what they consider to be central to the listening task and/or assessment.

> You’re going to have to determine what’s really central to this listening. [A former colleague] always said to me, ‘In any listening or any reading, you always have to have your first question be: What’s the main idea?’ So, clearly that’s gonna carry weight. But then, you know, am I going to do these little nitpicky how many inches of snow fell questions, or is it going to be a much more general thing? Like was it a lot of snow or a little snow? Because I want it to be fair for my students. (Thomasina, interview, January 20, 2020)

Another question in regards to fairness that arose among participants pertained to the role of repetition. Instructors question how many times they should play an audio recording during both formative and summative assessments. For instance, Marie had a sense that instructors could and should be able to play an audio recording as many times as necessary for students during formative assessments, but they should only listen to the recording once during a summative assessment. "For formative work, I think that you can play it and stop it. You can ask questions. You can have students say, 'Can we listen to that again? Let's go back and play it again because I didn't quite catch that'" (Marie, interview, January 13, 2020). However, for summative assessment, Marie understood that she was now required by the program to only play the audio once: "and that's just much harder for students." So, Marie has indicated a tension between level of difficulty at the formative-level compared to summative-level in terms of number of times an instructor plays the audio (or repeats the aural input) for students' learning and assessment tasks.

What about Assessing Listening Has Changed?

Although the changes to the program are numerous, the focus on listening paired with speaking has instructors re-conceptualizing what listening pedagogy, including assessment, is or could be. The instructors have shifted from considering listening, when integrated with all four skills, as relatively easy with a focus on the whole class experience to a more narrowed focus on listening itself as a skill. Assessment has also changed from informal, mostly peer-based questions that require either group discussion or a peer evaluation, to a more scrutinized system of formative and summative assessments. On the whole, these very experienced instructors spoke about the challenges

they face with assessing a receptive skill like listening and questioned the role of measurable outcomes for listening at both formative and summative levels. Previously, in the program leader interviews, they talked about what they understood formative and summative assessment to entail, but this was not clear to the teachers. Thus, how teachers were thinking about and enacting assessment in their classes showed that they had a lot of questions.

Despite these tensions, some instructors felt that more focus on listening assessment would help students improve. “Having that more focused activity, practice, or assessment helps students understand where they need to put more effort or what they need to practice more. It helps to break it down more so it’s not as muddled” (Linda, interview, January 16, 2020). Judah also saw a benefit to the new assessment focus in the paired-skills format because students’ listening skills would no longer be evaluated primarily based on their knowledge of other skills. “[Listening] is easier to test in some respects when it’s not integrated if you treat it like a discrete skill. So, it’s easier to test than writing or speaking, which can involve a more subjective treatment of the test” (Judah, interview, January 21, 2020). Although Judah did not offer any examples of how he would test listening, he did frequently cite textbooks that he enjoys using - - particularly ones that focus on presentation skills. But it was not very clear what Judah thought about listening assessment in and of itself.

Summary of Assessing Listening

In the new program, not only was listening highlighted, but it now had to be assessed on a more regular basis, at both the formative and summative level. As shown in

the data presented above, these seven very qualified and experienced instructors went from feeling confident about their ability to teach listening in an integrated-skills context via theme-based instruction that focused on cumulative projects rather than focused listening skill development. They thought of listening as something that occurred in class discussion or something they could assign for students to do outside of class, and then come to class prepared to share their opinions about what they had understood. So, in many ways that had never thought about how to explicitly teach listening as a skill; it was something that students naturally acquired through exposure to the target language: English. However, from what they reported above, it seemed as though they still were not really thinking about *how to teach* listening as a skill. Rather, they were still thinking more about how to *assess* listening, but not teach it.

Once the program shifted to the new paired-skills curriculum, the instructors suddenly found themselves asking many thought-provoking questions about what listening assessment and instruction might look like. In the former program, instructors felt comfortable with their ability to assess listening, especially when they could focus on other productive skills like writing and speaking or student-to-student designed assessments. However, now instructors are questioning how to assess listening without treating it as an integrated skill. This shift has raised questions about what L2 listening pedagogy is or could be.

III. Managing Different Levels of Listening Skill

When listening was taught as an integrated skill, instructors noted numerous challenges with mixed-level classes, mostly challenges related to students' first language

(L1) backgrounds. The challenges with a mixed-level class with students' varying linguistic needs based on their L1 affected how instructors chose listening materials that could be appropriate for a wide range of abilities. It also affected whether or not an instructor chose to highlight note-taking skills when some students appeared to do fine on listening exercises without the use of notes. They also wondered whether or not the program-level focus on teaching debate skills was the best choice given that many students struggled with basic pronunciation skills to be intelligible, which some viewed as a direct correlation to how students were, based on their L1, perceiving the phonological aspects of English. In addition, instructors continued to question the role of repetition for aural input – meaning, how often they should or should not play the audio for a listening exercise in class. These expressed concerns indicate some anxiety for the participating instructors regarding how to best support learners' listening development.

A Mixed-Level Class: "It Has Its Advantages If You Tap into That…But It Is Always Hard"

In the integrated-skills approach, classes included students with mixed-level language abilities. This meant, among other things, that students' listening skills were also mixed. While some instructors saw the benefits of a mixed-level language class, most viewed it as a hindrance. "Sometimes you'd have students who were very advanced [listeners] compared to students who were not even intermediate. And bringing them to the same level within a couple of weeks…hasn't always been doable if at all" (Linda, interview, January 16, 2020). The plus side to a mixed-level class, Linda explained, is to have students work in pairs or teams "so stronger students can work with weaker

students, which has its advantages if you tap into that. But just in terms of choosing materials because of the students' different skill levels, specifically for listening, it was always very hard" (interview, January 16, 2020). So, instruction and selecting listening materials for differential levels of listening capacity were challenges in the integrated-skills approach.

In addition, some instructors perceived learners' L2 differences in relation to their national identity. For example, Max shared some examples based on her experience working with students from Asia and the Middle East:

> So, let's take East Asian students. They tend to have much less exposure to conversational English, and they struggle so much more than others with the basic phonological system. And especially informal talk. And so, it's with those students that…I mean, if you compare for example Saudi students who are orally, you know, they can understand Native Speakers in complex, um, speaking situations. They themselves almost sound like Native Speakers even if they're grammatically, you know, in the written mode much lower level. Right? You bring in those East Asian students who could write an essay that actually looks pretty advanced, and they struggle with basic, basic, everyday listening conversation. Simply because they cannot process the sound system. They just don't have enough experience with that. And this is one reason why I asked whether there's any research on, you know, the teaching of listening comprehension in an EFL context because my intuition is that in some

> parts of the world it's given very, very short shrift. (Max, interview, January 16, 2020)

Based on her experience, Max expressed concern for how students from linguistically diverse backgrounds vary in how well they are prepared to write or speak in English. Marie, more specifically, described how some of her students, particularly male Saudis, performed well on listening assessments with seemingly no need for taking notes.

> I mean there's always *that one* who just refuses to take notes. It's interesting because it's usually a Saudi. Usually a Saudi boy [laughs]. I don't know why, but often times I see this one student who just refuses to take notes and then somehow, he gets an A on the test! So, it's like I always have to *sell* the idea of note-taking…. So, it's interesting because I think with the IEP (Intensive English Program), we do this kind of short-term, note-taking listening activity. And for some of those students, they can avoid the note-taking thing. They just don't see the benefit in it. They don't see the value in it. (interview, January 13, 2020)

In contrast, Max noticed that some students could not seem to function without written supports. "There were students that I noticed had a very hard time functioning with minimal attention to the written mode. Um…and when they prepared, they tended to rely a great deal on that" (Max, interview, January 16, 2020).

Moreover, some instructors worried that students who were more skilled in listening were easily bored or less motivated to practice listening while learners who really needed more attention to listening did not receive it. "How do you make sure that

the students whose level is more advanced don't feel bored or don't feel as though they are being challenged? Versus the students who might be frustrated because the material is way above what they can work with?" (Linda, interview, January 16, 2020).

Max also indicated that pronunciation was overlooked in the language classroom, especially in integrated-skills classes that had not only mixed-level students, but a focus on productive skills, such as speaking, where rhetorical moves, such as how to participate in a debate, were central to the instructional focus.

> I very much appreciate the focus on functionality on being able to participate in a debate or present an argument, and, you know, the rhetorical moves and all of that. Yeah, that's all very important and valuable. But if they're incomprehensible, which I did have one or two students who verged on that, then that's an issue…. If you can't process the sound system, then you're not going to be able to reproduce it… So, pronunciation is a necessary but not sufficient foundation for being able to do listening comprehension. (Max, interview, January 16, 2020)

Instructors also noticed that some students, especially at lower levels, needed the level-appropriate audio recording repeated multiple times to understand it: "I think it's just they need *a lot of* repetition…and it concerned me when I had to play something that was supposedly for their level three times and pause" (Carsen, interview, January 8, 2020). Linda connected varied listening levels with students' varied backgrounds: "People with the certain language background or cultural backgrounds tend to have higher or lower listening skills, and so that was always nice" (Linda, interview, January 16, 2020).

Hence, some instructors considered the mixed-level aspect of the former integrated-skills program as their biggest challenge due to students' diverse listening levels. This led to those instructors questioning whether note-taking should be a listening objective for those with strong oral skills, as opposed to requiring it for students who struggled with phonological processing

A More Focused Approach: "We Know We're Working on Listening"

Some instructors felt that the paired skills approach took a more focused approach to listening pedagogy and to students' listening challenges. "Here we know we're working on listening. As far as what's going to be valuable, I don't know. I think I'm going to check in with the students on that early on. Mainly what their challenges are, and I can kind of guess that a lot of their challenges will be vocabulary. Some of them might have difficulty with speed or whatever it is" (Thomasina, interview, January 20, 2020).

Other instructors also thought that in the new program they could more readily adapt to students' shorter attention spans and provide them with more variety in terms of content across courses. "But I think people's attention spans are short now. And I was trained to really delve into a topic. To go really deeply into it, but I'm not sure students have the attention span to spend so long, like two weeks on one topic, for reading, writing, listening, and speaking. So, it may be just as well that they're getting different topics in different classes. Give them more variety. Although I'd personally like to go really deep and learn different skills" (Carsen, interview, January 8, 2020).

Summary of Managing Different Levels of Listening Skill

In summary, in the paired skills program, students are placed into stand-alone

reading/ writing and speaking/listening classes based on their skill in each of those skills rather than their combined score on the Michigan Placement Test, which placed them into one level for a twelve-week period. Thus, there is less variation in language skills in each class. While this may be a better match for students, instructors expressed concern that classes are now less culturally and linguistically diverse. Based on their own interpretations and experiences, they generally saw a wide variation in students' performance based on their national identity, which required different training for Asian (e.g., Chinese) students than Middle Eastern (e.g., Saudi) students. However, in the new program students are placed into classes based on their performance in each of the four skills rather than their summative performance in all four skills, which lessens the challenge they talked about before.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the seven instructors described fewer challenges with L2 listening pedagogy when the program embraced an integrated-skills approach. They expressed a general sense of satisfaction with teaching listening in the former integrated-skills approach. They valued linking the skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening within one uniform theme. They expressed a preference for focusing on one topic over the course of one-to-two weeks, and felt that listening naturally tied into whatever discussions they had about said topics or could easily be enhanced with some form of authentic listening materials based on their levels.

In the new paired-skills approach, instructors had new questions and identified new challenges with L2 listening. While in the older program, instructors valued

following a topic that used all four skills, they were less clear as to how topic-based instruction could work in the new approach. Instructors felt very comfortable teaching and evaluating *speaking* in both the integrated and paired-skills format, but were less confident about how to teach and assess *listening* in the new program. In summary, it appears that the program change has provided experienced instructors with an opportunity to reconsider L2 listening instruction and assessment practices. More specifically, while instructors described a range of pre-listening activities in their repertoire, they were now beginning to reflect on the kinds of during- and post-listening experiences they were offering to students. They also raised questions surrounding skill combinations, the role of note-taking, repetition, orthographic supports, and the ability to easily find authentic materials for listening practice and assessment – especially at the advanced levels.

These questions indicate that instructors were now more focused on listening as a skill in and of itself through both instructional and assessment lenses. Given this shift, it may also be said that instructors are now more aware of at least some of the complexities of L2 listening pedagogy, so focusing on continuing to raise teacher awareness may be part of a systematic approach to L2 listening pedagogy.

In the next chapter, I examine the classroom L2 listening practice of two instructors, assigned to teaching the advanced-levels of listening/speaking in the new program, as they responded to the program shift. I describe how they approached L2 listening when paired with speaking.

CHAPTER SIX:

An Observational Study of L2 Listening Pedagogy

Rationale

L2 listening is a complex process. However, as discussed earlier, a lack of awareness regarding its complexity may explain why it is often overlooked or under-addressed in L2 teaching. The paired-skills program emphasis at USEP offered a rare opportunity to observe L2 listening pedagogy in practice. In this chapter I summarize the findings from my observations of L2 listening instructional practice in the classrooms of two instructors.

In this chapter, I first offer a descriptive framework for what constitutes a *listening experience*, including some key terms and background on USEP's standard descriptors for L2 listening based on language level. I then summarize findings from the teaching observations. I describe (a) the rationale for participant selection, (b) the two listening/speaking instructors and their corresponding classes, and (c) the observed L2 listening instructional practices of the two teachers, including the kinds of listening experiences they provided students and how they structured those listening experiences. Thus, in this chapter, I paint a picture of the instructional practices of two experienced teachers who were tasked with teaching L2 listening for academic purposes as one of their primary responsibilities.

Research Question

RQ 3: What listening instructional practices are instructors observed to engage in under USEP's new listening paired with speaking program emphasis?

A Descriptive Framework for a Listening Experience

I first provide a descriptive framework for a *listening experience* as conceptualized for this study. This framework helps to identify the *listening experiences* I observed in the USEP classes because what constitutes "listening" in a learning environment can be difficult to characterize. I include definitions and examples to help orient the reader to the descriptions of L2 listening instruction that follow.

Listening Experience

I use the term *listening experience* to designate the kinds of choices regarding curricular materials that L2 listening instructors make in what they are explicitly asking their students to listen to, reflect on, be tested on, and respond to. Two important characteristics of a listening experience are: *adaptation* and *directionality*, both of which are features of a *listening source,* which I define below.

Adaptation

Instructors might draw on a range of *adapted* versus *unadapted* audio materials in their teaching. Adapted means any audio materials that have been changed from their original format to make the original more accessible to students with a variety of learning styles and levels of language comprehension. Adapted audio materials in a language learning environment tend to be pre-recorded and fixed (i.e., not in real time). Unadapted means any audio materials that have not been changed from their original form. Unadapted audio materials, such as podcasts, news clips, and TED Talks, are typically face-to-face (whether real or virtual) and fluid (i.e., in real time) depending on their directionality.

Directionality

Directionality refers to the flow of communication. As humans, we engage in different kinds of listening activities in daily life: listening as part of casual conversation, listening to a professional presentation, listening to a lecture, listening to an advisor's advice, listening to a radio, listening to news on television or the Internet, listening to movies or theatrical plays. Within these listening activities, three directionalities are possible: *unidirectional*, *bidirectional*, and *multidirectional.*

Unidirectional represents a one-way flow of information or directionality, from speaker to listener. In this study, I have used the term unidirectional to refer to one speaker. For instance, for instructors, this could mean standing in front of the class talking to students. It could also mean that an instructor is providing the students with an audio recording to listen to where there is one central speaker such as a standard TED Talk. Further, it could mean asking students to listen to a student presenter. All of these experiences are anchored in a single speaker. The unidirectional mode is usually scripted and takes the form of a lecture or talk, with the listener typically positioned as receptive, though sometimes an instructor may ask students to listen and write something down or provide an oral summary of what they have understood.

Bidirectional communicative listening is perhaps the most common mode of listening, one we encounter routinely in our daily lives involving two speakers. The flow of information between the two speakers is reciprocal. For example, for teachers, it could mean asking two students to talk to each other with a focal listening task in mind or it could mean listening to a pair of speakers in a video involving an interviewer and an

interviewee. Sometimes, the instructor may ask the students to listen to another student in order to ask a question. In this case, the learner is engaged and has a role in the interaction (e.g., the 2 lines activity in Carsen's class described below), which requires them to both listen and respond. Here the reciprocal communication of speaker/listener is easily observed as they engage in face-to-face or remote (e.g., Zoom) communication. Academic examples would be two students having a conversation in a chemistry class or a student having a conversation with an advisor or professor.

Multidirectional listening is perhaps the most complicated of the directional modes. Here, I use the term to describe the dynamic, fluid nature of multi-party conversation involving 3+ speakers who are engaged in a setting. As an instructor, this could mean asking students to listen to a panel discussion or participate in a real university-based critical conversation (e.g., Massive Online Open Courses - MOOCs). Although different participants in a multiparty interaction may participate to different levels, in this study I took it to involve a group of participants with multiple utterances. In everyday life, this could be experienced as a workplace meeting; in academic life, it could be experienced in face-to-face or remote class discussions (e.g., three or more students participating in a class discussion or three or more students/professors participating in a panel discussion).

Listening Sources

Sources of a listening experience can vary greatly due to some of the technological advances in digital media over the last decade. These advances have provided both learners and instructors with access to a wider range of sources than have

been available to previous generations: DVDs, web-based listening libraries, and portable electronic devices serve as novel facilities to aide listening instruction and/or listening practice for the L2 listener (Lynch, 2012). Computer-enhanced language learning materials, such as the computer and other interactive technologies, allow the teacher to select materials of all kinds and support learners as needed with visual options (e.g., closed captions, transcripts) to help students develop good listening techniques. The web-based digital libraries and other Internet-based audio that served as the main listening sources of a listening experience in this study are described more fully below as kinds of listening experiences based on adaptation, directionality, and source.

As Graham, Santos, and Francis-Brophy (2014) have discussed, most L2 listening studies have traditionally been situated within unidirectional listening contexts. Hence, there is a lack of observational data on L2 listening pedagogy in both bidirectional and multidirectional modes. Therefore, this examination of advanced-level classroom pedagogy provides some insight into forms of L2 listening pedagogy needed to prepare college-bound learners who are on the cusp of full matriculation into a university where English is the Medium of Instruction (EMI) and discussion-based classes are common.

Revisiting Listening Levels at USEP

As described in Chapter 3, there are generally 8 language levels at USEP. Here I contrast the main differences between listening objectives and outcomes for learners at the lower and higher levels based on the listening experience framework (adaptation, directionality, and source).

Lower Listening Levels. At USEP, instructors teaching lower-level classes, such as those delegated as Levels 2-5, typically use audio/visual materials adapted for language learners, ranging from 2-8 minutes in length. A typical example of an adapted audio/visual material would be the kind found in a language textbook where there is a scripted prompt that has been recorded. As early as Level 2 and progressing to Level 4, lower-level listeners are also expected to follow simple conversations (i.e., bidirectional listening) and audio material that involves multiple speakers (i.e., multidirectional listening).

Higher Listening Levels. Advanced listeners must be able to track and extract key information from linguistically unadapted college level audio/visual materials on unfamiliar topics up to 12-15 minutes in length (see Table 3.1). A typical example of an unadapted audio/visual material would be something produced for a mainstream audience, either unscripted or less scripted, ideally on an unfamiliar topic to students. Students are also expected to follow and respond appropriately to an academic discussion with multiple participants. Students should do the above following clear, standard speech and with little need for support such as repetition or clarification.

Summary of Level Descriptors: Key Takeaways Regarding Adaptation and Directionality

As the level descriptors suggest, there are assumptions in the field about lower/mid-level versus advanced-level listening. University admissions officers, testing centers, language programs, and instructors expect advanced language learners to comprehend unadapted audio materials, which are far more challenging than adapted

materials in their use of different forms of vocabulary and fast informal speech. Informal speech can be more difficult for L2 listeners to comprehend because it often includes slang, contractions, and colloquial phrases. In contrast, in formal language, speech is generally slower, allowing for correct and clear pronunciation, and the tone of the voice is generally more serious. Speakers engaging in natural, unadapted discourse also use various forms of allusion and connected speech, making it more challenging for L2 listeners to track. Adaptation is therefore an important aspect of the listening experience and how it can be structured instructionally.

Further, in advanced levels, the directionality of multidirectional listening tasks is also more challenging. Listening in unidirectional mode, like a lecture, where one can focus on listening and taking notes is easier to manage. Holding a simple conversation with one additional interlocutor also allows one to ask for clarification or repetition. However, speaking with a group of people or listening to a panel is a very different experience where one may have additional interruptions and overlaps that easily distracts, a wider range of variation in discourse markers, and other demands. In these ways, both adaptation and directionality are focal characteristics of a listening experience.

Findings from Classroom Observations

In this section, I first introduce the two instructors who participated in the observational study and the assigned USEP levels of their courses. I then describe how I observed their L2 listening pedagogy for advanced listeners by focusing on the kinds of listening experiences they offered students and on how they structured these experiences. I pay particular attention to the instructors' self-selected listening sources for their

adaptation and directionality, including audio length, as well as the sequencing of instructional content, including any scaffolding such as use of repetition or clarification (see Chapter 2) that characterizes the instructors' L2 listening practice.

Instructors

From the seven listening/speaking instructors who participated in the study, I enlisted two from courses with the highest student-levels in order to investigate their L2 listening instructional practices. I chose the two highest levels in order to document the more complicated unadapted, bidirectional and multidirectional listening tasks that are prescribed for the higher levels. The two instructors were Carsen, who was teaching a Level 7 Listening/Speaking in person, face-to-face class, and Judah, who, due to COVID, was teaching a Level 8 Listening/Speaking fully remote class.

Carsen's Level 7 Class

My observation of Carsen's Level 7 class took place at USEP in a standard classroom of 11 students, roughly ages 18-25, from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds (L1 Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Spanish), who were planning to attend either an undergraduate or graduate program at a U.S. university in the near future. I observed Carsen seven times beginning in Week 2 and ending in Week 5 of the six-week program. My rationale for observing during this period was to observe Carsen during the teaching phase of the program (Weeks 2-5), after all speaking/listening diagnostics were complete in Week 1 and before summative assessments began in Week 6. Carsen's classroom included two large chalkboards, a computer, and a projector. She also had a large table at the front of the room, which she used as a desk. Students sat in single chairs

with attached tables, facing Carsen and the chalkboard, in rows of five. I sat in the back corner of the room as a silent observer. Carsen introduced me to the class on the first day of observations, and I quickly summarized my role as a language researcher who was there to observe Carsen's listening pedagogy. I emphasized that I was there to learn about her best practices, and I would not be recording anything pertaining to their performance in class.

Judah's Level 8 Class

As a response to the COVID-19 crisis, the in-person observations planned for the second six-week phase of the program were moved to a fully remote platform. Thus, the second set of six observations with Judah's Level 8 class occurred remotely via digital platforms - Zoom and Blackboard specifically. Although Judah had experience teaching a blended class, which combined traditional face-to-face and some forms of digital management systems (e.g., Blackboard), this was his first experience teaching a fully remote class. Although USEP offered intensive training for this sudden shift, it was a one-week (optional) self-paced training for faculty and staff conducted via Blackboard and Zoom.

Judah's remote Level 8 class included 12 students in a different group of culturally and linguistically diverse L1 Arabic, Chinese, and Spanish students, roughly ages 18-25. Many of the students had been in the same Level 8 class for multiple semesters at USEP. All of the students were either seeking admission to an undergraduate or graduate program at a U.S. university or had already been admitted and were fine-tuning their academic language skills while awaiting the start of their programs. I

introduced myself in the same way as with Carsen's class during Week Two of their six-week term.

The observations focused on documenting: 1) the kinds of listening experiences based on sources that Carsen and Judah provided students; and 2) the sequencing and scaffolding of listening experiences for their students based on source, adaptation, and directionality in addition to how instructors may (or may not have) scaffolded the listening experience for their students.

Kinds of Listening Experiences Based on Source

In the following section I describe the *kinds of listening experiences* Carsen and Judah offered their advanced-level students based on listening source. I focus on listening sources, and then describe their adaptation and directionality also noting length of audio material. Carsen and Judah provided four central listening experiences as part of their listening instructional practice under the new program emphasis of a combined listening/speaking course. I characterize the kinds of listening experiences Carsen and Judah provided based on listening source by describing the instructional materials, including their level, in accordance with the listening experience framework for source (adaptation and directionality).

The four kinds of listening experiences were organized around content from these listening sources: (1) textbook audio/video from the textbook *Listening and Notetaking Skills 3 (4th edition)*, (2) National Public Radio (NPR), (3) Technology, Entertainment, and Design (TED) Talks, and (4) live performances (e.g., students giving an oral presentation while others listen and take notes in order to pose a follow-up question).

Sources are informed by adaptation and directionality, so I begin with the adapted listening experiences.

Adapted Sources

Textbook Audio/Video. Like many instructors who teach language, Carsen and Judah chose from both print-based and electronic forms of communication in order to structure their classes. They also chose to select a standard, widely used textbook to use as part of their listening pedagogy. Although some programs require the use of a textbook, USEP does not. Further, across all 13 observations, I observed both instructors at the Level 7 and 8 levels to use the same textbook with accompanying audio materials in five different sessions. The textbook, *Listening and Notetaking Skills 3* (4th edition) by Patricia Dunkel, is published in collaboration with National Geographic and Cengage Learning.

The textbook follows this format: (1) Vocabulary Preview with supporting average audio length of 2:56; (2) Notetaking Preparation with supporting average audio length of 1:20; (3) First Listening (a full mock lecture) with average audio length of 8:14; (4) Second Listening (with excerpts from the full lecture) with average audio length of 0:19, so students are only listening to one short excerpt of the mock lecture during the second listening; (5) Third Listening (with excerpts from the full lecture) with average audio length of 5:15; and (6) Accuracy Check (i.e., comprehension questions) with average audio length of 1:34 (see Table 6.1: Textbook Audio Structure). I describe the content of the textbook chapters and supporting audio in more detail in subsequent sections.

Adapted textbook audio sources are limited in subject matter and vocabulary, but they can also have robust language learning material. Compared to unadapted sources, they also reduce complicated sentences and slow everything down so learners can ideally notice the implicit assumptions that animate everyday communication. They slow things down and break language into constituent elements so learners can develop the requisite tools and insights they need in the normal speed of actual conversation. However, one clear limitation to adapted textbook audio is length. The audio instructors used in this study were short clips, ranging from 0:19 – 10: 34 (see Table 6.1). If an instructor were to cover all the audio included in a textbook of roughly 10 chapters, then students would at best be exposed to 1-2 hours, at most, of targeted listening during the course of a semester or academic year. In contrast, the length of a typical university lecture class is 1-3 hours/week.

Table 6.1

Textbook Audio Structure

Audio structure to *Listening and Notetaking Skills 3 (4th edition)* used in both classes:	**Average** length of audio file (minutes: seconds) based on Chapters 1-5.
Vocabulary Preview (i.e., listen to the sentences and write in the missing word on the blank in book)	2:56
Notetaking Preparation A (i.e., listen to the intonation of the lecturer and circle A or B)	1:12
Notetaking Preparation B (i.e., listen again to see if answers to A or B are accurate)	1:19
First Listening (i.e., the lecture)	10:34
Second Listening (i.e., listen to the lecture a second time and take notes)	0:19 (directions) + 10:34 (first listening repeated)
Third Listening (i.e., note-taking mentor; circle the correct answer based on notes)	5:15
Accuracy Check (i.e., listen to questions about the lecture and circle the correct answer in the book)	1:34

Unadapted Sources

NPR. Across the 13 combined observations for both instructors, I observed one instance where an NPR news clip sourced from NPR.org was used. NPR posted the piece, "Splitting Up, But In It Together: Divorce in 2020," on January 21, 2020. The full featured story, 35 minutes in length, combines a 150-word written introduction with three different discussants: (1) a managing partner of a divorce law firm; (2) a sociology professor; and (3) an editor/newspaper columnist. This kind of experience would match the USEP descriptor (in Table 3.1 in Chapter 3) for an unadapted listening text that features multiple speakers. The NPR news story is delivered at a natural rhythm and pace. Judah directed students to listen to the first 9:42 minutes of the story and to take notes because they would hear it only once. Then, the instructor presented students with a listening assessment that incorporated five comprehension questions, two "fill in the gap" excerpts of the transcript with the omission of four and three content words respectively, a written summary question asking for 3-5 sentences summarizing the main idea and supporting points of the NPR story, and finally a synthesis question where students were asked to connect the current NPR story to any other NPR story they may have previously listened to outside of class. Judah used this NPR story (i.e., multi-party listening) as a summative listening assessment. This source could also potentially provide learners with over 35 minutes of audio even though the in-class portion focused on only the first 9 minutes or so.

TED Talks. Additionally, across the 13 observations, I observed the use of two different TED Talks at different points. The first entitled "Curating Humanity's Heritage"

by Elizabeth Linsey, is sourced from TEDWomen 2010. It runs 9:38 minutes in length and features the use of audio-visual materials. Carsen played the talk once without pauses. The second observed TED Talk, entitled "Living Plastic Free" by Beth Terry, posted by TEDxGreatPacificGarbagePatch in 2010, runs 11:55 minutes and includes the use of audiovisual materials and realia (e.g., examples of plastic that the speaker holds in her hand while talking). Carsen paused the video three times during the second TED Talk so students could note the main idea. Students were asked to first identify the main idea, and then either write it down or talk about it. Pause lengths were: 2:12, 2:06, and 0:54. See Table 6.1: *Kinds of Listening Experiences Observed in Chronological Order of Observation*, which I provide in order to give readers a sense of where in the teaching sequence each listening event takes place. The audio length is also longer than in adapted sources; and though not as long as the NPR story, the instructor showcased the TED Talk in its entirety, so there was a clear beginning, middle, and end which totaled roughly 12 minutes, longer than the unadapted NPR exposure and adapted textbook audio files.

Live Performances. Across all 13 observations, I observed six *live performances*. I define live performance as follows: the teacher instructs students to give an oral presentation while others listen and take notes in order to pose a follow up question thereafter, or selected students lead a discussion in which classmates are expected to listen actively and respond appropriately. Live performances integrate listening and speaking skills. For instance, Carsen directed students to use their notes to create an oral summary of the listening (e.g., retell what's in the textbook mock lecture). Carsen encouraged all students to talk and share their ideas with each other. Carsen circulated

and listened to students in small groups while students shared (or chose not to share) their oral summaries with each other (Observation C1, February 4, 2020).

Next, I characterize the kinds of listening experiences that instructors provided, focusing on directionality in the adapted and unadapted sources (e.g., NPR, TED Talks, and live performances) in terms of how instructors were observed to facilitate the different kinds of listening experiences based on directionality. I now characterize the kinds of sources according to directionality.

Directionality of Adapted Sources

Textbook Audio. The majority of the textbook audio is unidirectional in the form of a mock lecture on a range of topics such as anthropology and the concepts of culture to history and the passing of time and civilizations (see Table 6.2 for *Kinds of Listening Experiences in Chronological Order of Observation).* However, there were some textbook videos that created a bidirectional listening experience such as the interview between a National Geographic staff member and the American actor Andrew McCarthy. I did not observe any multidirectional listening tasks within the textbook audio or video.

Directionality of Unadapted Sources

NPR. The one NPR news clip that I observed to be used in a class was a multidirectional listening experience with various panelists.

TED Talks. The TED Talks I observed to be used in a class were unidirectional and similar to a lecture-style format.

Live Performances. Both Carsen and Judah provided a range of kinds of live performances. Below I describe or characterize the discussion of live performances

around uni-, bi- and multi-directionality:

1) **Unidirectional oral presentations**: Teacher (Carsen) circulated a handout asking students to take notes as they listened to the other students present. Students gave oral presentations in teams while students not presenting listened and took notes on the main ideas and supporting details. Teacher collected one of three sets of notes. This is an example of a unidirectional oral presentation because students listened to other students present (Observation C3, February 13, 2020).

2) **Bidirectional:**

a. **Presentation warm-up**: In partners, students practice giving their oral presentations to each other, rotating role of presenter and listener. The teacher (Carsen) instructed students to use their notes on index cards to practice giving their oral presentations. Students switched partners every few minutes and were instructed to focus their attention on their partner's mock oral presentation. This is an example of a bidirectional activity because students listened to other students present and were expected to give verbal (and non-verbal) feedback (Observation C7, February 27, 2020).

b. **Oral presentations**: Teacher (Carsen) distributed small pink cards with Q (for asking a question) or C (for making a comment). Students listened to directions for use of cue cards. They had to ask a question or make a comment if they were holding a pink card. Teacher asked students to pass the cue cards. Students were also instructed to take notes on the others' presentations. This is an example of a

bidirectional activity because designated students listened to other students present and were expected to interact with the presenters via verbal feedback, e.g., comment or question (Observation C7, February 27, 2020).

3) **Multidirectional:**

a. Student-created listening assessment: Students went into breakout rooms in small groups (i.e., teams) and created questions to ask the other student teams about the textbook lecture they had been assigned as homework. Students worked in small groups to create listening comprehension questions for another team. Teacher (Judah) directed students to use the Zoom chat box to share vocabulary questions and for discussion of ideas to enhance listening comprehension. Even though some wrote their questions and answers in the chat, the teacher encouraged students to speak their questions and answers rather than write them. For instance, he said, "You have to read it so everyone can hear it. Don't just type it." This is an example of a multidirectional activity because students listened to various students' questions and responses in no particular speaking/listening order (Observation J1, March 26, 2020).

b. **Student-led discussion**: Students shared their slides on Zoom and listened along to students as they presented in pairs. The whole class listened to/watched the first presentation/discussion. The teacher (Judah) tried to help the students facilitate the discussion when no one contributed. For example, he said, "Okay, please do your best to include everyone. Ask people to volunteer. If there aren't any volunteers, then you can call on people. Who wants to go first? Any

courageous volunteers? Any volunteers? The first volunteer gets it over first. Any volunteer groups? Don't be shy." The teacher, rather than the students, continued to facilitate the discussion and additional Q&A. "Thank you, K-K and Mohammed. Do we have any questions from the audience?" No more questions were asked. "Any other questions? Okay, it's a good time for a break. For the other groups, try to limit your presentation. Well, you broke it up, so it was presentation, question, presentation. For this, I wanted it more focused on the discussion. This is practice. If you didn't achieve this, then don't worry." This is an example of a multidirectional activity because students were instructed to listen to various students' questions and comments during the discussion (Observation J3, April 2, 2020).

c. **Student-led discussion:** The teacher **(**Judah) called on a small group of students to lead the next part of the class. Students shared their screen with PowerPoint slides. Two students led a discussion and called on various students to respond. This is another example of a multidirectional activity because students were instructed to listen to various students' questions and comments during the discussion (Observation J4, April 7, 2020).

d. **Student-led discussion:** Student's handout shared via screen on Zoom. The teacher (Judah) inquired along the way to ensure all students felt like they had had an opportunity to share their views. For example, he asked, "Did everyone have a chance to say something? [Silence]. Sounds like a technical problem. How about the others? Haha. Thank you! Let's go to the next discussion leader: Rudy." This

is an example of a multidirectional activity because students were instructed to listen to various students' questions and comments during the discussion (Observation J5, April 14, 2020).

Table 6.2

Kinds of Listening Experiences in Chronological Order of Observation

Teacher and Observation #	Target listening experience and focal listening source.	Adaptation (adapted/unadapted) and Directionality (e.g., unidirectional, bidirectional, multiparty)
Carsen One (C1)	Textbook audio (Unit 1: Anthropology – "The Concepts of Culture.")	Adapted, unidirectional
Carsen Two (C2)	TED Talk "Curating Humanity's Heritage."	Unadapted, unidirectional
Carsen Three (C3)	Live performance + Textbook audio (Unit 2: History: The Passing of Time and Civilizations – "The Egyptian Pyramids.")	Unadapted, unidirectional + Adapted, unidirectional
Carsen Four (C4)	Textbook audio (Unit 2: History: The Passing of Time and Civilizations – "The First Emperor of China: Building an Empire and a House of Eternity.")	Adapted, unidirectional
Carsen Five (C5)	Textbook audio (Unit 3: Sociology: The Changing World of Work – "The Distributed Workforce; Where and When People Work")	Adapted, unidirectional
Carsen Six (C6)	TED Talk "Living Plastic Free" by Beth Terry	Unadapted, unidirectional
Carsen Seven (C7)	Live performance	Unadapted, bidirectional Unadapted, unidirectional
Judah One (J1)	Live performance	Unadapted, multidirectional
Judah Two (J2)	YouTube videos (movie trailers for *Pretty in Pink* and *St. Elmo's Fire*); Textbook video (Unit 3: Sociology: The	Unadapted, unidirectional + Adapted, bidirectional

	Changing World of Work – "An Actor and a Travel Writer")	
Judah Three (J3)	Live performance	Unadapted, multidirectional
Judah Four (J4)	Live performance + YouTube video (movie trailer for *Twins)*.	Unadapted, multidirectional + Unadapted, unidirectional
Judah Five (J5)	Live performance	Unadapted, multidirectional
Judah Six (J6)	Played 9 minutes of the 35-minute *NPR audio (*Splitting Up, But In It Together: Divorce In 2020*; January 21, 2020) *Note: used as a summative listening assessment.	Unadapted, multi-party

Summary of Kinds of Listening Experiences Observed

As a whole, Carsen and Judah used 9 forms of unidirectional listening experiences compared to 5 multidirectional and 2 bidirectional forms of listening experiences. In terms of adaptation, I observed 12 unadapted sources in contrast to 5 adapted sources. Unadapted live experiences were their most salient practice with various forms of directionality observed. Next, I examine how Carsen and Judah structured each lesson in terms of the sequencing and scaffolding of instructional events.

How Do Instructors Structure Listening Experiences?

In this section, I describe *how the teachers structured student listening experiences* by highlighting what they did before, during, and after each listening experience to facilitate students' learning. I report seven main findings, where the teacher: (1) provides procedural direction, (2) activates background knowledge, (3) provides listening practice, (4) focuses students' attention for a linguistic feature, (5)

assesses comprehension, (6) fills in gaps in understanding, and (7) encourages personal connections. For an overview of how they structured the listening experiences see Appendix K: Structured Listening Experiences: Before-, During-, and After- Listening.

I also describe the instructors' sequencing of the listening experiences with particular attention to what they did before, during, and after a listening experience, and whether or not any supports or scaffolds were used, such as the use of *repetition* (i.e., replaying the audio) or *clarification* (i.e., pausing the audio to allow more time for processing and comprehension or instructor elaboration of additional input to clarify a vocabulary item or concept for learners). Finally, I describe any observed differences in treatment of listening experiences based on listening source to include adaptation and directionality.

Before Listening Instruction

Both teachers dedicated a significant amount of class time to preparing students for a future task. The most observed practice was *providing procedural direction*, which I exemplify in more detail below. The second most salient practice observed was *activating background knowledge*. This took various forms such as previewing vocabulary, predicting what the listening would be about, and, most frequently, pre-listening discussion tasks. In discussion tasks, the instructors directed students to work in small groups on a pre-listening task in order to explore what they already knew about the topic and to prime them with context.

Providing Procedural Direction. Both Carsen and Judah routinely provided procedural directions before asking students to listen to an audio source. In fact, this was

the most observed pre-listening practice. For example, Carsen focused her students to listen closely for directions pertaining to a future listening/speaking task centered around student oral presentations, "I want to talk about our next presentation…So I'm going to hand this out. This goes into the requirements: what, where, when, how, and all those questions" (Observation C1, February 4, 2020). Other times the procedural directions were more focused on what would happen during a future listening event like when Judah said, "I'm going to play the video one time, and for those people… So, for the first viewing, you'll watch the video and compare your observation with a partner" (Observation J1, March 26, 2020). Later in the same observation, Judah asked students to listen closely for directions for an oral activity, which combined speaking and listening, "So, I'm going to put you into breakout rooms for a game called Two Truths and One Lie. In your group, you have to share two true facts and a lie. I'll give you an example" (Observation J1, March 26, 2020).

The teachers' practice also included procedural direction to students to listen and take notes. They offered this direction regardless of whether students were listening to a textbook audio clip, a TED Talk, or a student presentation. For example, in the first observation with Carsen, she played an audio segment from the textbook and said, "Ready? Here we go!" Later she said, "Okay. Now we're going to listen a second time and take notes…Remember you don't have to write down everything. Just try to stay with it" (Observation C1, February 4, 2020). Carsen also demonstrated how to use abbreviations in notetaking and then directed students to use abbreviations during a future listening experience. Judah's note-taking approach was more open, for example, when

working with the video from the textbook, he said, “If you’d like, you can take notes” (Observation J2, March 31, 2020).

In addition, I observed some forms of prior knowledge activation beyond listening for directions or the notetaking directive that were more characteristic of one teacher or the other. For example, Carsen sometimes asked students to notice the organizational structure of sample notes in the textbook before a listening activity, or she focused students’ attention on the perception of sounds or some other linguistic feature before the listening began. For example, Carsen said, “Can everyone say, ‘first’. ‘er’. Good! That’s the American /r/” (Observation C6, February 25, 2020). This example was different from the other examples because it had less to do with what to *do* next, and more to do with what to *notice* next.

Activating Background Knowledge. While both teachers dedicated a lot of time to procedural directions, they also committed significant time to *activating background knowledge,* which sometimes also looked like *providing procedural direction*, described above. The distinction was in how the instructors prompted students to talk about the topic by exploring what they already knew about it before listening to the textbook audio. More specifically, Carsen and Judah introduced discussion tasks before listening where students worked in small groups or with the whole class to explore what they knew about the topic at the level of vocabulary and concepts in the listening experience. For instance, in my fourth observation of Carsen, she said, "First, we will do the discussion questions (1-3), and then do the vocabulary, and then put the slides for the lecture in order” (Observation C4, February 18, 2020). The discussion questions were about the first

emperor of China, who was named Qin Shi Huang. These discussion questions relate to activating background knowledge because the teacher was priming students to think about what they already knew about Chinese history and emperors before they listened to a mock, adapted lecture entitled: *The First Emperor of China: Building an Empire and a House of Eternity*.

Along similar lines, I observed Judah to activate students' background knowledge in order to prime them for the listening that would follow in the teaching/assessing sequence. For example, he said, "We're going to take the test in a few minutes. First, we're going to have a very brief discussion. Look at page 89 in the textbook" (Observation J2, March 31, 2020). The three discussion questions were about biology and DNA. For example, one of the textbook questions asked, "Why do you look the way you do?" These discussion questions related to activating background knowledge because they primed students to activate what they already knew about genetics before listening to a mock adapted lecture from the textbook about DNA.

In addition to discussion, Carsen and Judah structured other pre-listening activities that encouraged students to activate their knowledge before listening. Some of the activities directed students to do vocabulary tasks that involved matching words and corresponding definitions in the textbook. Others focused on encouraging students to be mindful of the pronunciation of focal vocabulary words and directed them to keep noticing word-level stress. Students also presented answers to prepared pre-listening questions in the textbook, which at times incorporated the use of pictures to further activate prior knowledge. Occasionally, instructors provided background information for

students after they directed them to make a prediction about the listening experience. To clarify, sometimes instructors first asked students to make a prediction about the listening before they heard it based on a title in a textbook. Other times they provided students with background information about the listening topic before they pressed 'play' on the audio recording. For example, Judah explained that Andrew McCarthy had been a famous American actor in the 1980s before students listened to an interview in which McCarthy participated.

Carsen also routinely used listening logs, which she required students to use outside of class for additional practice. Listening logs are simple spreadsheets where students can record features of a listening such as the title of the audio, the speaker, the source of the audio, the main ideas and supporting details, and key vocabulary words. Carsen required that students do the logs outside of class time, so I did not observe her to use them directly in class, but I sometimes saw her collect them at the beginning of class before the lesson began. I considered this a piece of background knowledge because students looked up the dictionary meaning of select words from the future listening experience in order to prepare them for the listening event. In other words, Carsen had primed the pump by giving the pre-listening activities (e.g., vocabulary logs) beforehand.

Summary of Before Listening Instruction. In short, the before listening practices align with those from the literature most related to top-down listening skills (Carrell, Dunkel, & Mollaun, 2004; Goh, 1998; Siegel, 2016a). Listeners use top-down processes when they activate context and prior knowledge in, for example, predicting the topic of an audio source. This form of instructor-initiated facilitation helps to activate the

learner's prior knowledge and to build a framework for listening comprehension (Vandergrift, 2007). In this study, activating the students' background knowledge was one of the most observed top-down strategies used by these two instructors. The most observed practice was *providing procedural direction*, which is similar to what Graham, Santos, and Brophy (2014) have called "procedural emphasis" (p. 49), which occurs before listening and helps to orient students to the listening task (i.e., task mechanics). This finding is not surprising considering Graham, Santos, and Brophy (2014) also found that *providing procedural direction* such as clarifying task demands in their teacher-focused study in the UK was the most common shared practice among teacher participants.

During Listening Instruction

As discussed in Chapter One, even though many post-secondary students acquiring English for Academic Purposes have strategies for writing an essay or giving an oral presentation, very few have strategies for *how to listen*. In response to Graham's (2017, p. 6) claim that "practice and contact with spoken language alone are insufficient to improve how well learners listen," I conceptualized the 'during listening' instruction to be something other than general classroom discussion. Thus, I considered a focal listening act as separate from an integrated listening/speaking teaching activity, which focused on students' already developed listening/speaking skills in their ability to communicate with each other. I characterized a focal listening act as one in which an instructor tried to explicitly draw the learners' attention to noting something specific about the listening event by asking listeners to pay attention to one of the various levels

of the message (e.g., phonetic, phonological, prosodic, lexical, syntactic, semantic, or pragmatic). Indeed, out of all the listening classes observed, only 5% included a focused listening activity.

Within this, I identified two approaches where the teacher: (1) provided listening practice, and (2) directed students to focus on a particular linguistic feature or aspect of the listening, such as listening for a number or date. Both teachers did (1) and only one did (2). Most importantly, I found that the teachers asked students to *listen to* audio or listen to/watch a video, which is what I mean by "provides listening practice" immediately below, as a more salient practice than they asked them to *listen for* something specific (e.g., a linguistic feature) or instructed them in *how to listen.*

Provides Listening Practice. The teachers *provided various forms of listening practice*.

In one approach, teachers directed students to listen and/or watch an audio or video. For example, in the second observation with Carsen she provided a TED Talk experience. Before she played the video, she said, "So, I'm only going to play it once. Got it? So, we're going to *practice listening just one time through*. Listen and take notes" [(Observation C2, February 6, 2020); Italic added to highlight a key element of "provides listening practice" as an utterance related to listening instruction]. Later in another observation with Carsen, she used a different TED Talk and said:

> "What we're going to do today is talk a little bit more about note-taking and definitely about abbreviations. And then we'll do a listening about living without plastic and we'll talk about the future of plastic." Later, she

> said, “Let’s get the video up” (Observation C6, February 25, 2020).

In this example, Carsen provides a listening experience that ties to notetaking, whereas sometimes the instructor directed students so much on how to take notes that she did not save enough class time for students to actually listen to the focal audio. Judah also occasionally used video, but from the textbook rather than TED: “Now we will see the interview with Andrew McCarthy” (Observation J2, March 31, 2020).

The second most observed during-listening practice involved the facilitation of a live performance. For instance, at two different times in my last observation with Carsen she directed students to engage in a live performance:

> “Yeah, I think I’ll have you speak for five minutes to your partner. And then listen for five minutes. And then we’ll move down to another person and repeat. Okay? Are you ready? Get up! And let’s make two lines.” In the same observation, she later said, "“If you have the cue card. You’re required to ask a question or give some kind of response.” (Observation C7, February 27, 2020)

Similarly, Judah provided criteria for the kind of discussion he was anticipating: quality, flow, and management (e.g., turn taking) when he said, “The main focus will be on the last three: quality of the discussion, your ability to keep the discussion going, and managing the discussion. I don’t expect perfection with grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation” (Observation J3, April 2, 2020). Judah also called on students a lot to take the lead as in: “The next group will be Doug and Sam. As I wrote in the chat box, please limit it to 20 minutes and include everyone in the discussion.” In this activity, one student

led the discussion and called on other students to respond (Observation J4, April 7, 2020). In both of these instructional situations, learners were instructed to listen for something such as an interesting student comment made in the discussion (usually from the student presenter) in order to respond in the form of a question or comment later.

Repetition of input was also a frequently observed teaching strategy as part of the during-listening experience. Here, the teacher either played the audio multiple times or asked students to repeat themselves multiple times for others' benefit. For example, Carsen said, “Okay, so on Tuesday, you listened to “pyramids”. We’re going to listen to it again because you can’t remember all that. Do you have your notes and your books?” (Observation C3, February 13, 2020). Thus, this use of repetition is broad. What does Carsen mean by “you can’t remember all that”? What kind of listening for is this? To remember? To learn? To understand?

Directs Students to Focus on a Particular Aspect of the Listening That Carries Meaning. Listening to focus on a particular linguistic feature or aspect of the listening is a strategy that focuses student attention during listening activity in order to help listeners make sense of what they hear. For instance, aspects of language that carry meaning might be encoded as phonetic, phonological, prosodic, lexical, syntactic, semantic, or pragmatic. For example, when I first observed Carsen, she did a listening vocabulary preview in the textbook. First, she played the audio, and then she asked students to fill in the blanks. So, students had to listen to the audio and write down the missing content words in their books. This exemplifies strategy instruction that focuses on vocabulary at the lexical-level. Judah did something similar. For example, Judah said,

"I'll play the fill-in-the-gap passages. You don't have to fill in the top part first. So, now listen and fill in the missing words" (Observation J6, April 21, 2020). Carsen used a similar form to focus students' attention during-listening: "I will play the listening and you will fill in the blanks with words, and then we will talk about the meanings" (Observation C4, February 18, 2020).

When Carsen and Judah used the textbook, I observed more *listen for* types of instruction (e.g., listen for a missing word from the transcript) than when they incorporated an unadapted listening experience. Although this was not a frequent part of either teacher's practice, I did observe both of them to occasionally focus students' attention during listening. For instance, Carsen said, "And then another thing that I'm going to do is give a little pause after dates and other figures" (Observation C4, February 18, 2020). This is during listening because the instructor encouraged the students to focus on the listening by listening for something while listening to the audio.

As another way to focus students' attention, Carsen and Judah also stopped the audio or video material at times in order for the students to do something such as write down notes or to orally reflect on comprehension. For example, when working with the textbook video, Judah asked: "What is the first part of the video about? What are your impressions of him so far?" (Observation J2, March 31, 2020). When watching a video, Judah said, "You should focus on first impressions. If you'd like you can take notes" (Observation J2, March 31, 2020). So, the focus was on listening to comprehend. See Table 6.3, *Structuring the Listening Experience*.

Table 6.3

Structuring the Listening Experience

Teacher and Observation #	# of times the teacher did something 'during the listening' (e.g., stop the audio to ask students to use a tactic or strategy).
Carsen One (C1)	0
Carsen Two (C2)	0
Carsen Three (C3)	Paused textbook audio four times during the first listening (the lecture); roughly every three minutes out of the total 12:40 of listening time so students could take notes.
Carsen Four (C4)	No pauses during the textbook audio for the pre-listening vocabulary task roughly 4:26 in length. Paused 19 times during the textbook audio first listening (the lecture) so students could take notes. Each pause was roughly 3-10 seconds in length.
Carsen Five (C5)	0
Carsen Six (C6)	Paused 3 times during TED Talk so students could note the main idea. Pause lengths were: 2:12, 2:06, and 0:54.
Carsen Seven (C7)	0
Judah One (J1)	0
Judah Two (J2)	Stopped textbook audio video 5 times to ask questions; stopped every 3-5 minutes to monitor student comprehension (e.g., probing with direct vocabulary or comprehension questions; asking for oral summaries)
Judah Three (J3)	0
Judah Four (J4)	0
Judah Five (J5)	0
Judah Six (J6)	Repeated it three times. Plays once all the way through, then plays parts of it a second time for students to answer 5 questions; and plays parts of it a third time for students to answer fill-in-the-gap passages.

Summary of During-Listening Practices. These were the least observed of the three sets of practices. Providing exposure to aural input as listening practice was observed more than listening for a linguistic feature, which was usually focused on a

lexical item in a listening cloze task. The most observed practice was *listening/watching video or listening to textbook audio*. The second most observed practice was *live performance*. The third most observed practice during listening instruction was *repetition of input* where the instructor either played the audio multiple times or asked students to repeat themselves multiple times for others' benefit.

During-listening practices are potentially highly useful for not only focusing students' attention during the listening experience, but for engaging bottom-up *processes in developing students' listening skill.* Connecting to previous research, when instructors use strategies to encourage L2 listeners to attend to intonation patterns, word prefixes, or other linguistic features to facilitate access to communicative meaning, they are helping learners develop their bottom-up skills (Graham, 2017). This attention to intonation patterns and other linguistic features is very different from merely exposing students to aural input or providing listening practice, which was the most observed instructional practice. Although Carsen and Judah did some during-listening activity, it was not at the decoding level because none of the examples showed Carsen and Judah focusing on intonation, prefixes, or other specific linguistic features.

After-Listening Instruction

Under the paired-skills program, instructors are also required to regularly assess students, and the two instructors made use of post-listening experiences as opportunities to *assess students' comprehension*. Both Carsen and Judah assessed listening comprehension in similar ways. Beyond assessing, they were also observed to *fill in gaps in understanding* and to *encourage students to make personal connections* to the listening

materials, which they approached slightly differently as I describe below but were all examples of strategies for teaching L2 listening. Thus, *filling in gaps* and *making connections* are examples of observed strategies for teaching L2 listening.

Assessing Comprehension. Assessing comprehension was the most salient post-listening activity and took a variety of forms. The most observed form of assessment required students to present answers to teacher-directed questions (e.g., multiple choice or open-ended questions from the textbook). For example, Carsen said, "Okay, check with each other and see what you have. I'm going to go around and ask people to tell me what the answers are" (Observation C5, February 20, 2020). Carsen also often asked students to provide an oral summary of what they had heard during the listening experience: "Now begin the oral summary if you haven't already. Retell. Go back and forth. Give an oral (verbal) summary of what she said. And share your ideas for the main idea for each section" (Observation C6, February 25, 2020).

Judah's post-listening assessment was focused on comprehension, as in the following examples:

1. "I'd like to go to the homework for today, which was the video from the textbook. Page 64. Let's actually go to page 66. I might send you the vocabulary so you can check it, but there were three questions on page 66 that were very interesting about the content. So, let's jump to the bottom of page 66. Number one. Heather, could you read that for us? In what ways…?" (Observation J3, April 2, 2020)

2. "Douglas – (Reading) number two…. What happened? Why did he become dissatisfied with his life as an actor? What did he do?" (Observation J3, April 2, 2020)
3. “Here’s some vocabulary Andrew McCarthy uses in the video. What does he mean by ‘in hindsight’? Any ideas? Looking forward to backward? In retrospect. What does he mean by ‘clueless’?” (Observation J2, March 31, 2020)
4. "Anyone else for question number one? How about in China? KK? So, which foods in the US have more GMO products? Do you remember what the lecture said about that?" (Observation J6, April 21, 2020)

Finally, an additional post-listening teaching practice that also assessed comprehension was the review of notes taken during listening. This meant that the teacher – in this case, Carsen - probed for whether or not students took notes during the listening and encouraged them to develop their notes further. However, the instructor did not ask students anything about their notes; rather, she simply asked if they had taken notes. Thus, it may not actually assess comprehension, though it was a common practice.

Filling in Gaps in Understanding. I observed four different post-listening teaching strategies which aimed to fill in gaps in students’ understanding of the listening activity. They were: *extended explaining, reconstruction, student input on listening task,* and *discussion about listening*. Extended explaining was conceptualized as teacher talk or a mini-lecture that is not pre-planned but responsive to an issue that arises on the spot after the listening task. For example, Judah offered extended explanation after a listening

when he said, “You can’t be prepared for every opportunity. Sometimes you have to take the opportunity when it appears. But did he have a passion for traveling? Cyndi, what do you think?” (Observation J3, April 2, 2020). Or when Carsen was observed to circulate and listen to students in small groups, but then stopped to explain what 'offspring' meant orally (Observation C1, February 4, 2020).

Likewise, both instructors used reconstruction to fill in gaps in students’ understanding such as when they instructed students to use words from a text along with their background knowledge to construct meaning of input. For example, Judah asked, “Is your work life going to be different than Andrew McCarthy’s? Could you tell us more? So, you’d like a more normal life. Can you say more, Jose?” (Observation J3, April 2, 2020).

Carsen implemented two additional forms of post-listening engagement. She asked for student input on a listening task and discussion about listening. Specifically, Carsen asked for feedback to the listening log homework task to learn how the strategies worked. Students reported they had to rely on text a lot, and they mentioned that it was useful to write a question before they listened and then tried to listen for the answer (Observation C1, February 4, 2020). In the same observation, I noticed Carsen hold up the listening log and elicit feedback from students. In a separate observation, Carsen said, “Okay. We’re going to do the discussion questions in the book. What are some potential advantages or disadvantages of a distributed workforce that were not mentioned in the lecture?” (Observation C5, February 20, 2020).

Encouraging Personal Connections. Finally, both Carsen and Judah were observed to *encourage students to make personal connections* to the listening source. Judah instructed students to relate new information to a wider context of interpretation: “So what else do we learn about Andrew McCarthy? Have you found that [asking for help shows vulnerability] to be true in the US?” (Observation J2, March 31, 2020). Another example of when an instructor asked students to make a personal connection was when Carsen asked: "What did you learn about your cultural roots from your grandparents? What do you value most about these teachings and ways? How can those lessons be applied to our lives today?" (Observation C2, February 6, 2020). Judah also asked students to reflect on what they learned from the listening text when he said: “So what are some things we learn in the last part of the video?” (Observation J2, March 31, 2020).

Judah also utilized what I call *extending personal connection to broader experiences* (e.g., “So what else do we learn about Andrew McCarthy? Have you found that [asking for help shows vulnerability] to be true in the US?” (Observation J2, March 31, 2020)) as an extension of making personal connections. This was a unique practice to Judah where he instructed students to relate new information to a wider context to produce general interpretation.

And finally, both instructors used *elaboration* where they asked students to say more about the subject (e.g., agree/disagree, give another example). For example, Carsen asked, “Do you agree or disagree? I think she makes a pretty convincing case” (Observation C6, February 25, 2020). And Judah chimed in: "Let’s hear about your

responses. Who would like to share first? Heather? Are things labeled in Saudi Arabia? So, it's genetically modified? Uh-hum" (Observation J6, April 21, 2020). Although this sounds like assessing comprehension, I contextualized it as elaborating on what students already know and relating that information back to their personal contexts (e.g., life back at home). Thus, it was a form of making a personal connection to the listening.

Summary of After-Listening Practices. After-listening practices were the second most observed form of L2 listening pedagogy following before-listening practices. This finding is not surprising considering that in their interviews instructors described a range of pre-listening activities in their repertoire and were just beginning to reflect on the kinds of during- and post-listening experiences they would offer students in the new paired-skills format. Of the after-listening practices, three proved to be most salient, all three pertaining to *assessing comprehension*. This, too, is not surprising given that L2 pedagogy includes both instruction and assessment, and the results of previous studies regarding L2 pedagogy mostly focused on product-oriented results; in other words, the studies showed how students performed on tests, which is a product-driven approach (Buck, 2001; Mendelsohn, 2006) to L2 listening. So, it makes sense that the most observed after-listening practice entailed *students presenting answers to teacher-directed questions* (i.e., students present answers to post-listening questions as either individuals or in groups).

Beyond assessing comprehension, the instructors engaged, albeit infrequently, in some other practices (e.g., *encouraging students to make personal connections, fills in gaps in understanding*) that could potentially give rise to more focused and extended

strategy instruction related to learning L2 listening. Looking across all class observations, the instructors spent far more class time offering strategies and instruction for adapted audio sources regardless of directionality. However, the most important finding is that teachers are not really engaging students in listening instruction during the listening event.

Discussion

In this chapter. I have focused on how two instructors at the advanced-levels, Carsen and Judah, were observed to have engaged learners in L2 listening pedagogy, including the kinds of listening experiences they provided students and how they structured those listening experiences and expected students to respond. A descriptive framework for a listening experience supported the description of classroom listening-related practices, given that L2 listening involves fluid, interactive processing (Field, 2004; Hulstijn, 2003). Thus, a listening experience entails attention to adaptation, directionality, and source in addition to scaffolding and during-listening supports when designing lesson plans. Graham, Santos, and Brophy (2014) have claimed that language instructors tend to favor unidirectional modes when designing listening experiences. The findings from this chapter support their findings. In total, I observed more unadapted than adapted listening sources, and more unidirectional than bi- or multidirectional listening sources.

For teachers, how they consider the adaptation of a listening source as a listening experience for learners is an important consideration. Adapted sources, like the textbook audio sources that both Carsen and Judah used, have intentionally been designed and

scaffolded for speed, vocabulary, and grammar for learners at a particular level. In this study, instructors used adapted sources less frequently than authentic live experiences (e.g., student-led discussions or presentations). The challenge with the prevalent use of live experiences for listening practice is that they use speaking as an indicator, which is output-focused but also arguably more authentic. The unadapted unidirectional, bidirectional, and multidirectional listening experiences, where instructors were observed to use a live experience as a listening source, were not necessarily process- or product-based. Thus, this is another place where the process-product distinction falls short. Although students have been engaged in listening as a process, teachers are not *teaching explicitly* about the listening process through more of a focus on aspects of intonation, pre-fixes, and other features of the target L2 language. This finding is consistent with Siegel and Siegel's (2015) call for more bottom-up approaches to listening pedagogy in order to contribute to the process continuum.

CHAPTER SEVEN:

Conclusions and Implications

> It has been claimed that over 50 percent of the time that students spend functioning in a foreign language will be devoted to listening (Nunan, 1998). Despite this, we often take the importance of listening for granted, and it is arguably the least understood and most overlooked of the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in the language classroom. (Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 37)

For this dissertation, I had the opportunity to investigate a well-established university-based intensive English program in the northeast United States, which I call USEP, as it transitioned from an integrated-skills to a paired-skills approach. My goal was to study the kinds of pedagogical attention that listening, the second language (L2) skill researchers have claimed is the least understood and least practiced (Field, 2019; Graham, 2017; Graham, Santos, & Francis-Brophy, 2013; Siegel, 2018; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012), received in the new approach. In addition to documenting L2 listening-related teaching practices in two classrooms, I also sought to understand what program leaders and experienced instructors in the program thought about L2 listening skill in terms of pedagogical challenges and opportunities.

In this chapter, I review the main findings of the case study across interviews with program leaders and listening instructors as well as observations of two experienced instructors teaching listening-speaking as paired skills for multilingual university-age students. The study documents a pivotal moment at USEP while simultaneously centering

instructors' and program leaders' experiences and perspectives as participants. In this way, this research responds to calls from listening researchers Graham (2017) and Siegel (2015) for studies that focus on what language instructors know and do in relation to L2 listening pedagogy.

In the sections that follow, I briefly summarize the case study's main findings and connect them to theories of teaching and learning in L2 listening. I then discuss implications of this study for both L2 teaching and research.

Perspectives and Practices Related to L2 Listening Pedagogy

Perspectives on L2 Listening

Findings from interviews with USEP's program leaders revealed that they considered listening an important skill for learner comprehension. Both program leaders in this study, consistent with some L2 research, reported that listening has become an important component of many language programs but remains problematic insofar as many teachers are uncertain regarding how to develop and assess their students' listening skill, particularly at the advanced level (Goh, 2005). As shared in instructor interviews, the shift to paired skills highlighted instructors' uncertainty about how to teach listening. Therefore, one question for future research and practice is how instructors might be better supported to teach listening, which is a question that can be asked within the context of an integrated *or* paired skills approach.

Instructors' Questions and Challenges

Participating instructors expressed concerns regarding L2 listening pedagogy in the paired-skills approach. While all spoke highly of using content-based themes or

projects to unify their former integrated-skills approach, they had many questions about how to use theme- or project-based work in the paired-skills approach. Some also expressed a concern about knowing how to scaffold authentic (i.e., unadapted) listening experiences for advanced learners. All reported challenges with creating both formative and summative listening assessments for learners. For their part, program leaders reported that they had previously been unaware that listening assessment had been a challenge for instructors. This may reflect that "listening is probably the least explicit of the four language skills, making it the most difficult skill to learn [and teach]" (Vandergrift, 2004, p. 3). The covert nature of the process and the ephemeral nature of the input make the perceptual and comprehension processes involved in listening difficult to access, facilitate, and assess. This study found that teachers structured different kinds of listening experiences for students but did not engage in explicit instruction in L2 listening focused on specific features of bi- and multi-directional spoken language.

A Descriptive Framework for a Listening Experience

The final stage of the study described two experienced instructors' L2 listening pedagogy. To describe their instructional practices, I constructed a framework for what constitutes a *listening experience*. The framework highlights the choices L2 listening instructors make in what they are explicitly asking their students to listen to, reflect on, be tested on, and respond to. Three important characteristics of a listening experience are: *adaptation*, *directionality,* and *source*. Listening experiences, as connected with listening pedagogy, are a key part of teacher planning, but have not received much attention in the research literature. The listening experience framework responds to Graham, Santos, and

Brophy's (2014) call for more teacher-focused, classroom-based studies on L2 listening pedagogy and to their observation that most treatments of listening, in a language classroom, are unidirectional.

Using the listening experience framework, I observed two participating instructors teaching two advanced-level listening courses. The goal was to see how they structured and facilitated classroom listening experiences in terms of the kinds of choices they made regarding curricular materials for the listening experiences they created for students. The two instructors offered listening experiences which privileged unadapted and unidirectional sources. Unadapted live experiences were the most commonly observed practice combined with various forms of directionality. However, looking across all class observations, the instructors spent more instructional time preparing their students for adapted listening experiences than they did preparing them for unadapted listening experiences.

In addition to adaptation, directionality, and source, I also examined teachers' before-, during-, and after-listening instruction as part of the listening experience framework.

Before Listening Instruction

Both participating teachers spent a large portion of class time *providing procedural directions* (i.e., instructions) for a future language task. The most commonly observed behavior was giving procedural guidance. A*ctivating background or contextual knowledge* was the second most prominent practice observed. This took various forms, including previewing vocabulary, predicting what the listening would be about, and, most

often, engaging in pre-listening discussion tasks. In discussion tasks, the instructors directed students to work in small groups on a pre-listening task in order to explore what they already knew about the topic and to prime them with context, which occurred most frequently with adapted sources.

During Listening Instruction

Just 5% of the observed listening classes included a concentrated during-listening exercise. I documented two methods where the instructor (1) offered listening practice and (2) instructed students to concentrate on a specific linguistic function or element of the listening, but this was limited to discrete elements such as listening for a date or number. Most notably, I found that teachers asked students to listen to audio or listen to/watch a video rather than asking them to *listen for* something unique (e.g., a linguistic feature) or instructing them on *how to* listen.

After Listening Instruction

Following before-listening practices, after-listening practices were the most commonly encountered type of L2 listening pedagogy. This is not surprising, given that during their interviews, instructors identified a variety of pre-listening activities in their repertoire and were just beginning to explore the types of during- and post-listening interactions they would have students do in the new paired-skill curriculum.

To summarize, the listening experience framework is useful in focusing analytic attention on adaptability, directionality, and source as well as on how instructors structure before-, during-, and after listening experience activities.

Implications

What can be gained from more specifically focusing on L2 listening pedagogy for postsecondary, multilingual, multicultural, advanced listeners through the perspectives of program leaders and teachers? This study revealed that change is difficult. Nonetheless, the new paired-skills approach seemed to provide needed focus on the features of spoken (versus written) language, especially when considering listening in global academic settings where English is the medium of instruction. That said, the purpose of this dissertation is not to advocate for integrated versus paired skills, but rather to focus on what was revealed in the shift and what that means for listening pedagogy moving forward.

Program leaders anticipated the program focus shift would result in more attention to listening. However, they were surprised at the challenges teachers faced with assessing and teaching listening. For their part, teachers felt a bit at sea in the shift from integrated to paired skills because they felt removed from the methods they had used in the integrated approach. In the new curriculum, they included similar listening experiences but without the same thematic continuity. However, neither instructors nor program directors had considered what a structured approach to L2 listening pedagogy could be regardless of program structure. Hence, part of what this research reveals is a lack of attention to the complexities of L2 listening pedagogy and how it might be approached more methodically.

Additional research is needed to develop a more principled, systematic approach to L2 listening pedagogy. This work should consider ways to integrate content-based

materials with both integrated and paired-skills instruction as well as other pedagogical and assessment materials to support instructors' work. Further, there is a need for more pedagogical attention to during-listening instruction. Specifically, the finding that teachers did not engage in very much during-listening instruction has implications for supporting teachers to think more deeply and systematically about how to support their students' listening in a L2, as described below.

In this next section, I suggest two implications for teaching: (1) *Supporting teachers in developing a deeper understanding of listening as process; and (*2) *Scaffolding student learning in ways that focus on L2 listening,*

Supporting Teachers in Developing a Deeper Understanding of Listening as Process

Educators should take seriously the complexities involved in teaching L2 listening for university-age students. As a field, we need to reconsider how TESOL instructors train future educators. This entails thinking about the use and adaptation of L2 listening materials that take account of the various characteristics of a listening experience, e.g., to consider adaptation, directionality, and source for various contexts as well as instructional practices specific to before-, during-, and after-listening experiences.

From this study, it appears the instructors focused little or no attention on aspects of listening that Chen (2013) reported students perceived to be barriers to listening comprehension. These included challenges listening to the next part when thinking about meaning, difficulty segmenting the speech, challenges remembering what was heard, difficulty forming a mental image from words heard, and challenges figuring out main ideas of the message (Chen, 2013). Instruction that addresses these challenges is

necessary, as Chen (2013), Flowerdew and Miller (2005), Goh (2000), and Graham (2006) point out, because it prepares students for how to actively listen to discussions. Therefore, these student-identified concepts are important to address via during-listening instruction and multidirectional listening.

In order to encourage instructors to attend more to listening instruction, new supports are needed to help them envision the process of listening and what listening instruction *as process might look like*. There are hints in the teachers' interviews regarding possibilities that the field could build on. For example, some instructors talked about ways in which they could scaffold dialogues for listening practice. It may also be important to recognize that the pedagogical choice may not be a simple one between integrated and paired skills approaches. It may in fact be more generative to think about how to develop teachers' understanding of listening as process in order that they would then be able to imagine L2 listening instruction within either approach, integrated or paired. Possibly with deeper understanding of the process of listening, a topic-centered integrated approach could be structured to support development of listening skill.

In addition, it may be that the process/product dichotomy highlighted earlier in this dissertation oversimplifies the nature of listening and instructional possibilities. The instructors spoke to this possibility in their interviews. They highlighted that their L2 listening pedagogy is fluid and does not fit neatly within a process or product framework. Program leaders also spoke to this challenge. While they were previously unaware that L2 listening assessment was difficult for faculty, the current program-level emphasis on skills, along with more needed tests at both the formative and summative stages, brought

this to their attention. Therefore, it may be particularly important to focus on raising teachers' and program leaders' awareness of the complexities involved in L2 listening development. This is a significant but essential challenge given the acknowledgment that listening is the primary foundation for academic linguistic advancement. At the heart of the challenge is the need for changes in practice. Therefore, future study might focus on exploring ways to support changes in practice. Such a study could lead to better ways to raise program leaders' awareness regarding how to support instructors on this point. In addition, instructors might have guided opportunities to develop the materials necessary to effectively teach listening skills to L2 language learners.

A way to encourage both teachers and teachers-in-training to have greater ownership of innovative listening practices is by engaging them in action research to explore some of the benefits of new forms of instruction. I strongly encourage other teachers to investigate the use of materials and activities for creating listening experiences in their teaching contexts, whether face-to-face or virtual, in order to explore robust forms of L2 listening pedagogy. Thus, a focus on teacher training and action research could be ways forward for the field. Particularly as teachers, working together, might be more creative than researchers have been in developing process-oriented "during-listening" forms of L2 listening instruction.

Scaffolding Participation in Ways That Focus on L2 Listening

In the context of classroom instruction, a teacher needs to provide assistance or scaffold the process of how to listen and also recognize when assistance is no longer needed (e.g., Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Nasir, Rosebery, Warren, & Lee, 2014; Pea,

2004; Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). A scaffolded approach enables learners to accomplish tasks beyond their current capabilities through a collaborative process in which a teacher or a more proficient peer provides support or guidance (Pea, 2004; Wood et al., 1976). Scaffolding is based on the relations among people, tools, and environment and it is activity- and performance-centered (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1991). Assisted performance in an L2 environment might focus on the activities involved in multidirectional critical discussion where L2 listeners have to listen to numerous, unscripted ideas while also contributing their ideas. So, what might this involve in terms of scaffolding participation in ways that focus on L2 listening?

Adapted sources, like the textbook audio sources that Carsen and Judah used, have intentionally been designed and scaffolded for speed, vocabulary, and grammar for learners at a particular level. In this study, instructors used adapted sources less frequently than authentic live experiences, such as student-led discussions or presentations. While live experiences may arguably be more authentic, they are less scaffolded for the learner. So, one important question related to pedagogy might be how to scaffold the process of listening to a live experience or interactive critical discussion for L2 listeners with a focus on: *teaching learners how to listen to the next part of a discussion when thinking about the meaning of a previous utterance, how to segment rapid speech, how to remember what was heard, how to form a mental image from words heard,* and *ways to figure out main ideas of the message*.

In short, a focused approach to L2 listening pedagogy is needed that includes a wide range of flexible materials that promote instructors' (and learners') abilities to re-

conceptualize the purpose of the listening lesson and examine *how to* teach and assess the complex skill of L2 listening as a process rather than a product (Mendelsohn, 2006; Vandergrift, 2010). I propose instructors focus more on the choices they make for developing during-listening instructional approaches as well as fine-tuning their understanding or access to L2 listening strategy research.

Implications for Future Research

Listening is largely unobservable. Thus, conducting research into listening is complex, given the inaccessibility of what goes on while listening and the variety of influences on the success or failure of attempts to understand spoken speech (Lynch, 2009). Flowerdew and Miller (2005) have argued that the cognitive nature of listening makes it opaque to direct observation and therefore difficult to study and describe: "the fact that listening comprehension occurs largely unobserved means that it can be very difficult to establish the 'process' by which listeners reach their interpretations, even if we have evidence for the 'product' (i.e., what they understood)" (Lynch & Mendelsohn, 2002, p. 202). As discussed throughout this dissertation, of the four foundational language skills, listening remains the least understood and most difficult to investigate (Vandergrift, 2010). However, being an essential component of communicative competence, it is necessary that we strive to pursue understanding of what is involved in listening if we are to develop a principled, systematic approach to L2 listening pedagogy.

Specifically, more work is needed to understand the various dimensions of a listening experience. This might include studies that explore the intersectionality of adaptation, directionality, and source type with varied forms of scaffolding. New research

should focus on the during-listening experience, which appears to be essential to the listening process but was underutilized by the teachers in this study.

Relatedly, additional research is needed to understand how to support teachers to engage students in during-listening experiences through scaffolding. Future research might focus on L2 listening strategies in the classroom. As noted earlier, while the literature base in strategy instruction has grown very little in the last five years, studies that focused on the differences between more-skilled and less-skilled listeners have helped with assessing L2 listening comprehension in unidirectional listening contexts (Goh, 2005). What this implies is that the literature on L2 listening pedagogy has not developed as far as it might. Instead, the understandings of more/less skilled listeners have been a focus. The question regarding how to teach listening strategies in multidirectional listening experiences, and in actual classrooms, whether adapted or unadapted, remains an open and important question.

Overall, researchers have continued to claim a positive effect of explicit strategy use on improving learners' listening proficiency across a range of settings (e.g., Chen, 2003, 2009; Goh, 1998; Graham, 2017; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Vandergrift, 2003; Yeldham & Gruba, 2016). However, these studies have concentrated on examining the outcome of the strategy instruction. That is, they focus on the product from an assessment of listening comprehension, which is based on pre- and post-test designs with students serving as focal subjects. The design of these studies does not allow for consideration of the process of strategy instruction. Therefore, future studies might focus on the development of learners' strategy use *during* the process of strategy instruction.

Finally, in response to the global pandemic, COVID-19, that occurred during the third phase of data collection for this study, learning worldwide has moved online. Yet we know relatively little about online strategy use related to L2 listening and how scaffolding of L2 listening might be accomplished in online environments. One question to consider is the ways in which scaffolding L2 listening online might differ from in person learning, for example, in how a particular strategy is matched to a particular problem of understanding, how two or more strategies become combined, or which strategies produce the most reliable results. Therefore, future research might explore various strategies, drawing on the work of a number of L2 listening specialists, in a collaborative effort to support online learning or Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) for enhancing the effectiveness of L2 listening comprehension (Azar & Nasiri, 2014).

In conclusion, this dissertation contributes to the field's understanding of L2 listening pedagogical opportunities and challenges as explored in one focal program from multiple perspectives. It shines a light on challenges and opportunities at both program and classroom levels regarding the complexities involved in L2 listening pedagogy. The study sits within a larger trajectory of inquiry into L2 listening. Through this larger inquiry, I seek to specify the principles and practices of a systematic approach to L2 listening pedagogy and teacher development in university-based intensive English programs.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A: OVERVIEW OF INDIVIDUAL STUDIES

Study	Study aim	Method	Sample	Data sources	Major findings
Carrell, P., Dunkel, Pl, & Mollaun, P. (2004). The effects of note taking, lecture length, and topic on a computer-based test of EFL listening comprehension. *Applied Language Learning, 14*, 83-105.	Focused primarily on the effects of three main factors of notetaking (allowed or disallowed), lecture length (shorter or longer), and topic (arts/humanities or physical sciences) in conjunction with general listening comprehension proficiency.	Quantitative	234 postsecondary TOEFL test-taking students with mixed L1	Computer-based and paper-based TOEFL tests	On arts/humanities topics, listeners performed least well when no notetaking was allowed, and about the same on physical science topics whether notetaking was allowed or disallowed; on short lectures, listeners performed better when notetaking was allowed, less well when notetaking was not allowed, and about the same on longer lectures whether notetaking was allowed or not. No statistically significant differences in the pattern of results were found when overall English listening comprehension proficiency was factored into the 2 (notetaking) X 2 (lecture length) x 2 (topic) ANOVA-R model.

Study	Study aim	Method	Sample	Data sources	Major findings
Chang, A., Millett, S., & Renandya, W.A. (2018). Developing listening fluency through supported extensive listening practice. *RELC Journal,* 1-17.	Examine the levels of listening support that might be needed to facilitate L2 learners' listening fluency development.	Quantitative	69 EFL postsecondary students of same L1 background in Taiwan	1 pre-test and 3 post-test test questions (gap-fill, yes/no, and multiple-choice) based on graded readers and their accompanying audio texts	Results show that in comprehending the practiced texts, the listening only and reading while listening groups could comprehend the more complicated texts at faster speech rates and also maintained higher levels of comprehension. When listening to the unpracticed texts, the reading while listening group could do as well as they did on the practiced texts, but the listening only group could process the more difficult texts at faster speech rates without decreasing their comprehension levels. As predicted, the reading only group performed poorly on the tests.
Chang, A. & Millett, S. (2014). The effect of extensive listening on developing L2 listening fluency: some hard	To see if the reading while listening (RL) group would have a higher level of performance than the reading only (RO) and	Quantitative	113 postsecondary low-intermediate EFL university students of	1 pre-test and 3 post-test test questions (gap-fill, yes/no, true/false, and multiple-	The post-test results demonstrate that the reading plus listening group produced the most consistent and significant outcome compared with

Study	Study aim	Method	Sample	Data sources	Major findings
evidence. *ELT Journal*, 68(1), 31-40.	listening only (LO) groups.		same L1 in Mandarin	choice) based on graded readers and their accompanying audio texts	the reading-only and listening-only groups.
Chang, A. & Read, J. (2007). Support for foreign language listeners: Its effectiveness and limitations, *Regional Language Centre Journal, 38*(3), 375-395.	Investigate the effectiveness of providing different types of listening support for learners in a foreign language environment with a low level of English proficiency.	Mixed-methods	140 postsecondary Taiwanese students (L1 Mandarin) enrolled in a required English listening course	Listening comprehension test and post-test questionnaire	Repeating the input was the most effective treatment, followed by having visual and textual support. However, the limits of the learners' English competence meant that all of the types of support could improve their comprehension to a certain degree.
Chen, A. (2013). EFL listeners' strategy development and listening problems: A process-based study. *The Journal of Asia TEFL, 10*(3), 81-101.	Examine students' perceived listening problems over time as they develop their listening strategies in the context of a Taiwanese technical college. Strategies were both cognitive and metacognitive.	Mixed-methods	31 EFL, L1 Mandarin, postsecondary students enrolled in an English Listening Practice course at a technological college in Taiwan	Questionnaires and reflective journals	Three major significant differences in students' perceived listening problems after the strategy instruction: a) unfamiliar vocabulary, b) rapid speech rate, c) linking sounds between words. While students reported less listening problems at a superficial level, they encountered

Study	Study aim	Method	Sample	Data sources	Major findings
					more listening problems at a deeper processing level as they attempted to heighten their strategy use. Participants became better able to deal with their listening challenges (especially more on lower-level listening problems than on high-level ones) as they attempted to develop their strategy use (e.g., modeling and discussions in class and self-reflections outside class). Participants raised higher level processing difficulties as they developed positive changes in their strategy use. Listening difficulties seemed multifaceted, but participants managed and harmonized their strategy use.
Chen, A. H. (2009). Listening strategy instruction: Exploring Taiwanese college	Implement strategy instruction in the regular EFL listening curriculum in the context of a	Mixed-methods	31 EFL, L1 Mandarin, postsecondary students	Reflective journals	Results showed that students reported greater awareness and control of their listening strategies.

Study	Study aim	Method	Sample	Data sources	Major findings
students' strategy development. *Asian EFL Journal, 11*, 54-85.	Taiwanese technical college		enrolled in an English Listening Practice course at a technological college in Taiwan		
Cross, J. (2010). Raising L2 listeners' metacognitive awareness: A socio-cultural theory perspective. *Language Awareness* **,** *19*(4), 281–297.	See if metacognitive instruction benefits less-skilled listeners' comprehension in researcher's teaching context in central Japan.	Quantitative	20 postsecondary EFL L1 Japanese studying at a language school in central Japan	Pre- and post-listening tests	Three of four less-skilled listeners made notable gains across the five lessons, whereas only one of four more-skilled listeners improved. These findings add support to the view that metacognitive instruction utilizing a pedagogical cycle may help less-skilled listeners to develop their listening ability, though there seems to be a threshold for higher skill levels beyond which effects are minimal.
Field, J. (2004). An insight into listeners' problems: Too much	Establish more precisely the relationship between the raw evidence extracted	Quantitative	47 postsecondary lower	20-item listening	When a salient word is unfamiliar, learners do not consistently adopt a

Study	Study aim	Method	Sample	Data sources	Major findings
bottom-up or too much top-down? *System, 32*, 363-377.	from the speech signal by an L2 listener and external information drawn from (a) the listener's world knowledge and (b) the listener's recall of what has been said in the conversation so far.		intermediate and high elementary mixed L1 students at a private British EFL school	comprehension test	technique of visualizing the orthographic form of the word and inferring its meaning from context. Instead, they frequently choose to match what they hear with a known word which is approximately similar. The match a) may be regardless of context and word-class; or b) may draw upon top-down expectations.
Goh, C. (1998). How ESL learners with different listening abilities use comprehension strategies and tactics. *Language Teaching and Research, 2*(2), 124-147.	Examine whether there are subtle differences between two learners who both report using inferencing as a strategy	Mixed-methods	16 postsecondary ESL L1 Mandarin learners in a 6-month intensive language and academic skills program at National Institute of Education of Nanyang Technological University, Singapore.	Listening placement test with 75 varied questions; retrospective verbal reports and matching transcripts; students' listening journals	Inferencing, elaboration, and predicting made the transition without explicit instruction: weaker listeners less able to manage listening processes, especially when they encountered problems. Poor monitoring is one reason why strategies aren't used effectively.

Study	Study aim	Method	Sample	Data sources	Major findings
Goh, C. (2000). A cognitive perspective on language learners' listening comprehension problems. *System, 28*, 55-75.	Examine processing strategies used by students and their listening difficulties	Qualitative	40 postsecondary L1 Chinese students studying ESL in preparation for undergraduate studies	40 weekly diaries; 17/40 semi-structured interviews; 23/40 retrospective verbalizations	Problems related to three different phases of listening comprehension: 1) Perception (do not recognize words they know, neglect the next part when thinking about meaning, cannot chunk streams of speech, miss the beginning of texts, concentrate too hard or unable to concentrate); 2) Parsing (quickly forget what is heard, unable to form a mental representation from words heard, do not understand subsequent parts of input because of earlier problems); 3) Utilization (understand words but not the message, confused about the key ideas in the message).
Jensen, E. D., & Vinther, T. (2003). Exact repetition as input enhancement in second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 53*, 373-428.	To explore three parameters for input *Note: What were they?	Quantitative	65 postsecondary L1 Danish students learning Spanish at the	Pre- and post-listening tests	Comparisons of pretest and posttest scores showed significant effects for all three parameters. No difference with regard to

Study	Study aim	Method	Sample	Data sources	Major findings
			upper-intermediate level		effect could be established between treatment conditions.
Kiany, G. R. & Shiramiry, E. (2002). The effect of frequent dictation on the listening comprehension ability of elementary EFL learners. *TESL Canada Journal, 20*, 57-63.	The effect of frequent dictation on the listening comprehension ability of elementary EFL learners	Quantitative	60 postsecondary Iranian less-skilled EFL learners; ages 20-35.	Textbook listening exercises, dictations (experimental), and 40-item listening posttest	Dictation had a significant effect on the listening comprehension ability of the participants in the experimental group. The mean gain scores of the experimental group were significantly higher than those of the control group.
Matthews, J. & Cheng, J. (2015). Recognition of high frequency words from speech as a predictor of L2 listening comprehension. *System, 52*, 1-13.	Despite the centrality of listening comprehension in L2 learning and the huge range of listening materials available, of the four main language areas, listening comprehension remains arguably the least well understood and researched.	Quantitative	167 Postsecondary L1 Chinese students at a university (7 different classes with a range of 24 different majors)	Partial dictation with high frequency words and listening section of the IELTS	The ability to recognize high frequency words from speech is predictive of the aural modality specific word knowledge indicative of successful L2 listening comprehension.
Siegel, J. (2016). A pedagogic cycle for EFL note-taking. *ELT Journal, 70*, 3, 275-286.	Despite the popularity of EFL note-taking, few descriptions of corresponding instructional practices exist in the literature, and	Mixed Methods	87 Postsecondary L1 Japanese university EFL students	Participants' notes	Statistically significant difference between the number of IUs recorded on the pre- and post-instruction notes (t= -8.01). A majority of

Study	Study aim	Method	Sample	Data sources	Major findings
	guidance from teacher manuals or teacher training programs is in short supply.				students adopted the outline format on the post-task. Whereas only 8 per cent of learners used an outline format on their pre-instruction notes, that number increased to 69 per cent on the post-task.
Vandergrift, L., & Tafaghodtari, M. (2010). Teaching L2 learners how to listen does make a difference: An empirical study. *Language Learning: A Journal of Research in Language Studies, 60*(2), 470-497.	To investigate the effects of a metacognitive, process-based approach to teaching second language (L2) listening over a semester.	Quantitative	106 postsecondary university-level students of French as a second language (FSL) drawn from 6 intact classes (two high-beginner and four low-intermediate classes).	Listening texts; stimulated recall; questionnaire	Experimental group significantly outperformed the control group on the final comprehension measure; the less skilled listeners in the experimental group made greater gains than their more skilled peers; Transcript data from stimulated-recall sessions provide further evidence of a growing learners awareness of the metacognitive processes underlying successful L2 listening, as MALQ student responses changed over the duration of the study.

Study	Study aim	Method	Sample	Data sources	Major findings
Vandergrift, L. (2003). From prediction through reflection: Guiding students through the process of L2 listening. *The Canadian Modern Language Review, 59*(3), 425-440.	To experiment with tasks that could teach students how to listen and then to determine the effectiveness of these tasks (a) in facilitating listening comprehension and, (b) in raising students' awareness of the process of L2 listening.	Qualitative	41 postsecondary university students in a beginner-level French as a Second Language. *Look at L1 backgrounds.	Student journals	Responses highlighted the benefit of predictions, the usefulness of discussion with a partner, and the motivational effect of focusing attention on the process as well as the product of listening.
Wang, Y. & Treffers-Daller, J. (2017). Explaining listening comprehension among L2 learners of English: The contribution of general language proficiency, vocabulary knowledge and metacognitive awareness, *System, 65*, 139-150.	To explore what proportion of the variance in L2 learners' listening comprehension is explained by general L2 language proficiency, L2 vocabulary knowledge, and metacognition.	Quantitative	151 postsecondary L1 Chinese university students	Placement test; questionnaire;	Vocabulary size is the strongest predictor of L2 listening proficiency, followed by general language proficiency, while metacognitive awareness is less important.
Yeldham, M. & Gruba, P. (2016). The development of individual learners in an L2 listening strategies course. *Language Teaching Research, 20*(1), 9-34.	To examine the idiosyncratic development of L2 learners in a listening strategies course.	Mixed Methods	4 postsecondary L1 Taiwanese lower-intermediate level listeners.	Tests and qualitative instruments were used to collect data, including formal data collection, researcher	Results showed how all learners developed a greater balance in their use of top-down and bottom-up strategies, chiefly by selectively integrating suitable strategies from the course into their listening

Study	Study aim	Method	Sample	Data sources	Major findings
				observation, informal interviews, which were sometimes conducted after class.	repertoires. They also developed in a number of person-related and task-related areas, including their confidence, motivation and feeling of control over the listening process.

APPENDIX B: STUDIES CATEGORIZED BY LANGUAGE BACKGROUNDS AND SKILL LEVEL

Postsecondary (adult) studies with same L1 background:

- Chang, Millett, and Renandya (2018): Postsecondary EFL students (N=69) in undisclosed location
- Chang and Millett (2014): Postsecondary EFL university students (N=113) in undisclosed location
- Chang and Read (2007): Postsecondary college students (N=24) in Taiwan
- Chen (2013): Postsecondary college students (N=31) in Taiwan
- Chen (2009): Postsecondary college students (N=31) in Taiwan
- Cross (2011): Postsecondary EFL students in an *advanced English class in Japan (N=20) *Note: Although they were placed in advanced English class, Cross considered them less-skilled L2 listeners.
- Goh (1998): Postsecondary ESL learners (N=16) in Singapore all L1 Chinese
- Goh (2000): Postsecondary Chinese-speaking ESL students (N=40)
- Jensen and Vinther (2003): Postsecondary Danish university students studying Spanish (N=65)
- Kiany and Shiramiry (2002): Postsecondary EFL Iranian EFL learners (N=60)
- Matthews and Cheng (2015): Postsecondary EFL L1 Chinese university learners (N=167)
- Siegel (2016): Postsecondary EFL Japanese university students (N=87) in Japan

- Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010): Postsecondary university-level students of French as a second language (N=106) in Canada.
- Wang and Treffers-Daller (2017): Postsecondary L1 Chinese students (N=172) at a university in Northwest China
- Yeldham and Gruba (2016): Postsecondary L1 Chinese in Taiwan (N=4) at the lower-intermediate levels

Synthesized by level

Less-skilled L2 listeners.

- Chang, Millett, and Renandya (2018): Postsecondary EFL students (N=69) using levels 1-3 graded readers
- Chang and Millett (2014): Postsecondary low-intermediate EFL university students (N=113) in Taiwan
- Chang and Read (2007): Postsecondary low-level EFL college students (N=24) in Taiwan
- Chen (2013): Postsecondary college students (N=31) in Taiwan ranging from high-beginner to low-intermediate English learner
- Chen (2009): Postsecondary college students (N=31) in Taiwan ranging from high-beginner to low-intermediate English learner
- Goh (2000): Postsecondary Chinese-speaking ESL students (N=40); stated limitations were due to low-proficiency
- Kiany and Shiramiry (2002): Postsecondary EFL Iranian EFL learners (N=60)

- Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010): Postsecondary university-level students of French as a second language (N=106) in Canada.
- Yeldham and Gruba (2016): Postsecondary L1 Chinese in Taiwan (N=4) at the lower-intermediate levels.

More-skilled L2 listeners:

- Jensen and Vinther (2003): Postsecondary Danish university students studying Spanish (N=65) at the upper-intermediate level.

Mixed-skill level:

- Cross (2011): Postsecondary EFL students in an *advanced English class in Japan (N=20) *Note: Although they were placed in advanced English class, Cross considered them less-skilled L2 listeners; however, 4 were less-skilled and 4 were more-skilled based on assessments.
- Goh (1998): Postsecondary ESL learners (N=16) in Singapore all L1 Chinese (n=8 less-skilled, n=8 more-skilled L2 listeners)
- Matthews and Cheng (2015): Postsecondary EFL L1 Chinese university learners (N=167) in 7 different classes
- Siegel (2016): Postsecondary intermediate-level EFL Japanese university students (N=87) in Japan
- Wang and Treffers-Daller (2017): Postsecondary L1 Chinese students (N=172) at a university in Northwest China; language proficiency measurement was one of the goals of the study (see statistical description for more details between the less-skilled and more-skilled learners).

Postsecondary (adult) studies with mixed L1 backgrounds:

- Field (2004): Postsecondary EFL international students (N=47)
- Carrell, P., Dunkel, Pl, & Mollaun, P. (2004): Postsecondary EFL/ESL TOEFL takers (N=234)
- Vandergrift (2003): Postsecondary university students learning French (N=41); various language level abilities.

Synthesized by level

Less-skilled L2 listeners:

- Field (2004): Postsecondary EFL international students (N=47) at the higher elementary and lower intermediate levels.

APPENDIX C: RECRUITMENT SCRIPT

Example Recruitment Script for Study

OPPORTUNITY TO PARTICIPATE IN A SEMESTER STUDY ON LISTENING PEDAGOGY AND FORMATIVE LISTENING ASSESSMENTS

Hello, my name is Jennifer A. Lacroix. I am a doctoral candidate at Boston University (BU) Wheelock College of Education and Human Development working under the advisement of Drs. Beth Warren and Catherine O'Connor. I am conducting research on listening instruction practices and formative assessment at University's Intensive English Program (IEP), and I am inviting you to participate because you teach at USEP (pseudonym inserted).

Participation in this research includes an individual interview about your experience and approach to listening pedagogy and formative assessment. The interview will take approximately 45-60 minutes. It may also include observing eight of your listening/speaking classes (of at least three hours each, during Weeks 2-5 of a typical six-week cycle). If you participate, your total individual outside of class time commitment will be roughly one hour. All of the participant requirements [e.g., one semi-structured interview and (potentially) eight classroom observations] will be distributed during a six-week session at USEP during the Spring 2020 semester, depending on your availability.

In order to participate in the study, you must meet these qualifications:

- Be teaching a listening/speaking course at USEP program during Spring 2020
- Hold a minimum of a MA in TESOL (or an equivalent degree in Applied Linguistics or Language Education)
- Have 5+ years teaching experience
- Be willing to have your interview digitally recorded

Benefits of participating in the study:

- You will be contributing to the development of the field of TESOL teacher education

If you have any questions or would like to participate in the research, I can be reached at *617-549-XXXX* or *lacroixj@bu.edu.*

APPENDIX D: CONSENT FORM

A SEMESTER STUDY ON LISTENING PEDAGOGY AND FORMATIVE LISTENING ASSESSMENT AT USEP

Jennifer A. Lacroix, Doctoral Candidate

FACULTY CONSENT FORM

Study Summary

The purpose of this research study is to explore administrative and instructor perspectives on second language acquisition skills (e.g., listening) and language assessments. It will also document current teaching practices related to listening and formative assessment in selected classrooms.

Subjects who take part in this research study will be in this research study for no more than one hour outside of class time. During this time, subjects will make one study visit to USEP (pseudonym added and location omitted). If invited, two of the above subjects will also participate in twenty-four hours of classroom observations at the same site.

Subjects taking part in this study will participate in a semi-structured interview. If invited two subjects will also participate in four three-hour classroom observations each.

The risks of taking part in this research study are low. However, some participants may find some questions difficult, uncomfortable, or upsetting to answer. In addition, there is the possibility of a breach of confidentiality. The researcher will make it clear that this study is not evaluative for faculty and that only de-identified data will be used in analysis, publications, presentations, and communications with program directors. If you are interested in learning more about this study, please read the rest of this form.

Introduction

Please read this form carefully. The purpose of this form is to provide you with important information about taking part in a research study. If any of the statements or words in this form are unclear, please let me know. I would be happy to answer any questions.

If you have any questions about the research or any portion of this form, please ask me. Taking part in this research study is up to you. If you decide to take part in this research study, I will ask you to sign this consent form. I will then give you a copy of the signed form for your records.

The person in charge of this study is Jennifer A. Lacroix. She can be reached at 617-549-xxxx or lacroixj@bu.edu. Jennifer is a doctoral candidate. Her faculty advisor is Dr. Beth Warren, who can be reached with any questions at 617-353-xxxx or bwarren@bu.edu. Jennifer will be referred to as the "researcher" throughout this form.

Why is this study being done?

The purpose of this study is to learn about a) English language instructors' experiences and approaches to listening skills instruction and formative assessment under the new USEP program and b) administrators' rationale and expectations regarding the shift to individual skills instruction and formative assessment in an academically-oriented Intensive English Program (IEP).

You are being asked to participate in this research because you have been identified as an English instructor at USEP and is participating in the study. Roughly two key stakeholders, directors of the USEP program, and 4-14 faculty participants will take part in this study.

How long will I take part in this research study?

You will be involved in this research study for either one day (doing a 45-60 minute interview) or nine days (doing one 60-minute interview followed by eight classroom observations if you are invited for observation). If you decide to participate, you will participate in an individual interview with the researcher, and you will be asked to allow the researcher to digitally record your interview. In the interview, you will be asked to talk about your experiences and approaches to teaching listening skills as well as your approaches and uses of formative assessment in listening instruction. Each interview will take approximately 45-60 minutes and will include open-ended questions about your experience and instructional approach to listening as an English language instructor. For most participants, their participation in the study will end at this stage.

However, following the completion of the interviews, the researcher may invite you to participate in classroom observations. If invited, you will be asked to allow the researcher to observe eight of your classes for roughly three hours/day throughout one of the two six-week cycles during the Spring 2020 semester. The classroom observations will be conducted in person by the researcher in your assigned classroom at USEP. The researcher will be observing and documenting what instructors are doing to develop listening skills and how they are using formative assessments in their instruction.

What will happen if I take part in this research study?

If you agree to take part in this study, I will ask you to sign the consent form before we conduct the interviews and, if invited, the classroom observation.

- **Interview:**
  Before classes begin in the Spring 2020 six-week cycle, the researcher will schedule an individual interview with you to learn more about your experiences and approaches to teaching a skills-based class and developing and using formative assessments. You will be asked roughly 8-10 questions. The interview should take no longer than 45-60 minutes and will be conducted in person in a room designated by USEP.

- **(IF INVITED) Classroom Observations:**
  If invited, classroom observations will be conducted at your IEP program site. Each observation will run about three hours or the length of a full class, and will take place at eight different times throughout the six-week cycle (Weeks 2-5) during one of the two six-week cycles of the Spring 2020 semester. During classroom observations, I will ask that you conduct your "typical" language class. My focus will be on you and your practice related to listening skills instruction and formative assessment, not on your students. You will be asked to give the researcher a copy of your lesson plan and any planned formative assessments before the observation.

Audio-recording

The researcher will audio-record your interview(s) for an accurate record of the conversation. The researcher will also audio-record your classroom sessions (if you participate in this phase) for an accurate record against which to check observations and field notes. These recordings will be stored in password protected folders accessible only by the researcher on the secure Boston University server and only the researcher will be able to listen to these recordings. The researcher will label these recordings with a code instead of your name. The key to the code connects your name to your audio-recording. The researcher will keep the key to the code in a password-protected computer file. Once the type-written transcripts of the audio-recordings have been made and reviewed for accuracy, the audio-recordings will be destroyed.

Storing Study Information for Future Use

The researcher will also store your study information for future research related to English language teaching. The researcher will label all your study information with a code instead of your name. The key to the code connects your name to your study information. The researcher will keep the code in a password-protected computer file.

How Will You Keep My Study Records Confidential?

The researcher will keep the records of this study confidential by storing the interview audio-recordings and transcripts on a secure server accessible only to members of the

research team. Names and any other identifying information will be removed from the typewritten transcripts of the interviews. Your identity will not be revealed in any reports, presentations, or publications. Reports will present general themes; names and any other identifying information will be changed for any quotations. Although your program staff may know about your participation in the research, your responses will not be shared with the administration or anyone else.

Study Participation and Early Withdrawal

Taking part in this study is your choice. You are free not to take part or to withdraw at any time for any reason. No matter what you decide, there will be no penalty or loss of benefit to which you are entitled. If you decide to withdraw from this study, the information that you have already provided will be kept confidential.

Future Contact

The researcher may want to contact you in the future to follow-up to this study.

Loss of Confidentiality

The main risk of allowing the use and storage of your information for research is a potential loss of privacy. We will protect your privacy by labeling your information with a code and keeping the key to the code in a password-protected computer.

Are there any benefits from being in this research study?

There are not any benefits from being in this study. However, some people like the opportunity to share information and feedback about their teaching experiences. The study may contribute to knowledge about language education and to the improvement of teacher training programs in L2 listening and the design of formative assessments in L2 instruction.

Will I get paid for taking part in this research study?

For the interviews: No.

For the classroom observations (if invited): To thank you for your participation in the observational phase of the study, you will receive a $50 gift card on the last day of classroom observation.

What will it cost me to take part in this research study?

There are no costs to you for taking part in this research study.

If I have any questions or concerns about this research study, who can I talk to?

You can call us with any concerns or questions. The lead researcher, **Jennifer Lacroix**, can be reached at **617-549-xxxx** or lacroixj@bu.edu and her doctoral advisor, Dr. Beth Warren, can be reached at bwarren@bu.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a research subject or want to speak with someone independent of the research team, you may contact the **Boston University IRB directly at 617-358-6115**.

Statement of Consent

		Yes	No	Initials
Interviews	Do you agree to be interviewed during this study?			
Classroom observations (if invited)	Do you agree to have your listening/speaking classes observed for a six-week cycle during this study?			
Audio-Recording	Do you agree to let us audio-record your interview(s) during this study?	☐	☐	
Data Storage	Do you agree to let us store your study information for future research related to English language teaching?	☐	☐	
Future Contact	Do you agree to let us contact you in the future, either to follow-up to this study or to see if you are interested in other studies taking place at Boston University?	☐	☐	

I have read the information in this consent form including risks and possible benefits. I have been given the chance to ask questions. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I agree to participate in the study.

SIGNATURE

_____
Name of Subject

_____

Signature of Subject _____ Date

I have explained the research to the subject and answered all his/her questions. I will give a copy of the signed consent form to the subject.

_____
Name of Person Obtaining Consent

_____

Signature of Person Obtaining Consent _____ Date

APPENDIX E: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Interview Questions for Administrators:

1. Hello! My name is Jennifer Lacroix. I would like to ask you a few questions about the USEP program. Is that okay with you?

I'd first like to ask some questions about the shift from integrated to individual skills instruction:

2. How would you describe USEP's approach to L2 skills instruction before the recent shift in focus?
3. How would you describe the shift in focus from integrated-skills in one core class to more isolated skills in separate classes?
4. What challenges or problems are you hoping to address through this shift?
5. What kinds of effects or outcomes do you hope for?

6. Could you please tell me a little about the current USEP focus on more isolated skills for reading and writing, but the treatment of speaking/listening as one unit?

Now I'd like to ask about the new emphasis on formative assessment:

7. How did USEP instructors assess USEP students in the past?
8. What challenges or problems or needs are you hoping to address through the design and use of formative assessment?
9. What do you see as the challenges and opportunities of formative assessment in your context?
10. What kinds of effects or outcomes do you hope for?

Now I'd like to ask about the connection you see between the shift to individual skills instruction and formative assessment.

11. Do you see a connection between the skills-shift focus and the new formative assessment requirement? What connections do you see?

12. How do you envision these two changes (skills and assessments) will improve students' learning in the program?

13. What are some of the key challenges with these changes?

14. Have you found that faculty are struggling with one skill more than another when it comes to designing, developing, and using formative assessments?

One last question:

15. Is there anything else that you think I should know regarding the culture, challenges, or goals of USEP that might inform the field of SLA and/or L2 listening pedagogy?

Interview Questions for Listening Instructors:

5. Hello! My name is Jennifer Lacroix. I would like to ask you a few questions about how you teach and assess listening. Is that okay with you?

I'd first like to ask some questions about your listening instructional practice:

6. How would you describe your experience teaching listening?
7. Could you please tell me about your **past experience** teaching listening in an *integrated-skills context* (with reading, writing, listening, and speaking combined)?
    a. What worked really well for you?
    b. What did you find challenging?
8. Could you please tell me about your **current practice** teaching listening linked with speaking?
    a. What has changed about your practice?
    b. What do you find is working well for you and is valuable for students?
    c. What are you finding challenging?
9. How has it been since the new change (e.g., ***the shift from integrated to individual skills instruction***) was implemented?

Now I'd like to ask about the design and use of formative assessment:

10. Reflecting on your **past experiences** teaching listening, before the curriculum renewal project, did you use formative assessments?
    a. If yes, how were they connected to instruction?
11. In light of the shift to formative assessments, what opportunities and challenges are you experiencing in your **current practice**?
    a. In general, how difficult has it been for you to design and develop formative listening assessments for your assigned skill level?
    b. What's easy for you? And your students?
    c. What's challenging for you? And your students?
12. On a scale of 1-4, how satisfied are you with your **current listening assessment** practices? (1 = not very satisfied, 4 = very satisfied)
13. If you could improve one thing about your **current listening assessment practices**, what would it be?
    a. If you wouldn't improve anything, explain why.

Now I'd like to ask about the connection you see between the shift to individual skills instruction and formative assessment:

14. Do you see a connection between the skills-shift focus and the new formative assessment requirement? What connections do you see?
15. Do you see a relationship between your teaching practice and formative assessments?
    a. If yes, could you please describe it?
    b. If no, why not?

One last question:

16. What do you expect students to know and do by the end of a typical six-week teaching cycle for listening?
    a. How will they show that they know and can do these things?
    b. What instruction do they need in order to get there?

APPENDIX F: OBSERVATION FORM AND PROTOCOL

Date:
Start Time:
End Time:
USEP Participant ID:
Listening Level:
Number of Students:

- Physical Layout of Classroom Formation (e.g., layout of instructor's/students' desks):

- General Skeleton of the Lesson Plan:

Time	**Task**	**Materials**	**Teacher Instructional Practice**	**Transition to New Task**	**Formative Assessment**	**Use of Formative Assessment**

APPENDIX G: DATA ANALYSIS FOR PROGRAM LEADER INTERVIEWS

However, I augmented Braun and Clark's six-stage thematic analysis and expanded it to include the following for the first set of interview transcripts with program leaders. To scrutinize the data analysis for the program leader interviews I took the follow steps for thematic analysis: (1) Read transcripts of interviews with directors; (2) Highlighted transcript excerpts/utterances that I thought responded to research questions; (3) Developed an initial code book with codes/sub codes/definitions/examples; (4) Revised code book multiple times; (5) Reread transcripts multiple times; (6) Developed themes, codes, sub codes, refined definitions, developed "balanced" view of quotes from transcripts; (7) Reached 38 codes/assigned numeric coding system; (8) Did another comprehensive coding of the two interviews; (9) Figured out how to use the coding to answer my research questions; (10) Decided on a unit (e.g., a whole utterance) and coded each utterance with the most salient code for that utterance and marked within that utterance other codes as needed. An utterance was defined here as a complete thought on the part of the speaker; (11) Coded each transcript line-by-line according to 1 of 38 codes and noted the corresponding research question that I thought it answered. In cases where utterances could be coded more than once, I did that but tried to tease apart the thought boundary within each utterance as it pertained to individual code selections; (12) Had a second reader look at a coded transcript and explained how I might develop it into a descriptive account for one of my research questions; (13) Created a pie chart to represent three different research questions. Did a frequency count for each code embedded within each of the three themes that had emerged. If one code could answer more than one

research questions, then it was counted more than once; (14) Created pie charts to represent the number of times each code was used to answer each of the three research questions.; (15) Divided results into research question and corresponding top themes/codes.; (16) Recounted each thematic code again both across and within each research question; (17) Looked at most salient themes across all three research questions and broke down the six themes in order of prevalence. Then, answered each research question within each theme; (18) After looking at each of the six themes that emerged across research questions and within research questions, and highlighting the descriptive data in order of salience, I then reread the transcripts again for a narrative gloss; (19) As I reread each research question and corresponding sections of the transcripts, I looked to see if there was a contextual story that had been removed from the thematic data analysis as described above. As I read each interview again, I tried to summarize each participant's story within a narrative synthesis; (20) As I read the findings, I was satisfied with the answers to research question 1 and research question 3, but unsatisfied with the answer to research question 2. So, I reread the transcripts again, added three new codes, and then did another comprehensive coding of the two director interviews; (21) I then edited, revised, and re-tallied the codes and rewrote the findings; (22) I then revised the findings to reflect these changes. In instances where a supporting quotation from the code book had been used to answer more than one thematic finding, I revisited the comprehensive codes in the original transcripts and added additional/new quotations to help illustrate the findings; (23) I summarized the six thematic findings and wrote the report.

APPENDIX H: DATA ANALYSIS FOR OBSERVATIONS

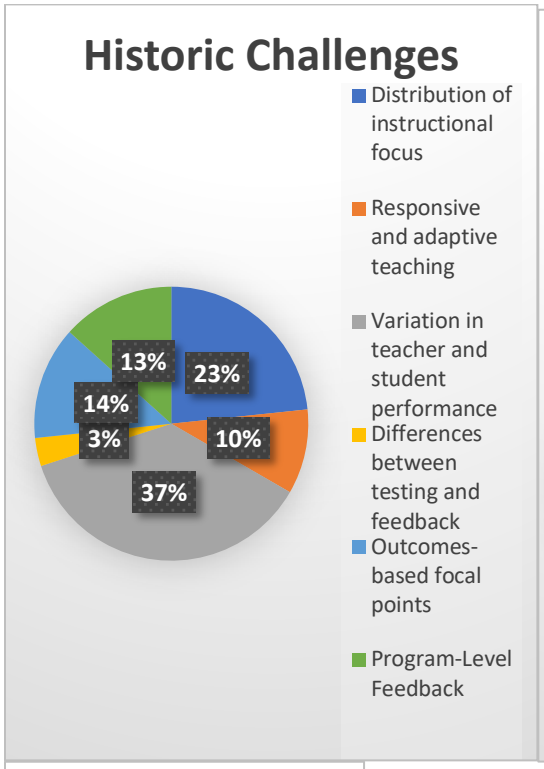
For data analysis of the classroom observations, I took the following steps: (1) Cleaned the messy data because the original observation protocol form included various column headings such as: Time, Task, Materials, Teacher instructional practice, Transition to new task, Formative assessment, Use of formative assessment, Reflective notes →moved these to field notes; (2) The next version that I settled on included the following seven columns and made all observations uniform by highlighting each column in yellow as I revised it (if necessary): Time, Task, Materials, Teacher instructional practice, Transition to new task, Classroom practice/activity, Formative assessment type or use; (3) I then posted the two-prong research question at the top of each observation form to focus my attention to the reading of observational data and began reading to get a sense of what listening instruction and formative assessment look like in the context of these two educational spaces; (4) I focused first on the traditional face-to-face instructional data set.; (5) I then read through the notes I had taken during the remote observations and added any sub codes that I had overlooked and or that were more unique; (6) I initially had a mix of various codes and sub codes and found it hard to distinguish again what was "listening pedagogy" as it was often paired with another skill and/or task. So, I returned to the results of the literature where I had systematically looked at L2 listening research to determine what classroom strategies are or might look like. I used the various phenomenon addressed in each study and reconceptualized my code book; (7) I then organized the code book by pre-listening, during listening, and post-listening tasks. With these three over-arching themes in place, I then developed 40 sub-codes based on each of

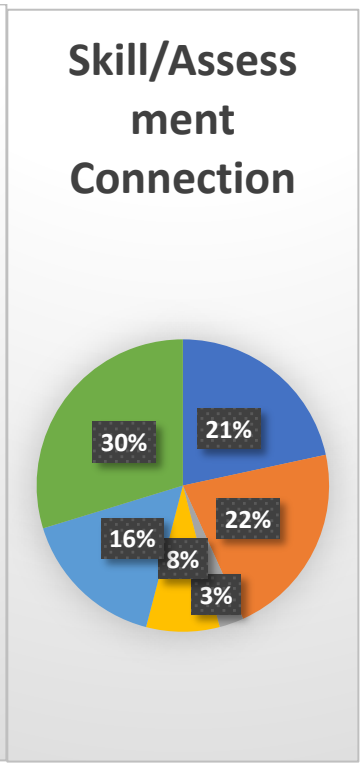
those three categories and describe teachers' moves from the observation data. I updated the code book with relevant sub codes, definitions, and example quotes/notes from the observation notes; (8) I then looked for an overall storyline: What are the listening experiences teachers are creating? I created a table of the listening experiences by type (e.g., TED Talk) and mode (e.g., unidirectional, linked narrative lecture); (9) I then created a separate table that categorized how many of the listening experiences were TED Talks, Live Performance (i.e., student discussions), or textbook audio; (10) I returned to the code book to look at what analytic frames could be used to describe the instructional purpose of each pre-, during-, and post-listening experience. I developed eight and revised the code book to reflect these additional categories accurately; (11) I then asked with reference to the data: What is a listening experience? I defined it by how authentic materials are, and whether or not instructors adapted those materials or chose to use materials that had already been adapted (e.g., textbook source). I included mode (unidirectional, bidirectional, multi-party), and type (e.g., NPR, TED talk); (12) I then used the before-, during-, and post-listening instruction that I had observed and detailed in the code book to detail where there was overlap in the two observed teachers' practices. When necessary, I noted when one showed a unique practice or fewer examples of a particular type of instruction; (13) I also made note of the length of each listening; and how many times the instructor paused the listening (if she/he did); (14) I wrote the analysis.

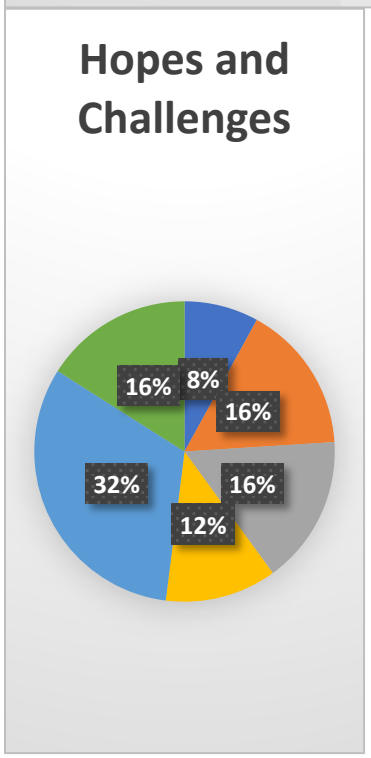
Six themes emerged from analysis of the leadership interviews: (a) Outcomes-based focal points, (b) Program-level feedback, (c) Distribution of instructional focus, (d)

Variation in teacher and student performance, (e) Responsive and adaptive teaching, and (f) Differences between classroom testing and feedback. For an overview of the distribution of each theme as it pertains to each research question, see Appendix I.

APPENDIX I: THEMES FROM LEADERSHIP INTERVIEWS BASED ON RESEARCH QUESTIONS







APPENDIX J: OBSERVED FORMS OF ENGAGEMENT BASED ON ADAPTATION AND DIRECTIONALITY

Direction A = uni; Direction B = Bi; Direction C = Multi

Unadapted Sources x Direction A:

- Unidirectional TED Talk "Curating Humanity's Heritage." [C2]
- Live performance [C3]
- Unidirectional TED Talk "Living Plastic Free" by Beth Terry + peer dictation [C6]
- Live performance [C7] student presentation

→ Unadapted (uni): 5.5 pre-listening moves, 1.5 during moves, and 4.5 post-listening moves

Total student interaction with the listening = 11.5

Unadapted Sources x Direction B:

- Live performance, Standing in the line task [C7]

→ Unadapted (bi): 1 pre-listening move, 1 during move, and 0 post-listening moves
Total student interaction with the listening = 2

Unadapted Sources x Direction C:

- Live performance [J1] small group work to design + whole class discussion
- Live performance [J3]
- Live performance [J4]
- Live performance [J5]
- NPR multiple speakers [J6]

→ Unadapted (multi): 2.4 pre-listening moves, 1.4 during moves, and 1.8 post-listening moves
Total student interaction with the listening = 5.6

Adapted Sources x Direction A:

- Unidirectional textbook audio (Unit 1: Anthropology – "The Concepts of Culture.") [C1]
- Unidirectional textbook audio (Unit 2: History: The Passing of Time and Civilizations – "The Egyptian Pyramids.") [C3]

- Unidirectional textbook audio (Unit 2: History: The Passing of Time and Civilizations – "The First Emperor of China: Building an Empire and a House of Eternity.") [C4]
- Unidirectional textbook audio (Unit 3: Sociology: The Changing World of Work – "The Distributed Workforce; Where and When People Work")[C5]

→ Adapted (uni): 6.75 pre-listening moves, 2.5 during moves, and 4.5 post-listening moves

Total student interaction with the listening = 13.75

Adapted Sources x Direction B:

- Textbook video (Unit 3: Sociology: The Changing World of Work – "An Actor and a Travel Writer") [J2]

→ Adapted (bi): 6 pre-listening moves, 3 during moves, and 6 post-listening moves

Total student interaction with the listening = 15

Adapted Sources x Direction C:

- *N/A*

APPENDIX K: STRUCTURED LISTENING EXPERIENCES: BEFORE-, DURING-, AND AFTER-LISTENING

Listening Experience Object (listed in order of frequency)	**Teacher and Observation # + listening mode (uni-bi/multi-directional)**	**Before Listening Practices**	**During Listening Practices**	**After Listening Practices**
NPR story #1	Judah Observation #6 (J6) (multi-)	Provides procedural direction (e.g., *13) and relaxation techniques as the listening moment approaches (e.g., 12)	Provides listening practice (e.g., 26)	Assesses knowledge (e.g., 33, 35)
TED Talk #1	C2 (uni-)	Activates prior knowledge (e.g., 1, 2, 3, 5), provides procedural direction (e.g., 18), and shares new knowledge (e.g., 8).	Provides listening practice (e.g., 26)	Assesses knowledge (e.g., 28, 34, 35), asks students to make personal connections (e.g., 41, 42, 43), and fills in gaps in understanding (e.g., 40)
TED Talk #2	C6 (uni-)	Provides procedural direction (e.g., 13, 18), shares new knowledge (e.g., 9, 10), and activates prior knowledge (e.g., 2).	Provides listening practice (e.g., 26) and listen for main idea types (e.g., 22).	Assesses knowledge (e.g., 34, 35).

Textbook Audio #1	C1 (uni-)	Activates prior knowledge (e.g., 2, 5, 7), shares new knowledge (e.g., 9, 10), and provides procedural direction (e.g., 13, 14, 16, 18).	Listening to focus on a linguistic feature such as a lexical item (e.g., 21), provides listening practice (e.g., 24, 26).	Fills in gaps in understanding (e.g., 39, 40), assesses knowledge (e.g., 28, 29, 34).
Textbook Audio #2	C3 (uni-)	Activates prior knowledge (e.g., 6), provides procedural direction (e.g., 13, 14, 18).	Provides listening practice (e.g., 24, 26)	Assesses knowledge (e.g., 27, 29, 31, 34).
Textbook Audio #3	C4 (uni-)	Activates prior knowledge (e.g., 1, 2, 5), provides procedural direction (e.g., 13, 14, 19).	Provides listening practice (e.g., 26) and listening to focus on a linguistic feature such as a lexical item (e.g., 20).	Assesses knowledge (e.g., 27, 33).
Textbook Audio #4	C5 (uni-)	Provides procedural direction (e.g., 13, 15, 16, 17, 18), shares new knowledge (e.g., 8, 9), activates prior knowledge (e.g., 2).	Listening for a token or type such as a lexical item (e.g., 21), provides listening practice (e.g., 24, 26).	Assesses knowledge (e.g., 27, 28, 29, 30, 34), fills in gaps in understanding (e.g., 37, 38).
Textbook Audio #5	J2 (bi-)	Reduces stress as the listening moment approaches (e.g., 12), shares new	Provides listening practice (e.g., 23, 26), listening to	Fills in gaps in understanding (e.g., 38), assesses knowledge

		knowledge (e.g., 9), provides procedural direction (e.g., 13, 18), and activates prior knowledge (e.g., 2, 4).	focus on a linguistic feature such as a lexical item (e.g., 22).	(e.g., 29, 32, 33), encourages personal connections (e.g., 41, 42).
Live performance #1	C3 (uni-)	Provides procedural direction (e.g., 13, 14, 18).	Provides listening practice (e.g., 23, 25, 26).	Assesses knowledge (e.g., 27).
Live performance #2	C7 (bi-) + (uni-)	Provides procedural direction (e.g., 13).	Provides listening practice (e.g., 25)	Assesses knowledge (e.g., 36), fills in gaps in understanding (e.g., 39).
Live performance #3	J1 (multi-)	Activates prior knowledge (e.g., 1, 2, 3, 4, shares new knowledge (e.g., 9, 11), provides procedural direction (e.g., 13).	**Provides listening practice (e.g., 25).	Assesses knowledge (e.g., 29).
Live performance #4	J3 (multi-)	Provides procedural direction (e.g., 13).	Provides listening practice (e.g., 24, 25).	Assesses knowledge (e.g., 29, 31), fills in gaps in understanding (e.g., 37, 38).
Live performance #5	J4 (multi-)	Provides procedural direction (e.g., 13).	Provides listening practice (e.g., 25).	Assesses knowledge (e.g., 31).

Live performance #6	J5 (multi-)	Provides procedural direction (e.g., 13).	Provides listening practice (e.g., 24, 25).	Fills in gaps in understanding (e.g., 39).

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