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Methods Study**

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**Examination of L2 listening Policies and Practices of an English Intensive Program:
A Mixed Methods Study**

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Marzieh Hassantafaghodtari

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ABSTRACT

Examination of L2 listening Policies and Practices of an English Intensive Program: A Mixed Methods Study

This study examined L2 listening as a skill and as a component of multiple literacies in an English Intensive Program (EIP) in a Canadian university, with the goal of establishing criteria for evaluating listening policy and practice guidelines based on Cadiero-Kaplan's (2004) Language Policy and Programming Conceptual Framework.

The integrated mixed methods design consisted of two phases. Participants in the first phase included 96 international adult students from six EIP classes: intermediate (n=29), high intermediate (n=35), and advanced (n=32). Participants completed an L2 listening test, a metacognition and a motivation questionnaire. Results were juxtaposed with the listening policy and practice guidelines as stated in the EIP program documents. Participants in the second phase included the program leaders (n = 4; the coordinator and three teachers) and program participants (n=8). Program leaders were interviewed concerning their perceptions of literacy and its relation to the teaching of L2 listening. Program participants were observed and interviewed regarding the sense-making processes experienced in listening/literacy activities. Findings were, once again, juxtaposed with the listening policy and practice guidelines found in the program documents.

Data collected during the first phase were used to generate a multi-dimensional model demonstrating that L2 listening performance was the effect of the interaction between linguistic, cognitive (L2 listening metacognitive strategies) and affective factors (learner motivation orientation). When juxtaposed with the program policy and practice guidelines for listening, this model suggests that listening performance expectations should be revised to simultaneously take account of learning strategies and learner motivation, in addition to the linguistic factors already present in the guidelines.

In the second phase, the listening policies were again examined, this time in light of Masny's Multiple Literacies Theory (2005/06; 2009) in order to understand the policy maker's assumptions regarding L2 listening and literacy development. The findings from the program major stakeholders (i.e., leaders and program participants) provided criteria for judging the

potentials and limitations of the program policy and practice guidelines in the area of L2 listening in capturing learners' sense-making processes. The results suggested that the skills-oriented conception of literacy underlying the current program policies risks focusing on the product of listening at the expense of the critical sense-making processes involved in L2 listening events.

Overall, this study provides an in-depth and contextualized understanding of L2 listening both as a skill and as a component of multiple literacies, and underscores the relevance of stakeholder input for improving policy, curriculum and practice.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

1.1 - Introduction

The benefits of participation in second language (L2) programs are generally understood to include the development of second language skills, including listening. Yet, a narrow focus on skills-development seems to have left the literacy experiences of the participants of L2 programs unexplored. While engaging with and making sense of the oral text is an important component of the educational experiences of those students who negotiate their higher education through the medium of a second language, few scholars in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) have tried, to date, to integrate the notion of literacy in their conceptualization of L2 listening. Instead, most of the definitions of L2 listening ability in the field have largely limited L2 listening to a measurable skill. Although such views, with their focus on cognitive and affective variables, have significantly contributed to our understanding of the factors which influence the product of listening (i.e., comprehension) and the performance dimension of listening ability, they share a number of limitations. First, such definitions have defined L2 listening performance as an end product of instruction (a generic outcome), i.e., an end in itself. Second, these definitions have influenced the development of L2 listening benchmarks and standards, thereby neglecting the creative processes of engagement with the oral text to comprehension. Third, the skills-oriented standards have been used as the basis for the design and development of practice guidelines and objectives regardless of whether the achievement of such standards and objectives may have any impact on the academic, professional and personal lives of the program participants.

Listening as a skill is obviously important and cannot be denied, especially at a time when meeting the L2 requirements for university admission is a real challenge for those who plan to join academic programs outside their home countries. However, solely relying on normative assumptions about the skills required of L2 learners fails to provide an education which adequately prepares learners (as a major stakeholder group) for the literacy demands of future academic programs in universities (Cadiero-Kaplan, 2004). This is especially important, given that in the broader educational context the notion of literacy is increasingly moving from the boundaries of reading and writing while “the book as a major pedagogic focus is being replaced through the plethora of media options that are readily available to us” (Cole, 2006, p. 2). One consequence of such a shift for L2 programs should be revisiting and extending priorities in the area of listening development to include a focus on the literacy processes and experiences of the participants of such programs. This shift also demands a new framework for the monitoring and evaluating of listening policies and practices, which not only focuses on achieving some pre-determined objectives but also takes account of literacy processes and experiences of participants both within and beyond second language programs. However, it appears that establishing criteria for monitoring and evaluation “is often defined by default” (Greene, 2005) by those in decision-making positions. While this approach is perhaps useful in providing accountability information, it characteristically serves the needs and interests of policy and other decision makers (Greene, 2007), and therefore, does not provide an in-depth and contextualized understanding of literacy experiences of program participants in the area of listening ability. This concern, along with the understanding that the field of SLA should stay current with the changes in the broader field of

education (i.e., a shift from understanding language development as a set of measurable skills to language development as learning literacies), provided impetus for this study.

In this chapter, the purpose of the study and the research questions are presented. I will also briefly discuss the theoretical framework used to guide the methods, the design and the analyses of the study, and end with an overview of the remaining chapters.

1.2 - Purpose of the Study

Rapid social, technological and economic changes in our society have profound implications for education. In academic contexts, for example, “lectures, like other genres associated with academic literacy, appear to be undergoing a shift towards a more informal, interactive ethos. Yet, metronome-like, they [lectures] continue to regulate time and space in university life” (Thesen, 2005, p. 152). What are the implications of such a shift for L2 learners inside and outside L2 programs? Within L2 development programs, learners are required to succeed in the final achievement tests measuring their oral proficiency (usually through exams which include listening). Many also need to provide proof of success on the oral proficiency section of large-scale standardized tests (e.g., TOEFL, CanTEST) as part of their conditional admission to regular academic programs. In order to be admitted into academic programs, L2 learners are expected to comfortably engage with academic lectures, as well as other genres of oral text. However, language skills and literacies constantly transform as L2 learners participate in less protected/sheltered contexts. How can L2 development programs ensure that their participants are not only well equipped for performance on high-stakes proficiency tests, but also are prepared for successful participation in a range of contexts inside and outside universities?

One way to address this question is to move beyond a narrow approach to language teaching and learning, which regards L2 skills as universal and applicable in every context, and to embrace a vision that is inclusive of language/literacy processes (e.g., Fransman, 2006; Kress, 2003; Masny 2005/6). Such an approach does not dismiss the cognitive variables involved in perceiving and producing different types of texts (Benesch, 2001; Brandt & Clinton, 2002; Cummins, 2001; Morgan & Ramanathan, 2005; Starfield, 2004), but considers these variables in view of the processes involved in the perception and production of such texts. For example, in a comprehensive review of literacy practices carried out for UNESCO, Fransman (2006) provides a heuristic framework which helps to reconcile the practice of teaching the tangible language skills (including listening and speaking) with literacy processes (including creative thinking, empowerment, and critical engagement with the world). Such an endeavor also suggests that policy and pedagogical decisions should be shaped in accordance with the experiences of L2 program participants as a major stakeholder group.

In light of such a goal, this study solicited performance and process input from major stakeholders in an English Intensive Program (EIP) in a Canadian university in order to examine L2 listening both as a skill and a form of multiple literacies. The study then evaluated the EIP program policy and practice guidelines in the area of L2 listening in light of the insights gained from both performance and process dimensions of L2 listening. It is important to note that evaluation in this study does not refer to judging effectiveness in terms of the achievement of some pre-established objectives in the area of L2 listening development for accountability purposes. Rather, evaluation in this context refers to judgment of the stated program policy and practice guidelines in the area of the development of L2 listening based on their alignment with

program participants' performance, perceptions, and experiences as well as with program leaders' practices. Evaluation, as conceptualized in the latter, serves the purposes of providing an in-depth and contextualized understanding of L2 listening policies and practices. By using the major stakeholders' performance outcomes, perceptions, and experiences as criteria for evaluation of program policy and practice guidelines, this study also took a step towards reversing the traditional relation between policy and performance, and ultimately providing a space for giving voice to program stakeholders other than those in policy and other decision-making positions (Greene, 2007). More specifically, the study established engaged and inclusive interactions among data from EIP stakeholders -- including the EIP participants, instructors and coordinator -- regarding "their respective stances and values, perspectives and experiences, dreams and hopes" (Greene, 2001, p. 182), and evaluated program policy and practice guidelines in the area of L2 listening on the basis of the insights gained from these engaged and inclusive interactions.

Cadiero-Kaplan's Language Policy and Programming Conceptual Framework (2004) was adopted for the examination of the EIP policy and practice guidelines in the area of listening across the two dimensions of performance and process. This framework analyzes policy and programming at both macro (policy level ranging from school-site to state wide) and micro levels (i.e., school site program components including administration, coordinator, teachers, students, and curriculum) across six dimensions: value for learner, literacy orientation, instructional goals, resources, accountability/assessment and finally expectations for learners (Cadiero-Kaplan, 2004, pp. xxiii-xxv). According to Cadiero-Kaplan (2004), in every L2 development program the curriculum values students and their literacies in different ways. This,

in turn, links to the ways stakeholders perceive and value multiple forms of literacy. In addition, the goals of instruction and learning (e.g., expectations for learners with respect to L2 learning) connect with program resources (e.g., capacity of the teaching staff and the materials used in the curriculum). Accountability and assessment concern, among other things, student achievement and success as well as accountability of those responsible for program implementation and transition. Finally, the framework seeks to clarify learner outcomes as perceived by the stakeholders and policies. For the purposes of this study, performance expectations for learners and literacy orientations were selected from among the six dimensions of the framework. These two dimensions were particularly relevant to the understanding of listening advanced in this study, which focuses on listening both as a skill (related to the performance dimension of listening ability), and as a form of multiple literacies (related to the process dimension of listening ability). The two dimensions of Cadiero-Kaplan's framework (i.e., performance expectations for learners and literacy orientation) provided the context for an in-depth and contextualized description of the listening component of the EIP program. The details of Cadiero-Kaplan's Language Policy and Programming Conceptual Framework will be outlined in Chapter Two.

A significant aspect of Cadiero-Kaplan's framework is its openness to establish on-going dialogue between and among all the stakeholders. Greene (2001) warns that academic conversations – and access to these conversations –tend to reflect the interests of people in positions of authority and power, and that these conversations are not inclusive of “the interests of other people who are normally not part of the conversation” (Greene, 2005, p. 1). Accordingly, effective dialogue in evaluative inquiry should encompass both moral (i.e., those of

trust, respect, caring, openness to difference), and political (i.e., those of commitment to equity of power and voice) relationships: “[Dialogue] involves everyone as speakers and listeners, as teachers and learners. Such dialogue requires patience and tolerance, humility and genuine openness to the possibility of change in the situation, in others and especially in oneself” (Greene, 2001, 183). From this perspective, evaluation encompasses the socio-political dimensions of communication, “rather than validity-focused epistemic contributions or service-focused utilitarian contributions of evaluative communications” (p. 183). This study took a step towards that direction.

Mixed methods¹ were used to collect listening performance and process data from the major EIP stakeholders. Mixing methods inherently engages with the challenges of human diversity and multiple ways of knowing (Greene, 2002). In mixed methods, the idea is not to find “a well fitting model” or to achieve unity and consensus through combining methods, but rather reaching better understanding through the juxtaposition of different lenses. Good mixed methods research actively invites “diverse ways of thinking and valuing to work in concert towards better understanding. From this perspective, difference, which is constitutive and generative” (Greene, 2002, p. 24), is particularly valued for its potential for creating tension. “It is in this tension that the boundaries of what is known are most generatively challenged and stretched” (Greene & Caracelli, 2003, p. 97).

¹ While the term mixed methods does not clearly point to adopting a multiple methodological perspective, I will use the term throughout the study in order to be consistent with the literature. For the purposes of this study, I have used Jennifer Greene’s (2000, 2007, 2008) perspective on mixed methods social and evaluative inquiry, which holds that paradigmatic assumptions importantly guide and direct practical inquiry decisions, along with the context and theory. According to Greene (2007), ‘important paradigm differences should be respectfully and intentionally used together and juxtaposed to engage meaningfully with difference, and through the tensions created by juxtaposing different paradigms, to achieve dialectal discovery of enhanced, reframed or new understanding’ (p. 15).

Based on the guidelines of mixed methods inquiry and the two dimensions of Cadiero-Kaplan's (2004) Language Policy and Programming framework, the current study 1) examined L2 listening both as a skill and a component of multiple literacies based on the performance, perceptions and experiences of the EIP program participants and leaders; and 2) evaluated the EIP program policies and practice guidelines in the area of L2 listening along the two dimensions of listening performance expectations for learners and literacy orientation.

1.3 - Methodology

The study was conducted in two distinct phases. In Phase I, the study examined L2 listening performance as a measurable skill with a focus on the role of strategy use and learner motivation (i.e., metacognitive listening strategies and motivation orientations) in the EIP learners' listening performance. Strategy use and motivation orientations were chosen from among other non-linguistic variables because 1) the two variables appear to explain variability in listening performance (Vandergrift, 2005; Tafaghodtari & Vandergrift, 2008); 2) listening studies which have focused on these two variables, have highlighted the need for a more in-depth exploration of the ways in which learning strategies and motivation orientations interact, and the degree to which their interactions influence L2 listening performance (e.g., Tafaghodtari & Vandergrift, 2008); and 3) in the larger educational context, the two variables have been demonstrated to be instrumental in regulation of learners' performance (Kitsantas, 2002; Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994; Zimmerman, 2008). Based on these variables, a model of listening performance was also developed which was used as criterion for examining the role of strategy use and learner motivation in the EIP program policy and practice guidelines, including level

descriptors. According to Greateorex (2003), level descriptors are short textual descriptions of the achievement expected or required of learners. However, level descriptors become problematic, particularly when they are written solely based on expert tacit knowledge (Sadler, 1987), without taking account of learners' actual performance and empirical evidence (Fulcher, 1993; Greateorex, 2003). To this end, a relevant issue pertaining to listening expectations for L2 learners becomes the degree to which level descriptors and other aspects of program policy and practice guidelines reflect learners' actual performance and perceptions.

In order to determine whether level descriptors and other aspects of program policy and practice guidelines reflect learners' actual performance and perceptions, first the relationships among learners' listening achievement, metacognitive strategy use and motivation orientations were explored. The results were then juxtaposed with the program expectations for learners as reflected in the program policy and practice guidelines, including the level descriptors, to detect any possible areas of discrepancy. In this phase, quantitative data were collected, as it was believed they would provide information with regards to the performance dimension of L2 listening and L2 listening development in the program. In order to explore the ways in which learning strategies (L2 listening metacognition) and affective factors (i.e., motivation orientations) related to L2 listening performance, the data from Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ; Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal & Tafaghodtari, 2006) and Motivation Orientation Scales Questionnaire (Noles, Clement & Pelletier, 2001) were collected. Based on these data, a multi-dimensional model was developed to explore whether L2 listening performance was the effect of the interaction between linguistic, cognitive (L2 listening metacognitive strategies) and affective factors (learner motivation orientation). This model also

functioned as criteria for judging the relevance of the listening guidelines to the program participants' actual performance and perceptions.

In phase II, L2 listening was explored as a component of multiple literacies. In this phase, input from both the program leaders and participants functioned as criteria for evaluating the literacy orientations and their relation to the teaching and learning of L2 listening in the program (i.e., literacy/listening process dimension). In this phase, the EIP program policy and practice guidelines, including listening level descriptors, were examined using Masny's Multiple Literacies Theory (2005/06; 2009). Qualitative data (from interviews and class observation) were gathered in order to gain insight into the diverse definitions of literacy among program leaders and participants as well as the value that the program puts on the listening performance and processes. Some questions examined in this second phase included the ways in which L2 listeners and the development of L2 listening were viewed by the policymaker; the ways in which different orientations towards literacy and their relation to the teaching of L2 listening were viewed and valued by EIP leaders, and the ways in which EIP learners made sense of oral text while participating in L2 listening/literacy activities. Issues of particular interest included the potential mis/match between the literacy orientation informing the EIP policy and practice guidelines, and the EIP leaders' perceptions of literacy and their relation to the teaching of L2 listening; the potential mis/match between the literacy orientation informing the program policy and practice guidelines, and the EIP participants' L2 listening/literacy experiences; and, finally, the possibilities and/or limitations of the policymaker's assumptions regarding literacy and L2 listening in capturing listeners' sense-making processes.

1.4 - Conceptual Framework

Due to the competing paradigms underlying the skills-oriented- versus literacy-oriented understandings of language development, this study falls into several areas that could be considered as relevant conceptual frameworks. First, juxtaposing the skills-oriented and literacy-oriented understandings of language development, by linking quantitative and qualitative research methodologies, requires a conceptual framework that not only addresses these approaches, but also a means of juxtaposing the ontological and epistemological paradoxes inherent in mixing methodologies. Primarily, a pragmatist conceptualization of research was required, which allowed “juxtaposition of opposed or contradictory ideas, to interact with the tensions invoked by contesting arguments, or to engage in the play of ideas” (Greene & Caracelli. 2003, p. 97). As such, this study was situated in Rorty’s creative inquiry, where poetic, scientific and philosophical discourses are all sources of imaginative narratives, “hierarchical on the basis of imaginative potency rather than truth or accuracy” (Donovan, 2005, p. 1). Such a vision also suggests that philosophers, scientists, novelists- who are all poets from Rorty’s point of view- should embrace self-creation through inviting incommensurate and contradictory narratives. The details of Rorty’s creative inquiry will be outlined in Chapter 3.

Second, as mentioned earlier, competing epistemological assumptions regarding literacy and language development have led to a perplexing array of meanings of L2 learning and teaching, ranging from L2 development strictly as a set of skills to L2 development as a literacy process (see Fransman, 2006, for a review; Masny, 2005/2006; Morgan & Ramanathan, 2005; Pennycook, 2001; Shea, 1998). At the same time, literacy has been increasingly conceptualized

as multiple literacies, i.e., ways of meaning-making² in technological, health, information, media, visual, scientific, and other contexts (Street, 2003). Mainly influenced by ethnographic studies, this perspective emphasizes the exploration of multiple types of texts and modalities within their cultural contexts. Multiple texts and modalities (oral, visual, technological, etc.) are particularly central to multiple literacies in learning institutions, as prominent social contexts, in that “the new citizenry required of learners entails negotiation and engagement with numerous types of texts, modalities and technologies” (Morgan & Ramanathan, 2005, p. 151). Yet, as mentioned earlier, the emphasis on social situatedness “does not ignore the cognitive and semiotic processes involved in perception and production of different types of texts and modes of meaning making” (Brandt & Clinton, 2002, p. 340). Rather, it recognizes that multi-literacies are “at root social arrangements, embedded in and constitutive of issues pertaining to relations of power, desire, and ideologies within communities and institutions” (p. 345). As noted by some literacy theorists (e.g., Benesch, 2001; Starfield, 2004), understanding multiple literacies as tangible sets of measurable skills is not only an option but a necessity; and therefore, any critical understanding of literacy should “invigorate, rather than replace conventional skill sets” (Morgan & Ramanathan, 2005, p. 152). This concern is also well reflected in Fransman (2006) whose review on literacy practices posits that through qualitative ethnographic analyses, New Literacies Studies scholars (e.g., Gee 2002; Street, 1984; 1995; 2003) have shown that literacy can be understood as a socially constructed practice, which is engaged with local meanings and uses, in

² Meaning is a highly contested notion in the current literature. While meaning-making can refer to psychological processes which happen in the individual’s mind, it can also refer to a social activity that is constructed and produced in a cultural context. For the purposes of this research, I will use the notion of sense and sense-making, which draws on Peircean semiotics. In order to be faithful to the original texts, however, I will use the term meaning in the review of literature and in cases of exact quotes. In SLA, meaning-making practices have generally referred to the activities whereby meaning has been transferred from one mind to another. As mentioned before, this view, which mainly draws on cognitive psychology, emphasizes the individual thinker.

specific cultural contexts. However, “solely focusing on local diversity poses serious challenges for global comparability” (p. 25). Therefore, multi-literacies researchers should be well aware of the context and yet the limitations that this imposes on analysis, “while at the same time attempting to bridge the quantitative-qualitative divide by employing more ethnographic studies as complementary analyses to assessments at the macro level” (Fransman, 2006, p. 25).

In light of this thinking, this study advances the debates about multiple literacies by focusing on L2 listening both as a skill and as a form of sense-making via sound. In addition, through combining quantitative (often referred to as macro-level) and qualitative (often referred to as micro-level) methodologies, this study provides the space for bridging the cognitive understanding of L2 listening as a skill with its (critical) conceptualization as a process of sense-making. From a skills-oriented perspective, listening ability in this study is understood as a multidimensional construct encompassing, but not limited to, linguistic, cognitive and affective factors (Tafaghodtari & Vandergrift, 2008). For the purposes of the study, cognitive and affective factors were narrowed down to metacognition and motivation for there seems to be enough evidence in the L2 listening literature regarding the link between performance on a listening test, and metacognitive strategies and regulation of motivation orientations (Vandergrift, 2005; Tafaghodtari & Vandergrift, 2008); and recent conceptualizations of learning strategies in the field of psychology argue for a trait-like metacognitive and affective potential that help learners perform more successfully in achievement tests (Winne & Perry, 2000). Details of metacognition and motivation will be discussed in Chapter 3.

From a critical literacies perspective, listening as a component of multiple literacies is informed by Multiple Literacies Theory (MLT; Masny 2005/06; 2009), which refers to literacies

as a social construct, consisting of “ways of becoming with the world” (Masny, 2009, p. 1). Becoming, according to Masny, is the effect of “continuous investment in reading the word, the world, and self as texts” (Masny, 2005/2006, p.1). Reading is about sense and sense is an event which emerges when experiences of life are related to reading the word, the world and self as text. Texts, accordingly, are notation, signs and symbols in oral, visual and tactile forms. Building on Delueze and Guattari (1994), Masny (2005/2006) defines investment as connections of life experiences from which “an individual is formed, transformed and becomes *other* than” (p. 1). It is from these investments or connections that literacies are produced. The details of MLT will be provided in Chapter 3.

1.5 - Research Questions

Guided by the research problem, the research purpose and the objectives and the principles of mixed methods inquiry (Greene & Caracelli, 2003), the following specific questions were posited:

Phase1: Quantitative Questions and Sub-questions

1. What is the role of reported strategy use and learner motivation (i.e., metacognitive listening strategies and motivation orientations) in the EIP participants' L2 listening performance?

- I. What metacognitive listening strategies do EIP participants report using?
- II. What motivation orientations do the EIP learners report using?

III. What linear combination of reported metacognitive strategies and motivation orientations best predicts listening performance?

2. To what degree do performance expectations for learners regarding L2 listening development, as stated in the EIP policy and practice guidelines, reflect strategy use and learner motivation (i.e., metacognitive listening strategies and motivation orientations)?

Phase2: Qualitative Questions

3. How do EIP policy and practice guidelines view L2 listeners and the development of L2 listening?

4. How do EIP leaders, i.e., program teachers and coordinator, view and value different orientations towards literacy and their relation to the teaching of L2 listening?

5. What are the sense-making processes experienced by EIP learners in listening/literacy activities and are these processes captured by the policymaker's assumption of literacy?

1.6 - Significance of the Study

This study focused on listening performance and processes through examination of L2 listening both as a skill and a component of multiple literacies, while at the same time, evaluating listening program policies and practice guidelines based on the insights gained from the performance, perceptions, and experiences of the EIP major stakeholders. The study, therefore, sought to establish a dialogue between fields (SLA, literacies, education, program evaluation)

and issues (teaching and learning a second language and program policy development) that are understood to be independent. Conceptually, the findings of this study can provide valuable information for these fields. Methodologically, they provide the context for adopting a multiple methodological perspective in the study of language and literacy phenomena.

Theory-building is an important aspect of this study. Cadiero-Kaplan (2004) has identified the under-researched normative assumptions about what it means to learn a language. She further posits that without reflection and dialogue, a narrow understanding of language development (i.e., as a set of skills) will be further legitimized. The significance of the study for the fields of SLA and literacies is the possibility of reconceptualizing L2 listening as both a skill and a component of multiple literacies while, at the same time, extending the notion of literacy to include listening. In addition, the findings of this study can help to problematize the priority given to a skills-orientation towards listening development in the current conceptualizations of L2 listening. Through this study, it will be possible for L2 researchers and practitioners to place more value on the notion of listening as engagement in sense-making processes.

Evaluation studies, which are carried out in educational contexts, inevitably generate findings which are used for policies, guidelines, classroom practices, and materials design and development (Kiely, 2009). By problematizing an exclusive focus on listening performance, the results of this study can provide the context for extending L2 program policy and practice guidelines, classroom practices and pedagogical materials to reflect the relevance of literacy processes in the teaching and learning of listening.

As for the broader field of program evaluation, the significance of this study lies in its efforts to reverse the relation between policy and stakeholders' performance, perception, and

experiences. By using major stakeholders' performance, perceptions and perspectives as criteria for informing performance expectations for learners and literacy orientations in the area of L2 listening, this study moved away from the traditional vision of evaluation, which through experimental and quasi-experimental designs focuses on providing policymakers with evidence about the success of a program. This traditional approach has been challenged for narrowly focusing on standards rather than quality, limiting creativity of individual teachers, and restricting opportunities for innovation in practice due to monitoring teacher adherence to guidelines (Norris, 1998; Kiely, 2009). For example, Kiely (2009) posits that "the monitoring and inspection processes focus on the stated criteria and documentary evidence, thus emphasizing compliance rather than situated and creative aspects of teaching quality (and the capacity of evaluation to illuminate the same)" (p. 139). In consideration of these limitations, this study used program participants and leaders' performance, perceptions, and experiences as criteria for judging the quality of the program policy and practice guidelines. This can open up possibilities for establishing a dialogue between policy and practice, leading to reflection of the needs and interests of the program leaders and participants in program policies and guidelines. Furthermore, incorporating input from the program participants and leaders in program policies and practice guidelines can result in the policy and practice to be more relevant to the participants and leaders' personal, academic and professional worlds.

An additional significance of this study to L2 program evaluation lies in the application of mixed methods inquiry to inform second language and bilingual program evaluation. By giving major program stakeholders a voice and by taking advantage of diverse and at times paradoxical data sources, mixed-methods inquiry provides the space for a better representation of

the value pluralism of the larger context. This study suggests that there is no evidence of shared understanding among the program policymaker, program leaders (teachers and administrators), and program participants regarding what it means to teach and learn listening in the field of L2 listening, a finding that is also well reflected in the limited number of studies published in second language journals, which address the issue of program quality through establishing an effective dialogue among L2 program major stakeholders. By providing a space for exploring the tensions among policy-maker's assumptions and program stakeholders' performance, perceptions and experiences regarding L2 listening, this mixed-methods research addresses this gap in the literature. Moreover, this research can demonstrate that responsive and collaborative relationships with stakeholders do indeed increase the diversity of data sources and, as such, enhances the quality of data for L2 program evaluation and curriculum studies.

1.7 - An Overview of the Thesis

This chapter described some of the tensions around the notion of literacy and the relevance of such tensions to the teaching and learning of L2 listening. It also discussed my rationale for constructing a mixed-methods study, which in its two phases will focus on the examination of listening as a skill and a component of multiple literacies, and evaluation of the listening performance expectations for learners and the literacy orientation underlying program policy and practices of an English Intensive Program (the EIP) at a university in Canada. Chapter Two provides a review of the current literature pertaining to the (highly contested) notion of literacy, the investigations of second language listening (e.g., from cognitive and affective perspectives) and an overview of program evaluation and Cadiero-Kaplan's Language Policy

and Programming Framework (2004). Chapter Three discusses the two phases of this mixed-methods study and shares the methodological decisions that I have made -- including methods of data collection and analysis -- as well as the conceptual frameworks that I have used to understand the data collected in each phase. Chapters Four and Five focus on the results and findings of the first and second phases of the study, respectively. Finally, Chapter Six discusses the theoretical implications of the study and provides some recommendations as to how to improve policy and practice in the area of L2 listening in L2 development programs.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 - Introduction

This chapter reviews the research literature on literacy, second language listening ability and program evaluation. Since this study aims to develop a conceptual model of L2 listening both as a skill and a component of multiple literacies, the review will begin with the current landscape of literacy. Details on cognitive versus more critical conceptualizations of literacy will provide insight into the complex nature of the notion of literacy. The review will continue with a discussion regarding the models and theories of L2 listening development. Associated with these models are the affective and cognitive factors (including metacognition and motivation) involved in L2 listening. Since this study also focuses on evaluation of program policy and practices of and English Intensive Program (EIP) in Canada in the area of listening development across the two dimensions of performance expectations for learners and the different orientations towards literacy, the review will conclude with an overview of program evaluation and its relevance to L2 education and literacies.

2.2 - The Current Landscape of Literacy/Literacies

To say that literacy is a controversial term is to minimize the issue. Literacy as a concept has been informed by many, at times competing, theoretical insights and as such has proved to be both complex and dynamic, continuing to be interpreted in a multiplicity of ways (Fransman, 2006). The focus of these differing views, evolving from literacy as a set of skills (i.e., reading and writing) to literacy as text in its broadest sense (oral, visual, written, digital, etc.), have

ranged from changes in individuals to making a difference in broader socio-economic and political contexts (Cadiero-Kaplan, 2004; Wray, 2001). Literacy programs and policies, too, are inevitably selections from the range of approaches informed by these underlying theories. Based on the current landscape of literacy, it is possible to distinguish among two major orientations towards literacy development in programs and policies: functional literacy development and progressive literacy development.

2.2.1 - Functional Literacy Development

Literacy as a set of autonomous skills, specifically the skills of reading and writing, is perhaps the most agreed upon understanding of literacy (Cadiero-Kaplan, 2004; Fransman, 2006). From this perspective, which is mainly informed by research in the field of cognitive sciences, literacy skills are regarded as independent of the context in which they are acquired and the background of the person who acquires them. In addition, this understanding has “a toolbox approach” to literacy (Wray, 2001, p. 201); that is, learning of literacy skills and sub-skills will ultimately produce reading and writing. It is worth noting that the focus on reading and writing, as the two main literacy skills, was based on the assumption that writing is the transcription of speech and as such superior to it (Kress, 2003). As very well noted by Street (2005), such an assumption also maintains that the purpose of literacy enterprise should be providing the context for transition from *oral* to *literate* cultures as the foundation for economic growth and development. Recently, however, there has been a shift in viewing literacy to embrace other aspects ranging from the oral linguistics and non-linguistic skills (including listening and speaking) as well as visual, media, and information skills.

Curricula informed by a functional orientation to literacy development are those which teach students the skills necessary to successfully function in different societal contexts such as school and workplace (Cadiero-Kaplan, 2004). The importance of such skills, which are regarded as universal and applicable in every context for curriculum development, lies in the fact that they are able to produce individuals who are productive citizens and members of the workforce. “A person who is functionally literate is generally considered an individual who has the ability to read and write to complete job applications and other common forms, [as well as] read and write checks, etc.” (Cadieor-Kaplan, 2004, p. 5). To this end, the ultimate goal of such curricula and their related instructional practices, according to Myers (1996), is to provide learners with the opportunity to comprehend text by decoding words and understanding vocabulary and grammar. Functional literacy curricula have been extensively adopted by literacy programs (e.g., L2 literacy programs) due to their emphasis on immediate literacy outcomes and learner performance.

This orientation towards literacy development, however, has been widely challenged by those who believe that a commonplace focus on skills development takes for granted the critical social practices, rooted in conceptions of identity, knowledge, and power. The critics of functional literacy curricula argue that traditional approaches to skills development fail to address important issues such as racial inequalities, political marginalization, and historical Eurocentric and cultural biases (see, for example, Fecho, 2000; Vavrus, 2002). In addition, attaining literacy in the sense of phonological and/or orthographic decoding, does not automatically lead to learners’ critical engagement with text and as such fails to facilitate an equitable learning environment (Graff, 2003).

2.2.2 - *Progressive Literacy Development*

As a response to the inadequacies of functional literacy programs, a new framework has emerged, which emphasizes the production of literate learners who can critically participate in relevant social and cultural contexts and are able to engage flexibly in them (e.g., Banks, 2004; Barton, Hamilton, & Ivanic, 1999; Fecho, 2000; Gee 1999; Street, 2003). Literacy within this view has undergone a shift from being considered a mere acquisition of independent skills to being ‘situated’ and ‘social’, with a focus on everyday meanings and uses in specific cultural contexts (Street, 2003; 2004). Curricula informed by the notion of situated literacy are those that “encourage the inclusion of student voice, culture and a variety of literature and discourses as the part of the curriculum” (Cadiero-Kaplan, 2004, p. 10). Within this perspective, social discourse is considered as a part of learning. In addition, learners are provided with the opportunity to make “their own decisions about what to read, write and learn” (Weaver, 1998, p.7). Progressive curricula, as such, value learners as knowing subjects and provide a space for them to construct meaning. Franceman (2006) cites a passage from Rodgers that well reflects learner decisions at the core of curriculum development and pedagogical practices: “Women in a literacy programme in Rajasthan, India rejected their traditional and *irrelevant* textbooks in favour of cinema adverts and movie clippings. Since they already knew many of the names and words and were interested in the topic they learnt quickly and gained much confidence”.

A progressive orientation to literacy development calls for a pedagogy based on student inquiry that crosses cultures and empowers learners and results in social betterment (Fecho, 2000).

2.2.3 - Critical Literacies and Beyond

While progressive literacy practices have advanced the notion of literacy as situated, more critical approaches to literacy have problematized “literacy with a big ‘L’ and a single ‘Y’” with its consequences for personal and social development” (Street, 1995, p. 132). These approaches (e.g., Collins, 1995; Street, 1995), which have come to be called the New Literacy Studies (NLS), have also attempted to replace the autonomous model of literacy with an ideological model, where situated approaches to literacy are emphasized (Collins & Blott, 2003). More specifically, NLS investigations have focused on the relations of power that pervade literacy practices, “to find new ways of linking the linguistic, the cognitive and the social; and to confront the meanings of schooling and literacy in circumstances of worldwide economic downturn” (Collins, 1995, p. 80).

Apart from the NLS theorists and practitioners, other literacy scholars have tried to expand on the ways in which the critical literacies are conceptualized and translated into practice. Gee, who advances a socio-cultural approach towards literacies, for instance, argues that people acquire languages through socialization into discourses: “A discourse integrates ways of talking, listening, writing, reading, acting, interacting, believing, valuing and feeling (and various objects, symbols, images, tools and technologies) in the service of enacting meaningful socially situated identities and activities” (Gee, 2004, p. 124).

2.2.4 - Multiple Literacies Theory: A New Alternative

The paradigm shift, as a result of more recent understandings of critical social justice (Masny & Cole, 2008), has led the concept of literacy to undergo further transformation to

include the notion of critical engagement with processes of sense-making which, according to Masny (2005) involve reading *the word, the world and the self*. Heavily informed by the works of Deleuze in French philosophy, what has come to be known as Multiple Literacies Theory (MLT; Masny, 2005; 2005/2006) holds that literacies are social constructs, multi-modal and multiple. However, literacies concern not only the cultural and social aspects of meaning making but also the subtle sociopolitical interrelationships involved in any sense-making event. MLT, therefore, envisions literacy curricula that encourage production of literacies through immersion with different settings (e.g., school, home and community), “shaped by social, political and historical contexts within a society” (Masny & Cole, 2008, p. 3). In addition, literacies, as understood by MLT, are interactive sense-making events whose unceasing consequences are not limited only to social betterment (as in progressive literacy development), or any other social agenda for that matter.

The conception of literacies as critical sense-making processes, according to Masny (2005), highlights the notion of text as a central category, which takes on multiple meanings conveyed through words, gestures, attitudes, ways of speaking, writing, and valuing. In addition, in MLT, texts are taken up as visual, oral, written, and tactile, which “interweave with religion, gender, race, ideology and power” (Masny & Cole, 2008, p.2). The details of Multiple Literacies Theory (MLT) will be fully discussed under the conceptual framework of the second phase of the study in the methodology chapter.

2.3 - Second Language Listening in the Current Landscape of Literacies

As mentioned earlier, more critical conceptualizations of literacy have increasingly emphasized engagement with meaning-making through a broader range of text-types, not only through print, but also sound, images, gestures, spaces, and their integrations (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2000; Jewitt & Kress, 2003; Masny, 2005/06; Masny & Cole, 2008; Norton & Vanderheyden, 2004; Quinlisk, 2003). While calling for an examination of the crucial role of multiple texts and modalities in literacy settings (e.g., school, home, community), such conceptualizations also promote recovering those aspects and modalities (such as oral and visual) which have been subordinated in the Western appropriation of the meaning of literacy (Fiumara, 1990). With a focus on oral language as a subordinated aspect of literacies, this section of the review focuses on three main topics: 1) orality versus literacy: the great divide debate; 2) listening and negotiation of meaning³; and, 3) SLA investigations of listening as a measurable skill. In the first section, I will briefly discuss the ways in which literate uses of language have traditionally been privileged over oral uses of language. In the next section, I will review the few studies with a focus on meaning-negotiation in listening in class-room settings. In the last section, I will review SLA research with a focus on cognitive, affective and social factors pertaining to L2 listening comprehension.

2.3.1 - Orality versus Literacy: The Great Divide Debate

“Speech makes us human and literacy makes us civilized” (Olson, 1988, p. 175). This statement well reflects a deeply held view, namely the Great Divide Theory (GDT), deriving from three lines of research articulated by scholars such as Havelock (1982), Ong (1982) and

³ In SLA, meaning-making practices have generally referred to the activities whereby meaning has been transferred from one mind to another. As mentioned before, this view, which mainly draws on cognitive psychology, emphasizes the individual.

Goody (1977). Focusing on pre- and post- Greek Homeric culture, early literate cultures in western Europe and contemporary oral cultures, GDT highlights the fundamental differences between an oral and literate mind in terms of “cognitive processes for creating, transmitting, storing, and retrieving human knowledge” (Willis, 1994, p. 4). In *Orality and Literacy: The Technologizing of the Word*, Walter Ong (1982) argued that “the technology of writing” transformed human consciousness; writing not only allowed for the representation of words as signs, it also gave a linear shape to thought and provided a critical framework within which analytical thought became possible.

Ong’s account of orality/literacy has been widely critiqued by ethnographers and anthropologists. Feld (1986), for instance, posits that Ong’s version of oral versus literate processes and their characteristics “simply blur or push aside social details, historical accuracy, and the complexities of oral-literate interactions for the sake of sweeping generalizations that do not provide real evidence for the assertion that oral/literate are fundamentally different states of mind” (p. 20). In addition, scholars of oral literature (e.g., Finnegan, 1988) have emphasized the view that there are other ways of looking at the world of oral communication than the Ong’s dichotomies of oral/literate. Ferst (1999) suggests that investigations of multi-literacies should focus upon general issues which consider both the processes and the product of oral verbal creativity in whatever culture it occurs. Furnis (2004) warns us of the inappropriateness of “the paradigm of the Ongian binary classification” (p. 141) in the contemporary world of increasingly global oral communication. He further posits that “the oral is a set of communicative conditions apparent in *all* societies... and the features of these communicative conditions for the constitution of human societies – the power of the spoken word – are evident wherever we turn”

(p. 141). According to Furnis, any literacy studies with a focus on the characteristics of orality and their implications for cultural production should focus on the centrality of the moment of communication between speaker and listener, the significance of articulation and perception, as well as the importance of speaker/listener experiences. This understanding of oral literacy draws from Heath's (1982) notion of literacy events and Street's (1995) literacy practices. According to Heath (1982), literacy events refer to an occasion in which written or oral text is integral to the nature of participants' interactions and their interpretive processes. Street (1995) takes the idea a bit further to describe the social and linguistic practices that encompass literacy events.

Accordingly, "the concept of literacy practices is pitched at a higher level of abstraction and refers to both behavior and the social and cultural conceptualizations that give meaning to the uses of reading and writing [listening and speaking]. Literacy practices incorporate not only 'literacy events' as empirical occasions to which literacy is integral, but also folk models of those events and the ideological preconceptions that underpin them" (p. 2). According to Barton and Hamilton (2000), literacy events are "observable episodes which arise from [literacy] practices and are shaped by them. The notion of events stresses the situated nature of literacy, that it always exists in a social context" (p. 8). The notion of literacy practices, in contrast, emphasizes what people do with literacy in their lives.

While the relevance of listening to the notion of literacy has already been brought up (e.g., Furnis, 2004), few investigations in the field of SLA have tried to study L2 listening from a literacy perspective. Instead, most of the investigations have examined L2 listening as a second language skill. The next section will review the current investigations of L2 listening.

2.3.2 - Listening as Negotiation of Meaning

That most people's daily experiences are often not linked to reading and writing-- but to situations where the spoken word is the dominant medium has already been noted in the context of first language (L1) listening (see, for example, Bohlken, 1999; Frest, 1999; Furnis, 2004). In academic contexts, for example, research on L1 listening has shown that listening comprises more than 50% of college students' total average communication day -- followed by reading (17%), speaking (16%) and writing (11%) (Emanuel, Adams, Baker, Daufin, Ellington, Fitts, Himself, Holladay, & Okeowo, 2008). With the significant role that listening plays in our lives, therefore, it would be worthwhile to examine what facilitates and/or hinders listening.

Changes in listening behavior have been associated with different factors including purpose for listening (Wolvin & Coakley, 1996), types of interaction possible or required in a listening situation (Rost, 1990; 2002), personal dispositions (Sargent, Fitch-Hauser, & Weaver, 1997), gender (Sargent & Weaver, 2003), and cultural context (Keiwitz, Weaver, Brosius, & Weiman, 1997). Imhof (2004) posits that, while listening, individuals tend to "adjust swiftly to perceived characteristics of the [listening] situation" (p. 43) such as the status they hold as compared to their speaking partner. In a study of listeners and speakers with English as a first language (EL1), Harms (1961) found that listeners' comprehension was highest when listeners held the same status as the speakers. These findings accord with the results of the Varonis and Gass' (1985) study on EL1-ESL and ESL-ESL interlocutor dyads, which demonstrated that meaning negotiations occurred less frequently between EL1-ESL interlocutors than ESL-ESL. Varonis and Gass (1985) concluded that ESL speakers recognize "the inequality of the conversation situation" (p. 85) and thus are reluctant to attempt any further negotiation of

meaning. In a critique of the cognitively-oriented L2 listening studies that have ignored the social context in which conversation occurs, Carrier (1999) argued that unequal status between EL1 and ESL interlocutors hinders negotiations of meanings and thus has an adverse effect on comprehension. Carrier also suggested that “status unequals may perceive their relationship as sharing no common base socially, occupationally, and economically” (p. 74). In the context of L2 classroom settings, Pica (1992) reported that social relationships between teachers and students give them unequal status as interlocutors, which can hinder “L2 comprehension, production and ultimately acquisition” (p. 4). In an interesting case study of an intermediate-level learner’s progress in listening comprehension during and after a pre-session English for Academic Purposes course, Lynch (1997) reported the discrepancies between performance within the sheltered setting of the language classroom and success in real interaction in the (non-sheltered) academic world. The study, which included evidence from performance (entry and exit listening tests), process (negotiation of meaning in the classroom) and perceptions (of listening difficulties after the course), pointed to the ways in which the listener’s fears about being labeled as an ESL student hindered his negotiations of meaning in the classroom and ultimately his performance. When asked to make a conscious effort in applying meaning negotiation strategies (which he had learned in the sheltered language course) in his academic courses, the ESL listener replied, “But I am the only foreign student and so I cannot interrupt very much” (Lynch, 1997, 394). These results are in line with other work on first language listening, which demonstrate that inter-individual differences affect patterns of communication between listeners and speakers (Beatty, Marschal, & Rudd, 2001; Imhof, 2004).

2.3.3 - Listening as Comprehension

Listening has been demonstrated to be one of the essentials of language learning (Rost 2002; Tafaghodtari & Vandergrift, 2008; Vandergrift, 2007). Yet, with the diffusion of new technologies, which have particularly changed the ways in which university students spend their time (Emanuel et al., 2008), listening has become one of the most challenging aspects of L2 development for adult learners (e.g. Hasan 2000; Graham, 2003; Kim, 2002; Vandergrift, 2007). In a review of the recent developments in L2 listening research, Vandergrift (2007) rightly points to the significance that listening has in today's reality of L2 learners' lives: "Language learners want to understand target language (L2) and they want to be able to access the rich variety of aural and visual L2 texts available today via network-based multimedia, such as online audio and video, YouTube, podcasts and blogs" (p. 191).

Given its central role in the new media age, listening has remained surprisingly under-researched in the field of L2 education, and those studies which seem to address this neglected aspect of language development have been generally concerned with listening as an end-point, rather than an active process of meaning making. Many, for example, reduce listening to finding the right answer to a set of comprehension questions at the end of a passage. This focus, which reflects the nature of commercial and high-stakes tests, ignores the processes involved in any meaning making situation, listening being no exception. This trend has also fallen short of providing a framework for adequately taking account of the variables which affect listening ability (Tafaghodtari & Vandergrift, 2008). While with the recent advances in the field of cognitive psychology and Individual Differences (ID) there seems to be a new interest in the cognitive and affective variables which can possibly contribute to listening comprehension, such

variables, when studied, have been examined in an isolated manner (e.g., Rost, 1994; Tafaghodtari & Vandergrift, 2008; Vandergrift, 2006). Therefore, to better understand the field's current take on the issue of listening, the next section focuses on a review of the L2 listening studies which have been broadly informed by the field of cognitive psychology and its intersection with other disciplines.

2.3.4 - L2 Listening: A Cognitive Perspective

Drawing on a wide range of disciplines (e.g., cognitive psychology, L1 speech education, language pathology and artificial intelligence), current L2 listening theorists recognize that L2 listening draws on multiple sources of information such as linguistic, contextual, and schematic knowledge (e.g., Buck, 2001; Lynch, 1994; Vandergrift, 2006). A consequence of such recognition has been a focus on different textual, cognitive and affective variables such as memory, discourse markers, prior knowledge and anxiety which are believed to affect performance in L2 listening. Based on earlier work by Buck (2001), at least three types of variables are posited to be critical to L2 listening success: linguistic, strategic and learner variables. Linguistic variables entail knowledge of the sound system (phonological), grammar (syntactic), vocabulary (semantic) and contextual influences on interpretation (pragmatic) of the L2 (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005). Listeners use L2 phonological knowledge to segment the stream of sound into meaningful sound units. This includes knowledge about phonemes, stress, intonation, assimilation and elision. Grammatical or syntactic L2 knowledge helps listeners to process or parse the sound stream for meaningful units of language and contributes to comprehension by assigning semantic roles to words (Rost, 2002). L2 semantic knowledge

helps listeners assign meaning to word-level units as well as the relationship between those words at the discourse level. L2 pragmatic knowledge helps the listener to infer the speaker's intention, particularly if there is any ambiguity in the literal meaning of the utterance. This is closely related to sociolinguistic knowledge (e.g., formal/informal registers, idioms and slang) which listeners use to further interpret the utterance (Buck, 2001). These five elements of linguistic knowledge involved in speech perception are an essential part of any model of listening.

Yet, research has shown that listening comprehension is more than speech perception (e.g., Rost, 2004; Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994). Comprehension includes matching what is heard with what is known. According to Rost (2004), the central component in the comprehension process is the activation of schemata in the listener's memory structures to anticipate and monitor, i.e., check what is heard for congruency with what the listener already knows. This makes the listener's world knowledge and life experiences an important factor in the comprehension process, a finding already well established in the L2 listening literature (e.g., Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Long, 1990; Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994).

Due to the general belief that rapid speech is the cause of most of the difficulties that L2 listeners face, much of the earlier research on factors pertaining to successful listening performance focused on speech rate (Carrier, 1999). The results of these studies, in general, have indicated that above average speech rates impede comprehension while reduced speech rate aids it (e.g., Kelch, 1985; Flowerdew & Miller, 1992; Zhao, 1997). In addition, speech rate seems to interact with "other factors such as pausing, stress, and rhythm pattern of the speaker" (Carrier, 1999, p. 68). Related to speech rate is comprehensible input. The results of investigations

focusing on this aspect of L2 listening have shown that while repetition seems to improve comprehension, simplification does not necessarily aid comprehension (Cargill, 1987; Cervantes & Gainer, 1992).

Memory, as an important cognitive factor, has been the focus of many research studies in the field of L2 listening (e.g., Call, 1985; Conrad, 1989; Dunkel & Davis, 1994). Researchers have reported a shorter memory span for L2 input as compared to L1 input (e.g., Call, 1985). Dunkel and Davis (1994) found that EL1 speakers retained almost twice as much information as did ESL learners in the context of academic lectures. Research also suggests that L2 learners tend to remember the beginning and ending words of sentences while L1 speakers tend to remember many of the content words, regardless of their positions (Conrad, 1989). It has also been shown that too slow speech rate can impair comprehension since it prolongs the time the input must be held in short-term memory (Flaherty, 1979), pointing to the ways in which memory interacts with speech rate.

Current theories of L2 listening also emphasize the key role of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in processing of the acoustic input (Buck, 2001; Goh, 2002; Vandergrift, 1998; 2003; 2004; 2005). While cognitive strategies (e.g., inferencing, and story mapping) “involve the manipulation or the transformation of learning materials” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 109), metacognitive strategies include planning, directed attention, selective attention, self-regulation/management, self-monitoring, evaluating and problem-solving. In general, researchers agree that skilled listeners use more metacognitive strategies than their less-skilled counterparts (e.g., Bacon, 1992; O’Malley & Chamot 1990; Vandergrift, 2003). Listeners use metacognitive and cognitive strategies to facilitate comprehension and to make their learning more effective.

Metacognitive strategies, or self-management strategies, oversee, regulate or direct the listening process. They include processes such as planning, monitoring, evaluating and problem-solving. Cognitive strategies, such as inferencing, are the actual mental steps listeners use to understand what they hear. Research shows that skilled listeners appear to engage in an effective orchestration of metacognitive and cognitive strategies as they use linguistic and world knowledge to construct meaning (e.g., Goh, 2002; O'Malley & Chamot 1990; Vandergrift, 2003). Metacognition appears to be critical to the development of self-regulated listening and is associated with the process and the outcome of learning (Boekaerts, Pintrich & Zeidner, 2000; Paris & Winograd, 1990; Schoonen, Hulstijn & Bossers, 1998; Wenden, 1998; Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001). In fact, metacognition accounts for a relatively high percentage of variance in learning performance (e.g., Veenman, Van Hout-Wolters & Afflerbach, 2006). The details of the definition of metacognition in the broader field of educational psychology, as well as the way it has been advanced in the field of L2 listening research, will be discussed under the conceptual framework in Chapter Three.

2.3.5 - L2 Listening: An Affective Perspective

Although research on L2 listening comprehension seems to mostly focus on the effects of cognitive factors on comprehension, affective variables such as motivation and anxiety have also received attention in the field of L2 listening. Currently, there is a general consensus that increased levels of anxiety adversely affect listening comprehension (e.g., Elkhafaifi, 2005; Lund, 1991; Vogely, 1998). In a study focusing on L2 learners' apprehension, for example, Aneiro (in Carrier, 1999) found that high receiver apprehension is related to low listening

performance. Aneiro also suggested that the type of communication impacts the level of anxiety that listeners experience, i.e., dyadic communication seems to cause the highest level of anxiety while television viewing causes the lowest.

Motivation has been another affective variable that has received attention in investigations of L2 listening (e.g., Gardner, 1985; Tafaghodtari & Vandergrift, 2008; Vandergrift, 2005). Lightbown and Spada (2006) rightly note that while there has been a great deal of research on the relationship between motivation and the rate and success of L2 learning, little is known about the ways in which motivation interacts with L2 listening comprehension. Moreover, it is not clear whether it is motivation which produces successful listening or if it is successful listening that enhances motivation or whether both are affected by other factors, such as identity issues (Lightbown & Spada, 2003). The results of a recent study on the relationships among motivation orientations, metacognitive awareness, and L2 listening ability by Vandergrift (2005) suggest that these factors may contribute to variance in L2 listening ability. Working within the framework of Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2004) applied to L2 contexts (Noels, Pelletier, Clément & Vallerand, 2000), Vandergrift's study demonstrates a significant positive correlation between L2 listening proficiency scores and higher measures of motivation. Vandergrift argues that increased use of metacognitive strategies could be linked to more self-determined forms of motivation, providing evidence for the theoretical prediction that motivation and metacognition may be part of the cluster of variables that can explain variance in L2 listening ability. These results are in line with the findings of a later study by Tafaghodtari and Vandergrift (2008), which explored the degree to which first language (L1) listening ability, L2 proficiency, motivation and metacognition contribute to L2 listening comprehension. Similarly,

the results suggest that motivation, together with a number of other factors, contributes significantly to L2 listening ability: L2 proficiency (54%), L1 listening ability (21%), metacognition (3%), and motivation (4%).

Early research on motivation and L2 learning considered motivation as a relatively stable learner trait. However, more recent research views motivation as a more dynamic factor, more cognitive in nature, and more grounded in educational contexts (Dörnyei, 2005). Self-Determination Theory is a cognitive approach to motivation which has attracted attention and received empirical support in this regard. Details of Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1980; Ryan & Deci, 2000) will be discussed under the conceptual framework of the first phase of the study in the methodology chapter.

2.3.6 - L2 Listening: A Social Perspective

While listening as a cognitive process has been the focus of many studies, the social aspect of L2 listening comprehension has received little attention in the literature (Carrier, 1999; Hoven, 1999). As previously mentioned, the results of a few studies focusing on the status relationship between L1 and L2 speakers unanimously point to the notion that unequal status hinders comprehension. Aneiro (1991, as reviewed in Carrier 1999) for example, found that interactions between two unequal interlocutors cause maximum receiver apprehension. These studies have also shown that negotiations for meaning, which have mainly concentrated on “modifications in the interactional conversation in order to make incoming speech comprehensible” (Long, 1985, 351), are an important component of interactive listening comprehension (e.g., Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991).

Other investigations of social factors pertaining to L2 comprehension have generally focused on language variety in the language classroom (e.g., Fox, 2002). Research also has emphasized the importance of non-verbal elements, such as illustrative gestures in listening comprehension (e.g., Harris, 2003; Sueyoshi & Hardison, 2005). Harris (2003) argues that illustrative gestures facilitate comprehension unless they are culturally bound, in which case L2 listeners need to interpret their meanings in the corresponding cultural context.

As demonstrated by the review of the current literature on L2 listening, most of the studies in the field have focused on listening as a skill, which can be broken down into separate components. There are few studies, however, which have taken account of listening processes. An important question, which has been disregarded in the existing literature, concerns the role that L2 programs should play in creating the balance between listening as a skill and listening as a process. Another issue of equal importance concerns the monitoring and evaluation efforts, which can be in place in language development programs, that can encourage such a balance. This study addresses this concern by evaluation of program policy and practice guidelines of an English Intensive Program (EIP) in the area of L2 listening. As such, the next section of this chapter reviews program evaluation and its relation to the fields of literacy and SLA.

2.4 - Program Evaluation

At a time of rapid changes and policy shifts, there is no doubt that program evaluation should be an integral part of any educational program. In educational contexts, program evaluation has been broadly referred to as “the process of systematically determining the quality of a school program and how the program can be improved” (Sanders, 2000, p. 3). More

specifically, program evaluation is defined as a “transdiscipline whose subject matter is merit/worth/significance” (Donaldson & Scriven, 2003, p. 28). Professional evaluation, therefore, is the systematic judgment of quality, value and importance for program decision making purposes (Cousins, Goh, Clark, & Lee, 2004). Although judging program quality and value goes as far back as early 2000 BC, --when the Chinese officials conducted civil service exams in order to measure skill levels (Worthen, Sanders, & Fitzpatrick, 1997)--, what has currently come to be known as program evaluation in North America was first initiated in the 1960’s with the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) in the United States when the US congress wanted to determine the impact of increased federal funding on educational improvement (Eisner, 1994). According to Eisner (1994), this was a significant step for the field of education, since the government and the public for the first time became interested in making judgments about not only what students were learning, but also the programs by which they learned.

According to Kamil, Mosenthal, Pearson, and Barr (2000), much of the early research on program evaluation was concerned with providing empirical data for policymakers to make decisions about program effectiveness. These studies were mainly guided by experimental designs advocated by Campbell and Stanley (1963), where participants were randomly assigned to “treatment” and “control” groups in order to make causal inferences about the effects of an intervention. Later, quasi-experimental designs – such as interrupted time series design -- were also introduced to the field of evaluation, in which individuals and/or programs were evaluated based on performance on multiple measures before and after an intervention. In such designs, “discontinuities in the pattern of responses before and after an intervention were taken as

evidence for the treatment effects” (Kamil et. al., 2000, p. 100). The results of such studies could then provide policymakers with evidence regarding whether a program causes particular outcomes. In the literacy literature, for example, these traditional experimental evaluation studies fell into two main groups: small-scale formative studies and large-scale summative evaluations. Small-scale evaluation studies of literacy programs, motivated by the research on reading processes, served to determine the optimal method for fostering the literacy development of individuals. These studies often focused on classroom practices and were used to provide formative information regarding improvement of one specific aspect of literacy programs. Large-scale evaluation studies, on the contrary, focused on summative judgments about the success of a literacy program. Both small-scale and large scale experimental designs have been criticized for failing to provide an in-depth description of literacy programs, ignoring intended and unintended consequences of these program, marginalizing program participants and other stakeholders, and exclusively focusing on the identification of input-output relationships and limiting constructions of program effectiveness and quality to pre-post gain in program participants’ knowledge (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Greene, 1999; Weiss, 1972; Stake, 1997). More importantly, these studies have been critiqued as inadequate measures of program quality and for exclusively serving the purposes of those stakeholders in the positions of power.

Experimental evaluation studies have been criticized in the field of SLA on similar grounds (Kiely, 2009; Norris, 2006). According to Kiely (2009), experimental evaluations are often conducted to serve the needs of policymakers, and as such, say little about the “[language] learning activities, and experiences of students, ..., and equally little on the actual classroom activities introduced by teachers” (p. 102). Due to the limitations of the experimental designs and

the purposes they serve, new conceptualizations of program evaluation and alternative designs have emerged based on the recognition of different purposes, different audiences, and uses of evaluative inquiry. The next section of this review focuses on evaluation purposes, audiences, and uses.

2.4.1 - Evaluation Purposes, Audiences and Uses

The initial step in any evaluative enterprise is the development of a rationale or a purpose. As Covey (1989) posits in the context of effective habits, one should always begin with the end in mind in evaluative inquiry, i.e., one should know what he/she is evaluating, why it is being evaluated, and what is hoped to be gained by evaluation. According to Greene (2000; 2007) evaluation purposes can be grouped into four primary clusters. These purposes can be aligned with different philosophical paradigms, and also with different audiences for evaluation studies. Greene (2007) outlines the four purposes and the audiences they serve as follows:

- Evaluations that are conducted to inform decision making or to provide accountability information characteristically serve the information needs and interests of policy and other decision makers.
- Evaluations that are conducted to improve the program being evaluated or to enhance the development of the organization in which the program is located typically provide information of value to managers and others responsible for day-to-day program operations.

- Evaluations that are conducted to develop a more in-depth and contextualized understanding of the program and its practices—perhaps from the different perspectives of administrators, board members, direct service staff members, and program participants—usually serve the information needs and interests of program staff members and, sometimes participants as well.

- Evaluations that are designed to promote greater justice and equity in the program and context being evaluated—for example, making decisions about the program which are more inclusive of diverse perspectives, i.e., democratize program decision making (House & Howe, 1999)—characteristically serve the interests of program participants, their families and communities (Greene, 2007, p. 18).

An interesting aspect of the above classification is that these identified purposes can extend the conceptualization of program evaluation from a focus on quality assurance (purpose 1) to a focus on improvement, demonstration and understanding (purposes 2, 3, and 4). In addition, the four purposes can be identified and understood at different programmatic levels: mega, macro, and micro levels (Owen & Rodgers, 1999). Mega level is when the purpose of evaluation is to determine the overall social and economic impact of a particular program. Macro level, which concerns the branches and divisions of an organization/program, focuses on how effective a given aspect of a particular program is. Finally, micro level is the level at which individuals in an organization/program attempt to improve a particular area. According to Owen

and Rodgers (1999), evaluation can follow a different purpose at each of the three levels, and therefore, it can have different audiences and uses at each level.

It is important to note that although evaluation purposes have been presented in four different clusters, the identified clusters are not necessarily exclusive. For example, “understanding, as a research activity to explain why phenomena occur in programs, may also serve the improving function” (Kiely, 2009, p. 100). Relevant to the issues of purpose and audience is evaluation use, which includes, but is not limited to, allocating of district budget; accrediting schools, satisfying an external funding agency’s demand for program accountability, improving an aspect of the program, etc. These uses, accordingly, are justified based on judgments regarding program worth, merit and significance. The notion of worth refers to program relevance and value, and focuses on the degree to which the program benefits justify the costs. Significance, on the other hand, concerns the degree to which a program is important for a change to happen. Finally, program merit refers to program quality and effectiveness. According to Scriven (2003), professional evaluation always begins with a list of criteria of merit. These criteria, which are the considerations that are relevant to the evaluand, should not “be confused with logically necessary or sufficient conditions” (Scriven, 2003, p. 33). For instance, if you are sure that private schools, on average, provide a better education, you should not send your child to a private school because it is a private school; rather, you should check the school for its merit, for instance, through comparing it with a public school.

Criteria of merit (sometimes called dimensions or aspects of merit) have traditionally involved a focus on the goals and outcomes of programs based on what the programs did rather than what the program participants were able to do during and after having the service. Such an

outcome-based perspective, with a focus on results rather than processes, has been challenged for exclusively focusing on standards and objectives, and therefore, ignoring unanticipated effects of the programs, their side-impacts (impacts on populations other than the program participants), their hidden costs, and the processes by which the results are achieved (Hendriksen, Yang, Love, & Hall, 2006). Eisner (1985) provides a good example in this regard. Educational evaluations should be similar to an art critique, where the trained eye can find the subtleties that others cannot always see. Accordingly, evaluations should not solely be concerned with a final answer on the effectiveness of a program; rather, they should also involve how improvements can be made, what is working and what is not. This is in line with Greene's (1999) position that, "the limited constructions of program effectiveness have not served our social institutions and our society very well. Nor have they offered meaningful pathways to full citizenry of our violence-ridden urban youth, our isolated rural families, our undereducated, under-skilled, unemployed workers" (p. 160).

Recent doubts about the limited definitions of program quality and effectiveness have led to a shift towards a focus on the processes involved in educational programs. One consequence of such a shift for the field of education has been that programs are now more and more required to "be accountable for what difference they are making in the lives of their participants and not just for providing a service" (Greene, p. 160). Second language development programs have been no exception in this regard. Facing the challenges of growing enrollments and changing students' demographics (Statistics Canada, 2008), L2 programs have been questioned for claiming quality and effectiveness based on the number of students attending such programs, or significant pre-post gain in language skills for program participants, without extending these

skills to make a real difference in the program participants' lives (Kiely, 2009). In addition, L2 program evaluation studies have been criticized for being reduced to a set of activities to monitor teachers' adherence to program standards and guidelines (Kiely, 2009; Norris, 2006). Kiely (2009), for example, argues that when program evaluation is limited to a minimum focus on standards and monitoring teachers' adherence to guidelines (i.e., shaping good practice through quality control frameworks), evaluation marginalizes the individual teacher and the contribution she makes to improving programs. In addition, this approach requires that "the individual teacher interpret principles or theories for her specific instructional context, while at the same time suggesting that it is not the teacher, but the researcher or the policy-maker who is the one to make such a specification. The challenge of learning from evaluation is to how to integrate theory, policy and experiences of teachers so that they may jointly shape understanding and developmental actions in programs" (Kiely, 2009, p.104). The dialogue among theory, policy, and teachers' experiences should also extend to include program participants' experiences, values and perspectives, for, as Sanders (1992) posits, evaluation should function as "a transformative catalyst that improves schools [programs] and all who work and learn within them" (p. viii).

In a unique contribution to the field of L2 education, Cadiero-Kaplan (2004) offers a very useful evaluation framework (Figure 2.1), which provides a space for such a dialogue among theory, policy, teachers, learners and other stakeholders. More specifically, the framework incorporates major stakeholder input at different levels of evaluation and program components. The framework, which builds on crucial reflective processes, aims at supporting "further dialogue and understanding of teaching practices and curriculum" (p. xxiii) among all the

stakeholders involved. Cadiero-Kaplan's (2004) framework focuses on analyzing policy and programming at the intersection of different policy levels (i.e., micro and macro) and varying program components (i.e., ranging from administrative staff to students and parents) across six dimensions, which include:

- ◆ ***Value for Learners:*** This area examines how ELLs [English language learners] are viewed within the policies and programs in which they participate, and how they are perceived by concerned stakeholders (i.e., teachers, administrators, parents, self). Areas of concentration include identifying how students are valued as participants in the learning process, and how they are valued for being bilingual, biliterate, or learning English.
- ◆ ***Literacy Orientation:*** This area examines the various definitions of literacy among stakeholders. Areas of concern include the value that is placed on literacy as well as recognition for various forms of literacy and language learning – essentially how literacy is valued, not only among teachers and students but across policies and programs. This dimension seeks to clarify the multiple forms of literacy that are important and/or valued by stakeholders.
- ◆ ***Instructional Goals:*** This area identifies the goals of instruction and learning, including expectations of the learner with respect to learning English and content area literacy.
- ◆ ***Resources:*** This domain is concerned with the financial, material, and human resources that are allocated/dedicated to programming and curricula for ELLs.

Included here are personnel resources such as the capacity of the teaching staff and materials utilized in curriculum development and teaching.

- ◆ ***Accountability and Assessment:*** This domain seeks to determine accountability of not only student achievement and success, but also program implementation including transition and testing, and the levels of accountability of those responsible for the process.
- ◆ ***Expectations for Learners:*** In this domain, the framework seeks to clarify expectations of students as defined by stakeholders, policies, and programs. For example, what students are expected to be able to do and/or accomplish by graduation, including expectations and methods of preparedness. (Cadiero-Kaplan, 2004, pp. xxiii-xxiv).

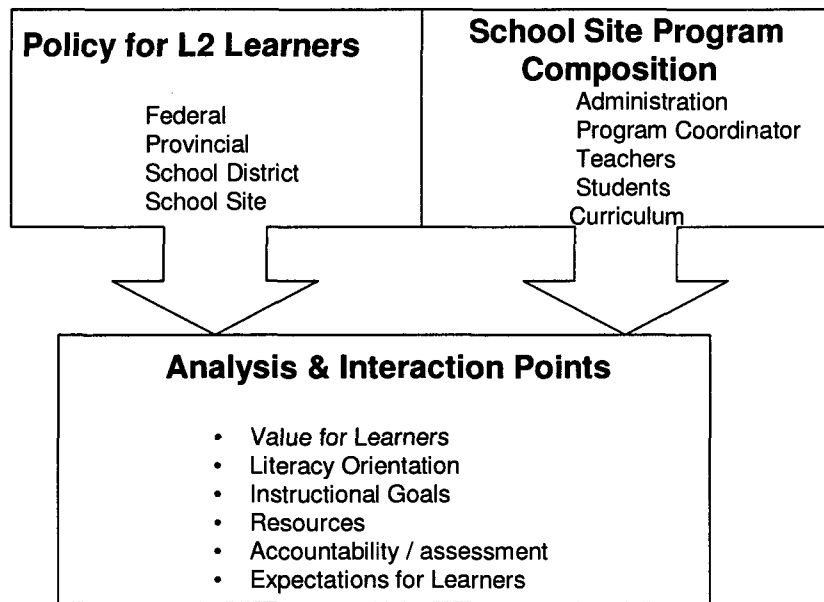


Figure 2.1 Policy and program evaluation framework (adapted from Cadiero-Kaplan; 2004)

As demonstrated in Figure 2.1, the framework distinguishes among varying policy levels: mega, macro, and micro. Mega level policies are those developed for and/or at the level of federal and provincial governments; macro level policies are those developed for and/or at the level of school districts; and micro policies are specific to a program (or some aspect of a program). The framework makes it possible to explore the interaction of the mega-, macro- and micro-level policies with different program components, including administration, program coordinator, teachers, students and curriculum. Building on a 2001-programming toolkit, Cadiero-Kaplan (2001) further offers a program evaluation instrument (Cadiero-Kaplan, 2004) which can be utilized to evaluate the stated six dimensions, i.e., value for learners, literacy orientations, instructional goals, resources, accountability and assessment, and expectations for

learners. The purpose of both the framework and the instrument is to provide a representation of the levels in which both policy and programming are engaged within and across all levels of an educational organization. What is also interesting in Cadiero-Kaplan's framework is its taking account of varying understandings of literacy/language development. This is particularly relevant, for "educational values should drive not only what we choose to assess but also how we do so. When questions about educational mission and values are skipped over, assessment threatens to be an exercise in measuring what is easy, rather than a process of improving what we really care about" (Astin, Banta, Cross, El-Khawas, Ewell, & Hutchings, 1992, p. 2).

Performance expectations for learners and literacy orientation from among the six dimensions of Cadiero-Kaplan's evaluation framework are particularly relevant to the understanding of listening adopted in this study. Listening as a skill, with a focus on performance, will be examined along performance expectations for learners, while listening as a form of multiple literacies, with a focus on listening processes, will be explored along the literacy orientation dimension of the framework.

Consideration of both performance and process dimensions of language and literacy development has been noted in the literacy literature, too. In an effort to create a balance between literacy skills and processes, Fransman (2006) offers a heuristic framework for monitoring and evaluation purposes in literacy programs (Figure 2.2).

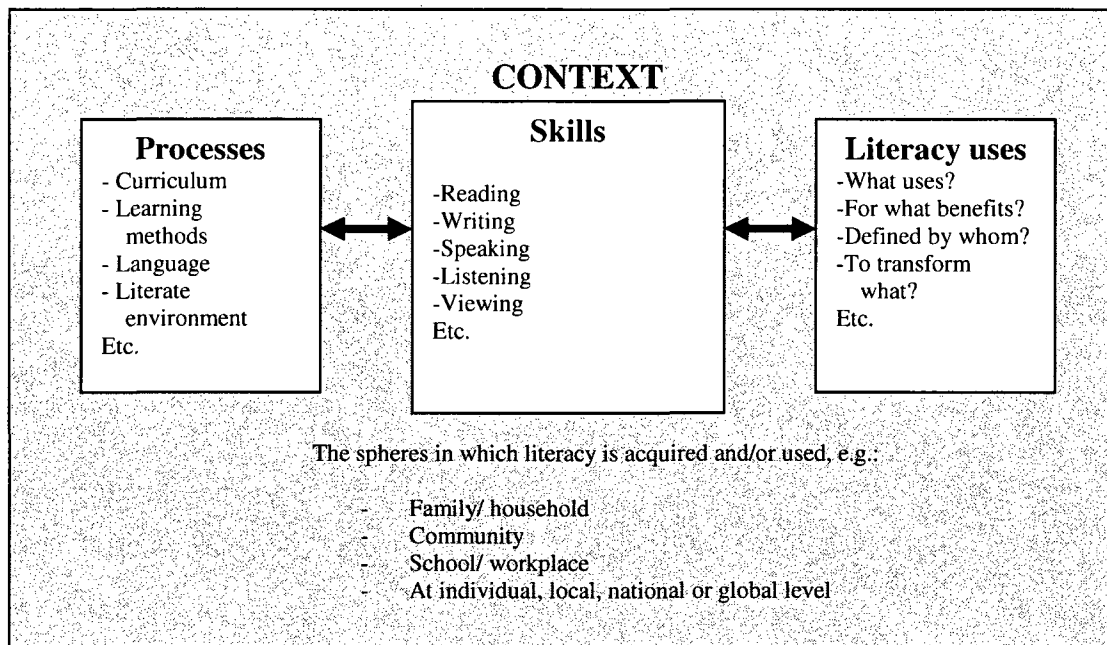


Figure 2.2: Heuristic framework for monitoring and evaluation of literacy
(adapted from Fransman, 2006)

As demonstrated in Figure 2.2, central to Fransman’s framework is the interaction between the three dimensions of literacy skills, processes and uses. According to Fransman (2006), an important aspect of this framework is the notion of literacy as a tangible set of measurable skills, which include the skills of reading, writing, speaking, listening and numeracy in a language (or languages) that is (or are) relevant to the learner. Another important aspect of the framework is literacy process, which can have significant impact on the motivation for learning, the skills that are learnt and the way that these skills are used in later life. These processes include, but are not limited to, “creative expression, critical engagement with the

world, psychological empowerment and the accumulation of values: outcomes that may not be tangible and may not even transpire until much later” (p. 24). Finally, the uses of literacy are particularly relevant to the monitoring and evaluation efforts, because young people and adults must “perform capably in multi-lingual environments, whether socially, emotionally or psychologically, in business, trade, cultural and religious practice and exchange, politics, practices of citizenship, in other learning environments or developmental activities. Consequently, literacy skills must be directly linked to enabling access to and participation in these different spheres, events and practices” (p. 24). Fransman admits that isolating the skills dimension of literacy from its processes and uses is problematic. However, she posits that such as effort is still the most commonly used methodology for monitoring and evaluation purposes. While Fransman’s framework is valuable in that it links the skills dimension of literacy to literacy processes and uses, the inclusion of the skills dimension in the center of the framework projects an over-emphasis on measurable skills as compared to the other two dimensions. In addition, it is curious that reading, writing, speaking, listening and viewing have been exclusively placed under the skills dimension and are not linked to the process dimension.

In sum, the current study conceptualizes L2 listening both as a skill and a literacy process while establishing a dialogue between program policy, and program leaders’ and participants’ performance, perceptions and experiences in the area of L2 listening. More specifically, the study attempts to examine listening both as a skill and a component of multiple literacies based on input from the EIP participants’ performance, perceptions, and experiences and leaders’ perceptions in the area of listening development, and to evaluate EIP program policies and practice guidelines along Cadiero-Kaplan’s performance expectations for learners and literacy

orientation dimensions. In addition, based on Greene's (2007) four clusters of evaluation purposes and audiences, the current study's purpose is to develop an in-depth understanding of the EIP program and its practices in the area of L2 listening development from the perspective of program participants and leaders.

2.5 - Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed the research literature on literacy, L2 listening and program evaluation. The review demonstrated that current studies of L2 listening mainly focus on listening comprehension (i.e., the product of listening). This points to the need for a more inclusive conceptualization of L2 listening, which can take account of critical processes as listeners participate in listening activities. It also brings to the attention the relevance of investigations which take account of the ways in which different levels (e.g., macro and micro) and components (policies, teachers, and curriculum) of L2 programs interact to facilitate/hinder the teaching and learning of L2 listening both as a skill and a literacy process.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

3.1 - Introduction

In this chapter, the methodology of this mixed-methods study will be described. First, I will discuss the conceptual framework and the world view stance adopted in the study. Following this, I will present the mixed-methods design, which has shaped the methods of data collection and analysis, and the procedures for validation of the adopted methods.

The aim of the present study was to examine L2 listening both as a skill and as a component of multiple literacies, which takes account of both listening performance and processes, and to evaluate program policies and practice guidelines -- of an English Intensive Program (the EIP) at a university in Canada – in the area of L2 listening across the two dimensions of Cadiero-Kaplan's (2004) Language Policy and Programming Framework: listening performance expectations for learners and literacy orientations.

3.2 - The English Intensive Program (EIP)

The program under study was an EIP in a large university in Canada, which hosts approximately 30,000 students. The EIP typically welcomes between 500 to 700 international students each year. Through 21 hours of instruction per week, the EIP courses help the program participants to develop communication and language skills in an academic environment. Broadly speaking, the EIP provides a curriculum for adult international English language learners to increase their English language skills so they can successfully conduct their future academic studies in the English language. The focus is to provide educational and language learning

opportunities that will enable the program participants to be independent language learners, successful in their future academic programs and, ultimately, productive members of society and the workplace. The program also takes account of the participants' social needs by providing social activities through a range of delivery options including social outings and field trips. Through English language instruction, therefore, EIP participants are expected to work towards the attainment of the targeted ESL proficiency standards and goals as well as the achievement and realization of long-term personal, social and economic success in an English speaking society.

The primary responsibility of the EIP is to ensure that all the learners successfully participate in the academic and social activities. The initial step in the implementation of EIP courses is the establishment of teaching teams that are responsible for making instructional decisions based on the current program policies and practice guidelines. The next step is the application of formal and informal assessment measures to determine the participants' language proficiency level and the level which best suites their needs. At the beginning of each academic session, therefore, student performance on the EIP language proficiency placement test is used to identify and place the participants at the appropriate instructional level. Level change is possible if both teachers and learners feel some of the placed learners may benefit from lower or higher level courses. An innovative aspect of the EIP is its bridging role to the regular academic program in the parent university. Students who successfully complete the high advanced level of the EIP (Level 500) are considered to have met the language requirements for admission to the regular undergraduate programs in the parent university.

Broadly speaking, the policies specify the following responsibilities for the teaching teams:

- ◆ Provide and deliver instruction on EIP language proficiency standards developed from the CanTEST benchmarks (Academic beginner, 1.5/2; Mid Beginner, 2+/2.5-; High Beginner, 2.5+/3-; Low Intermediate, 3/3+; Mid Intermediate, 3+/3.5-; High Intermediate, 3.5/3.5+; Low Advanced, 4/4+/4.5-; Mid Advanced, 4.5/5-; High Advanced, 5/5+;
- ◆ Collaborate with the rest of the teaching team to ensure that the EIP participants are acquiring the necessary academic English language to meet the regular program standards;
- ◆ Incorporate technology into instructional planning and delivery;
- ◆ Assess learner progress regularly and adjust instruction accordingly;
- ◆ Inform the EIP learners, other teaching team members and the coordinator about learner progress; and,
- ◆ Formally report learner progress at the end of each session.

Source: EIP Guidelines for Teachers and Teaching Assistants

3.3 - Mixed Methods Approach

This study consisted of two phases and involved a mixed-methods approach. In the first phase, the study sought to verify findings from, and along with, the literature regarding the role of cognitive (metacognitive learning strategies) and affective factors (motivation orientations) on the development of L2 listening as a skill, and to inform the program policies and practice

guidelines as to the influence and relevance of these factors. More specifically, the focus of this phase was to survey the program participants about their metacognitive strategy use and their motivation orientations in order to develop a model of listening as a skill, which could explain the ways in which strategy use and motivation orientations influence the participants' performance. The model, which was developed based on participants' perceptions and performance, was next used as criteria for evaluating the EIP listening performance expectations for learners as stated in program policies and practice guidelines. Therefore, the results of the model were juxtaposed with the program policies and practice guidelines in order to discover areas of mismatch and discrepancy. The results of these surveys, together with the results of the program policy reviews, provided answers to the following research questions and sub-questions:

1. What is the role of reported strategy use and learner motivation (i.e., metacognitive listening strategies and motivation orientations) in the EIP participants' L2 listening performance?
 - a. What metacognitive listening strategies do EIP participants report using?
 - b. What motivation orientations do the EIP learners report?
 - c. What linear combination of reported metacognitive strategies and motivation orientations best predicts listening performance?
2. To what degree do performance expectations for learners regarding L2 listening development, as stated in the EIP policy and practice guidelines, reflect strategy use and learner motivation (i.e., metacognitive listening strategies and motivation orientations)?

The second phase of this study used data from the first phase for the purposes of participant selection and development of interview protocols. In this second phase, listening was conceptualized as a component of multiple literacies, based on which program policies and practice guidelines were evaluated (across Cadiero-Kaplan's (2004) literacy orientation dimension). More specifically, the second phase of the study focused on the extent to which program policies and practices valued (supported and interacted with) different orientations towards literacy (ranging from literacy as an autonomous skill to literacy as multiple and critical) and captured the sense-making processes involved in listening events. To this end, a review of program policy documents, semi-structured interviews (with the EIP leaders and learners) and classroom observations were conducted to answer the following questions and sub-questions:

3. How do EIP policy and practice guidelines view L2 listeners and the development of L2 listening?
4. How do EIP leaders, i.e., program teachers and coordinator, view and value different orientations towards literacy and their relation to the teaching of L2 listening?
5. What are the sense-making processes experienced by EIP learners in listening/literacy activities and are these processes captured by the policymaker's assumption of literacy?

According to Creswell and Clark (2007), conducting a mixed-method study requires researchers not only to know about existing alternative stances, but also to explicitly articulate the views they are using in the methods section of the study. Therefore, in the next section, I will

first discuss the overarching conceptual framework for using mixed methods, which allows me to use multiple and paradoxical paradigms in one study. Next, I will focus on the integrated mixed-methods design of the study. The first part of the design section will discuss the conceptual framework, participants and data collection procedures of Phase I of the study (i.e., L2 listening as a skill and listening performance expectations for learners). The second part of the design section will explain the conceptual framework, participants and data collection procedures of Phase II of the study (i.e., L2 listening as a component of multiple literacies and literacy orientation). The rest of the chapter will focus on the researcher's role, ethical issues and interactive data analysis used in this study.

3.3.1 - Conceptual Framework for Using Mixed Methods

Mixed methods is an orientation towards social research and evaluation which is rooted in multiple ways of making sense of the social world, or in other words, multiple stand points on what is important and what should be valued (Greene, 2007). For this study, I have adopted Greene and Garacelli's (1997; 2003) 'dialectic' lens on mixed methods, which encourages the use of multiple and often paradoxical paradigms in one study (Figure 3.1). A dialectic position invites "the juxtaposition of opposed or contradictory ideas, to interact with the tensions invoked by these contesting arguments, or to engage in the play of ideas" (Greene & Caracelli, 2003, p. 96).

A dialectic lens, however, requires a departure from the traditional conceptualization of inquiry. This lens is consistent with Rorty's vision of creative inquiry (1989) in philosophy, in which researchers embrace self-creation by inviting incommensurate and contradictory

narratives. Rorty (1990) uses the word “edification” (p. 5) to capture the notion of the poetic activity of making connections between our own culture or discipline with that of others, which seem to follow incommensurable aims in incommensurable vocabularies. Thus, to Rorty (1990), the search for establishing the foundation of knowledge (i.e., commensurability) is self-deception, or in Sartre’s terms, ‘bad faith’⁴. Social inquiry, on the contrary, should be the ‘poetic’ discourse of thinking up new aims and new words, which allows “the reinterpretation of our familiar surroundings in the unfamiliar terms of our new inventions” (Rorty, 1979, p.360), which takes us out of our old selves “by the power of strangeness to aid us in becoming new beings” (p. 360). The following section focuses on Rorty’s vision of creative inquiry.

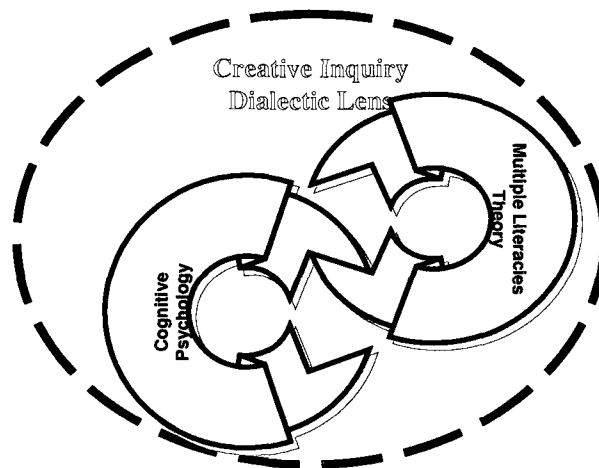


Figure 3.1: Dialectic Lens

⁴ In *Being and Nothingness*, Sartre introduces the notion of “bad faith”, i.e., lying to oneself. One aspect of “bad faith” is to accept non-persuasive evidence about being self-deceived; therefore, “bad faith” is not genuinely believing in the object of self-deception; rather, it is the willingness to be the victim of being self-deceived.

3.3.1.1- Creative Inquiry

Rortian creative inquiry is a position which moves beyond the problems of epistemology and takes advantage of methodological plurality. It is a framework that emphasizes the primacy of *practice* or *practices* in philosophy and “criticizes the idea that philosophy or any field of inquiry for that matter, rests upon fixed foundations of knowledge” (Ozmon & Craver, 1999, p. 145). As such, it rejects the duality between knowledge and experience, and offers an alternative to both traditional and post-modern philosophies. In *Philosophy and the Mirror of Nature* (1990), Rorty fully explains that the quest for finding the foundations of knowledge is an illusionary activity, “which is drawn straight from Descartes” (p. 62), who first posited the gap between the body and mind and created the so-called ‘problem of knowledge’. If we accept the duality between the world and the mind, the next question is how the mind can know the world. In order to address this problem, Rorty suggest, Descartes used the image of the mirror, i.e., the mind reflects and *represents* the world. To Rorty, this image is deceptive⁵, because once we acknowledge the image, then we have to answer the next question: how are we sure this world is accurately represented? Rorty (1990) posits the only way to deal with this problem is to avoid or deny the assumption that the aim of knowing is to *represent* the world. Accordingly, before Descartes there was no epistemological problem in the modern sense, and philosophy has been since “confused and thus needs transformation” (p. 139). The instrument for transformation is rejection of epistemology through “a non-representational view of truth or knowledge” (Mounce, 1997, p. 178). From a non- representational perspective, nothing counts as justification unless by reference to what we already accept, and “there is no way to get outside our beliefs and our

⁵ “Contemporary philosophers, having updated Descartes, can be dualist without their dualism making the slightest difference to any human interest or concern” (Rorty, 1990, p. 68).

language so as to find some test other than coherence” (Mounce, 1997, p. 188). Therefore, it can be suggested that our beliefs are true not because they correspond to a world independent of themselves, but in relation to our other beliefs. In this sense, justification of a belief is “conversational and it occurs within the conversation of which it is a part” (Rorty, 1990, p. 163). According to Rorty (1990), the conversation needs no foundation and therefore epistemology, which seeks to provide it, is irrelevant. By rejecting the epistemological proposition of determining “a theory of knowledge which studies how knowledge is gained, how much we can know, and what justification there is for what is known” (Fetzer & Almeder, 1993, p. 53), Rorty engages himself in the project of what Kulp (1992) calls “the end of epistemology”. It is here that Rortian vision provides the platform for dialectic thinking in inquiry. Rorty suggests that in inquiry which is dependent on epistemology, knowledge is obtained based on central principles and meta-vocabularies; these principles and vocabularies limit people and cause “constraint and confrontation” (Rorty, 1990, p. 315). In inquiry which rejects epistemology, on the contrary, there is no principle of knowledge already given to us; therefore, it requires adopting a conversational attitude rather than a confrontational one (Rorty, 1990).

3.3.1.2 - Creative and Abnormal Inquiry

Rejecting epistemology also requires a different discourse than normal discourse. According to Rorty (1990), discourse is normal when people share principles or criteria and on this basis arrive at some common views⁶. When discourse is normal, one is satisfied with epistemology, because “epistemology sees the hope of agreement as a token of the existence of

⁶ “Normal discourse is that which is conducted within an agreed-upon set of conventions about what counts as a relevant contribution, what counts as answering a question, what counts as having a good argument for that answer or a good criticism of it” (Rorty, 1990, p. 320).

common ground which, perhaps unbeknown to the speakers, unites them in a common rationality” (p. 318). But discourse is not always normal. For example, when cultures differ, some standards might overlap; others might diverge. We cannot expect the cultures to be governed by the same criteria and standards all the time. In this case, we have to “play back and forth with guesses about how to characterize particular statements or other events, and guesses about the whole situation, until we gradually feel at ease with what used to be strange” (p. 319). Rorty suggests that when standards and criteria diverge, it is the role of the researcher to mediate between diverging statements, and standards in two cultures, disciplines, perspectives, etc. And when common principles win, it is again the researcher who should suggest other possibilities. In other words, it is the researcher’s role to initiate the possibility of “abnormal conversation” (p. 320)⁷ and creativity.

According to Mounce (1997), the distinction between normal and creative discourse can be applied independent of the subject. For example, we can find diverging and disagreeing taste both in art and in science. Quantum mechanics and literature provide good examples in this regard. “In quantum mechanics, the probability of finding a particle at a certain position is the square of the wave function. Therefore, in quantum mechanics, waves and particles, which according to the laws of classical mechanics are paradoxical, are used in the same equation” (p. 198). Likewise, in literature, fictional narrative prose has been used to introduce the idea of recounting the same tale in several contradictory ways. In addition, we have already experienced a period of abnormal science (creative inquiry) in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, when “the Ptolemaic and the Copernican theories both seemed to cover the facts and there was no

⁷ “The product of abnormal discourse can be anything from nonsense to intellectual revolution, and there is no discipline which describes it, any more than there is a discipline devoted to the study of the unpredictable, or of creativity” (Rorty, 1990, p. 320).

agreement” (Mounce, 1997, 195). In the period of normal discourse, the researcher tries to represent the world and tries to prove that his theories correspond to facts; this is only possible when there are agreed standards or criteria for what counts as fact. In a period of abnormal and creative inquiry, on the contrary, there are no such standards; therefore, the scientist can be a creator (like a poet), who creates the standards. Needless to say that epistemological commensuration is only possible in normal discourse, where we are perfectly familiar with what is happening and we want to “codify it in order to extend, or strengthen, or teach, or ground it” (Rorty, 1990, p. 321). In creative discourse, on the contrary, we do not understand what is happening “but are honest enough to admit it” (p. 321).

In the fields of L2 Acquisition, L2 teaching and learning, and the broader field of education epistemological commensuration does not mean we have discovered something about the nature of a phenomenon, which then helps us perfectly understand what is happening; rather, it only means we are comfortable with our “already agreed-upon practices” (Rorty, 1990, p. 321), i.e., practicing in normal discourse. An alternative to this normal discourse, however, could be our moving beyond what Rorty calls “universal commensuration” (p. 377). This requires openness to available and possible discourses within and beyond our fields. It should be mentioned that the aim of such an inquiry should not be to find the truth, but to “edify” (Rorty, 1990, p. 357). Edification, according to Rorty (1990), is when we initiate inquiry through a “criticism of our comfortable assumptions to shake us loose and to develop new and more creative approaches to thought” (Ozmon and Craver, 1999, p. 146). It is through this process of edification that we stop to confront and start to participate in the conversation. The aim of edifying inquiry, therefore, is “to keep the conversation going” (Rorty, 1990, p. 377), by turning

it to a new side or by throwing a fresh idea. It is commitment to such an aim which helps us not only “to respect but also to engage intellectually” (Ortega, 2005, p. 436) with work resulting from different traditions, schools of thought, and theories. This engagement is beneficial particularly because it “permeates our meta-reflections to make them more constructive and pluralistic” (p. 436).

From this position, we do not assume there is a permanent framework, “whether that be objective, subjective, or linguistic” (Mourad, 1997, p. 123), that can provide a common ground for all research investigations. This provides the possibility of enlarging the scope of conversation in our field by moving from a normal conversation to an edifying one. The process of edification, for example, can consist of making connections between the linguistic/cognitive perspective and critical literacy perspectives, which seem to follow incommensurable aims in incommensurable vocabularies. This, in Rorty’s words, is the ‘poetic’ activity of thinking up new aims and new words, which allows “the reinterpretation of our familiar surroundings in the unfamiliar terms of our new inventions” (Rorty, 1982, p. 15). New aims and words help us re-conceptualize the present understandings of SLA research, which portrays a “straightjacket that constrains our imagination of what is possible in the field” (Ortega, 2005, p. 436). The current study takes a step towards this direction. Situated in Rorty’s creative inquiry, the first phase of the study draws mainly on the works of cognitive psychology, in particular the literature on individual differences. The second phase, on the other hand, is informed by the works of Deleuze (1994) in philosophy and Pierce (1931-58) in semiotics. Borrowing from Rorty, however, neither of these frameworks can be taken as a foundation for objective truth, but rather should be taken as poetic and imaginative narratives. Cognitive psychology and Multiple Literacies Theory have

been selected for the purposes of this study, because they provide the context for studying listening both as a skill and as a literacy process. Broadly speaking, while cognitive psychology concerns the performance or product of learning (which helps to examine the skill dimension of listening), Multiple Literacies Theory focuses on processes involved in learning (which helps to examine the literacy process dimension of listening).

The details of the two frameworks are discussed in the design section, which first focuses on the specific purposes of using a mixed methods inquiry in this study: initiation and development. Next, the design section provides the conceptual framework, participants and data collection procedures of Phase I and Phase II of the study in separate sub-sections.

3.4 - Study Design

3.4.1 - Purpose

In accordance with the stated inquiry view, the purpose of this mixed-methods study could be stated as *initiation*. According to Greene (2007), with initiation, different methods are utilized to examine different aspects of the same complex phenomena, but the intended result is “paradox, contradiction and divergence” (p.102). In the present research, EIP policies, L2 listening outcomes, responses to the metacognitive awareness and motivation orientations questionnaires, along with class observations, and interviews with the EIP major stakeholders (i.e., EIP leaders and participants) were used to generate a complex picture of L2 listening, as well as the EIP landscape as it relates to the development of L2 listening ability. Using these data, which “are all significantly different from one another in stance, form and perspective” (Greene, 2007, p.103), serves the purpose of including points of convergence and divergence in

conceptualizing listening as a skill and a form of multiple literacies, and in examining and describing the EIP program policies and practice guidelines, EIP leaders' perceptions and EIP participants' performance, perceptions, and experiences (all in relation to L2 listening).

The second major reason for employing mixed methods inquiry was *development*. According to Greene (2007), in a mixed methods development study, the results of one method are used to inform the development of another. In this study, the results of the first phase of the study were used to select participants and to develop interview protocols for the second phase.

3.4.2 - An Integrated Mixed-Methods Design

Focusing on the stated purposes of the study, therefore, an *integrated* mixed-methods design was adopted to integrate different method types (see Figure 3.2). "The methods can be mixed in ways that integrate elements of disparate paradigms and have the potential to produce significantly more insightful, even dialectically transformed understandings of the phenomenon under investigation" (Caracelli & Greene, 1997, p. 23). This design was selected particularly because interactions between methods were needed to take place at different levels: sample selection, and data analysis. First, the results of the survey data in the first phase were used to guide decisions regarding the selection of participants for the second phase. In addition, responses to the survey questionnaires guided some of the interview questions. There was also consistent dialogue between the different methods, especially through connecting and comparing during the data analysis phase of this investigation. It is important to note that the qualitative and quantitative methods were of equal status.

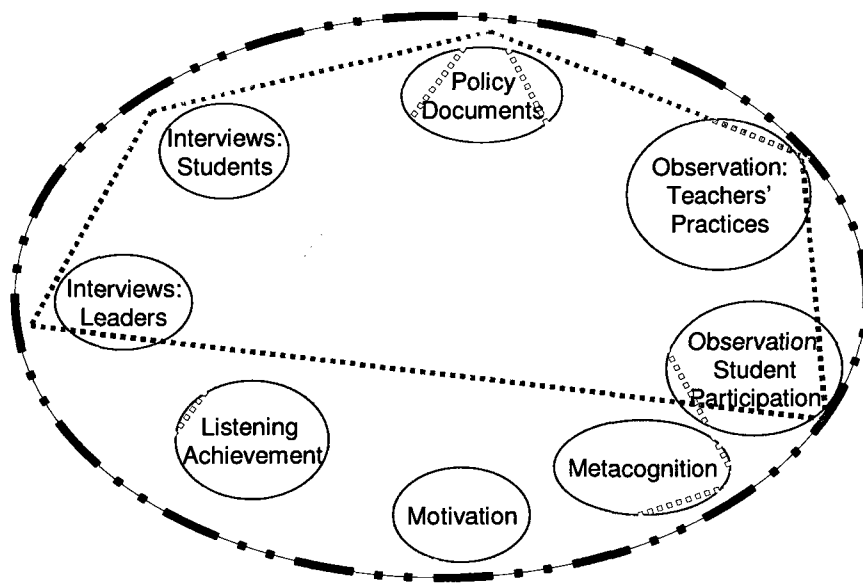


Figure 3.2: Integrated Mixed-Method Design

In what follows, I will discuss the specific conceptual framework and theories I have used in order to examine the skill dimension of L2 listening and to evaluate the EIP policy and practice guidelines along Cadiero-Kaplan's performance expectations for learners: cognitive psychology, and metacognition and self-determination theory of motivation. I will next provide the details of the participants, data collection procedures and instrumentation of the first phase of the study.

3.5 - Phase I: Listening as a Skill and Performance Expectations for Learners

3.5.1 - Conceptual Framework

The first phase of this study examined listening as a skill, by exploring the role of non-linguistic factors in listening performance, and evaluated the listening performance expectations for learners as stated in the EIP program policies and practice guidelines. The two factors which were of particular interest in this phase were metacognitive strategy use and learner motivation orientations. As mentioned earlier, these two variables appear to explain a high degree of variability in listening performance (Vandergrift, 2005; Tafaghodtari & Vandergrift, 2008). They have also been demonstrated to be instrumental in regulation of learners' performance and achievement in different areas (Kitsantas, 2002; Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001; Zimmerman, 2008). In addition, previous literature on the role of non-linguistic factors in L2 listening performance has highlighted the need for a more in-depth exploration of the ways in which learning strategies and motivation orientations interact, and the degree to which their interactions influence L2 listening performance (Tafaghodtari & Vandergrift, 2008). Previous research involving learning strategies and motivation orientations has been informed by the fields of cognitive psychology and individual differences (ID) research. For this reason, these two fields provide the context for the study of learning strategies and motivation orientations.

Cognitive psychology concerns the processes of learning, perception, memory, problem-solving and decision making. Within this tradition, "human beings are limited-capacity processors, that complex [communicative] skills involve the integration of elements, and that skills become routinized" (McLaughlin, Rossman, & McLeod, 1983, p. 136). Cognitive psychology describes humans' limited processing capacity in terms of two dimensions: the focus of attention (a function of task demands) and information-processing ability (a function of how individuals deal with the information on the basis of past experiences) (Schmidt, 2001). As such,

cognitive psychology explores the ways in which people process large amounts of information and develop complex cognitive and social skills.

Extensive research in contemporary cognitive psychology has focused on individuals' awareness of their cognitive processes, i.e., metacognition, as well as the efficient use of this awareness to self-regulate the cognitive processes (e.g. Brown, 1987; Flavell 1979; Shimamura, 2000). These regulatory processes are particularly relevant to the way in which cognitive psychology views individuals as learners. From a cognitive psychology perspective, learning is a developmental process for novice individuals to become experts (Bruer, 1993). Novices and experts differ in the way they understand, comprehend, restore and manipulate knowledge. In other words, novices and experts differ not only in the knowledge they possess, but also in their problem-solving behavior. According to Conner (2002), novices hold naïve ideas about how things work; however, these ideas do not reflect their intelligence, but their lack of experience. Experts, on the contrary, are experienced and hold theories which are instrumental in successful performance on tasks. In addition, while novices see individual parts, experts see chunks of relevant information: "The experts' more effective, more information-rich chunks allow them to see a larger scope and choose more appropriate areas to turn their attention. Because of this chunking, experts process more and better information in the same amount of time" (Conner, 2002, p. 3). From this perspective, learners are viewed as novices, who differ from their expert teachers in the way they perform tasks, solve problems, and chunk and structure information. With the right approach, learners can progress from relative naiveté, through a series of partial understandings, to eventual subject mastery by understanding facts, strategies, and when to use each.

In addition, individual difference (ID) research is an area within cognitive psychology which explores the “uniqueness of the individual mind” (Dörnyei, 2005, p.1). While ID research concerns anything that marks human beings as distinct and unique (e.g., motivation, personality, anxiety, creativity), it finds the unique constructs relevant to the extent that they show endurance over time (De Raad, 2000; Eysenck, 1994). Thus, ID research concerns “dimensions of personal characteristics that are assumed to apply to everybody and on which people differ by degree” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 4). More recent ID research has introduced the notion of self-determination to such personal characteristics as motivation. Self-determination behavior includes actions which have intrinsic value to the individual and therefore are accepted as personally meaningful and valuable (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Deci & Ryan, 2002). Recent conceptualizations of learning strategies have considered the existence of a trait-like strategic potential that helps learners become effective strategy users. Winne and Perry (2000), for example, argue for an ID dimension to metacognition and self-regulation.

Cognitive psychology and its associated assumptions regarding successful performance, teachers and learners, therefore, provide the context for the first phase of the study, which focuses on the examination of the performance and skill aspects of L2 listening, as well as the ways in which the two variables of metacognitive strategies and motivation orientations influence and interact with these aspects. The next section provides the details of metacognition and self-determination theory of motivation.

3.5.1.1 - Metacognition: Knowledge, Regulation and Experience

In its broadest definition, metacognition refers to cognition about cognition or thinking about thinking (Flavel, 1979). More specifically, metacognition has been defined as the awareness of one's cognitive processes (Brown, 1987; Hartman, 2001; Shimamura, 2000). The existing literature on metacognition identifies two aspects of metacognition: knowledge about cognition and the regulation of cognition (Veenman, 2006; Vrugt & Oort, 2008). Knowledge about cognition concerns those beliefs about the factors that affect the outcomes of a cognitive activity, including person, task, and strategy characteristics as well as knowledge about the interactions between and among these three categories (Flavel, 1979). Metacognitive knowledge also encompasses knowing what factors influence human knowledge (i.e., declarative knowledge); knowing how certain skills work and how they should be applied (i.e., procedural knowledge) and finally knowing when strategies are needed (i.e., conditional knowledge) (Cross & Paris, 1988). Building on Flavel's framework, Goh (2002), outlines the application of person, task and strategy categories to second language listening (see Figure 3.3).

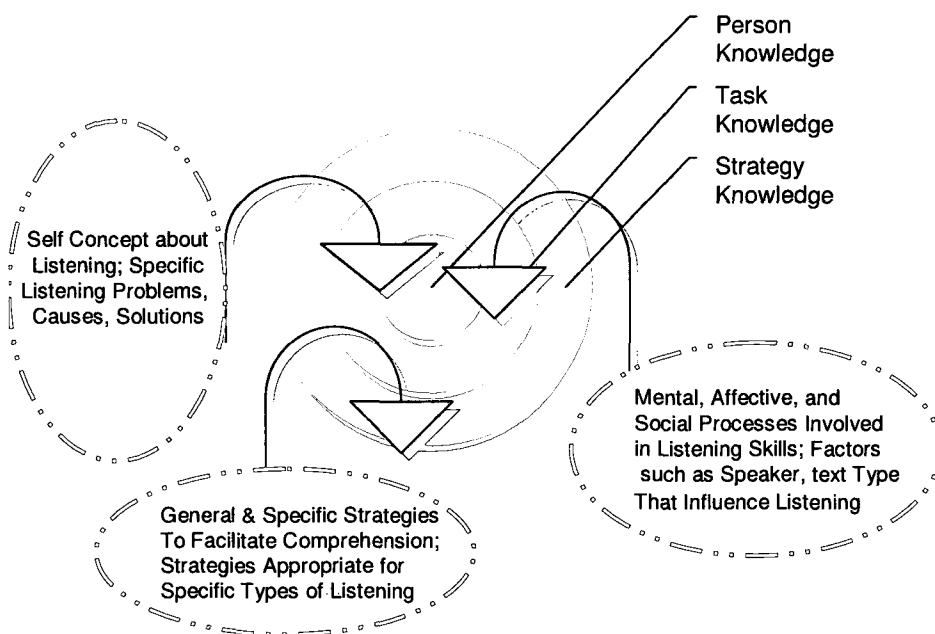


Figure 3.3: Metacognitive knowledge about listening (adapted from Goh, 2002)

Regulation of cognition, on the other hand, refers to a set of activities that help learners control their learning. From among the many activities that have been identified by researchers of a variety of disciplines, planning, monitoring and evaluation have been consistently specified as metacognitive skills (Jacob & Paris, 1987; Veenman, Van Hout-Wolters, & Afflerbach, 2006; Winne, 1996). While planning refers to the selection of appropriate strategies which affect performance, monitoring is one's on-line awareness of task performance. Evaluation refers to assessing the quality and the product of one's learning and considering re-evaluation of goals and conclusions.

One common assumption underlying most of the investigation of metacognition is that knowledge and regulation of cognition are positively correlated (Jacob & Paris, 1987; Sperling,

Howard, Staley, & DuBois, 2004; Vrugt & Oort, 2008). However, as Vrugt & Oort (2008) note, if metacognitive knowledge is not correct, the positive relationship does not occur: “Incorrect metacognitive knowledge about their learning processes prevents students from amending this knowledge” (p. 126). Veenman, Van Hout-Wolters, and Afflerbach (2006) provide a good example in this regard:

“For instance, a student may incorrectly think that (s)he invested enough time in preparation for math exams, despite repeated failure (“but the teacher made the exams so hard to pass...”). Such misattributions prevent students from amending their self-knowledge” (p. 4).

Veenman et al., (2006) posit that, unlike metacognitive knowledge which might happen to be incorrect, metacognitive skills have a built-in feedback mechanism: “Either you are capable of planning your actions ahead and task performance progresses smoothly, or you don’t and your actions go astray. Or, you may be unsure of task performance status as metacognitive skills are developing. Failing metacognitive skills may render new metacognitive knowledge, but the process of skill acquisition takes time and effort” (Veenman et al., 2006, p. 5). Research has also shown that metacognitive knowledge and regulation influence which strategies are more relevant to use in specific contexts (Luwel, 2003; Sperling, Howard, Staley, & DuBois, 2004); that is, engagement in metacognitive activities has been found to be positively related to use of relevant metacognitive strategies.

According to Vrugt & Oort (2008), while most of the studies of metacognition have focused on cognition and regulation, metacognitive experiences have not received the attention they deserve. Metacognitive experiences have been defined as any affective experience that accompanies and pertains to any intellectual enterprise (Flavel, 1979). When people engage in cognitive tasks, they experience various affects such as interest and can accordingly judge their performance on tasks; these feelings and judgments are metacognitive in nature, note Efklides and Petkaki (2002), for they monitor features of the cognitive processing of the task and the ways in which individuals respond to them.

3.5.1.2 - Self-Determination Theory of Motivation

Self Determination Theory (SDT) posits that humans have three psychological basic needs: autonomy, competence and relatedness to others. Autonomy concerns the degree to which individuals feel responsible for the initiation of their behavior; competence is the degree to which they feel able to achieve their goals and desired outcomes; and finally relatedness to others is the extent to which individuals feel connected to other people in a positive and supportive manner. SDT begins with the assumption that all individuals have the capacity to develop a sense of self. Ryan and Deci (2004) posit that “we assume people have a primary propensity to forge interconnections among aspects of their own psyche as well as with other individuals and groups in their social worlds” (p. 5). This capacity, therefore, involves both autonomy (tending towards self-regulation) and homonomy (tending towards integration with others). Based on the social and environmental conditions, SDT predicts a broad range of developmental outcomes “ranging

from a relatively active and integrated self to a highly fragmented, passive, reactive, or alienated self” (Ryan & Deci, 2004, p. 5).

SDT also concerns the effects of social contexts on people’s intrinsic motivation and describes contextual elements which are autonomy supportive, controlling and amotivating and tries to show the connection between these types of contextual clues to different kinds of motivation. According to Deci and Ryan (2004), in intrinsically motivated behaviors, motivation is based in the satisfaction inherent in the activity itself, rather than in contingencies or reinforcements which can be separated from the activity: “Intrinsic motivation represents a prototype of self-determined activity, in that, when intrinsically motivated, people engage in activities freely, being sustained by the experience of interest and enjoyment. Thus, as it is classically defined, intrinsic motivation is non-instrumentally focused” (p. 10).

SDT also tries to explain the degree to which individuals experience autonomy while engaged in intrinsically motivated behaviors. The theory assumes that “people are naturally inclined to integrate their ongoing experiences, assuming they have the necessary nutrients to do so” (Deci & Ryan, 2004, p. 15). In other words, people tend to internalize the regulation of an activity, which was initially uninteresting and was motivated extrinsically. That is, people tend to take in the regulation and integrate it to differing degrees. Yet, it is important to note that “extrinsically motivated behavior for which regulations have been internalized to differing degrees, would differ in relative autonomy” (p. 15). When regulations are well integrated, they can provide the basis for autonomous extrinsically motivated behavior. Conversely, when regulations are less fully integrated, they form the basis for more controlled forms of behavior.

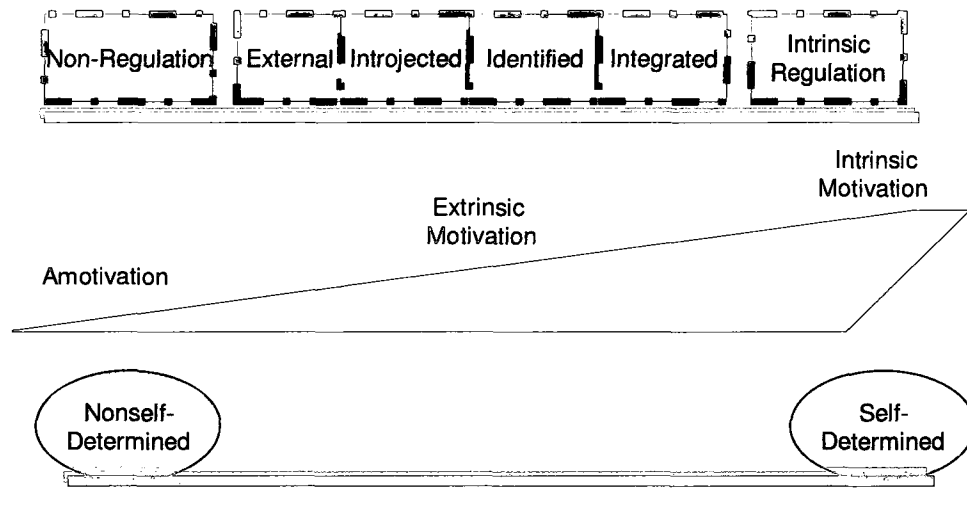


Figure 3.4: The Self-Determination continuum; types of motivation and regulation (adapted from Deci & Ryan, 2004)

As demonstrated in Figure 3.4, the distinction between autonomous and controlled motivation, represents a continuum rather than a dichotomy: the left end of the continuum shows lack of the intention to act, i.e., the state of amotivation, which could be the result of the perceptions and feelings of inability in achieving the desired outcomes due to lack of contingency, lack of perceived competence or lack of value for the activity and/or its outcomes (Deci, 1975; Ryan, 1995; Rotter, 1966). The right end of the continuum, intrinsic motivation, refers to the state of doing an activity out of pure satisfaction. There are four types of extrinsically motivated behavior, which lie between the two extremes: external regulation,

introjected regulation, identified regulation and integrated regulation. The least autonomous form of extrinsic motivation, external regulation, is the state of being motivated to obtain rewards or avoid punishment. Introjected regulation is a type of extrinsic motivation, “which has been internalized but not, in a much deeper sense, truly accepted as one’s own” (Deci & Ryan, 2004). As such, introjection is a kind of regulation which is partially internalized, but quite controlling. Introjection-based behaviors are usually undertaken due to feelings of guilt, shame, or worth. Compared to the two other forms of extrinsic motivation, identified regulation is more self-determined and involves personal endorsement of an activity, i.e., “an acceptance of the behavior[activity] as personally important” (Deci & Ryan, 2004, p. 17). Finally, integrated regulation, as the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation, shares many of the qualities of the intrinsic motivation, yet differs from it for having significant personal outcomes as its basis (as opposed to pure satisfaction, which is the requirement of intrinsic motivation). It is important to note that the notion of autonomy should not be confused with independence. To be autonomous means to be willing to engage in an activity, whereas to be independent means to act without reference or support from others (Williams, 2004; Ryan, 1993; Ryan & Lynch, 1989). In sum, SDT focuses on the dialectic between individuals and the social contexts that either support or hinder individuals’ attempts to integrate their experiences into a coherent sense of self.

Given its complex and multi-dimensional nature, SDT can help unravel different aspects of L2 listening performance and outcomes. SDT has only been the focus of a few studies in the field of L2 listening (Tafaghodtari & Vandergrift, 2008; Vandergrift, 2005), which were earlier reviewed in Chapter 2. The results of these studies have demonstrated some relationships among listening performance, motivational orientations and metacognition. The first phase of this study

will further examine these relationship by exploring the ways in which different types of metacognitive strategies interact with different motivational orientations (as defined within the SDT), to influence listening performance. In what follows, I will describe the participants and data collection procedures involved for the study of these interactions in the first phase.

3.5.2 – Participants

The participants in the first phase of this study were 96 international adult students studying English as a second language in an EIP at a Canadian University as can be seen in Table 3.1. The participants were, on average, 21 years old and 34% of the group were female. The participants came from six EIP classes, from three different levels of English language proficiency: intermediate (n=29), high intermediate (n=35), and advanced (n=32) (p. 80). These levels were chosen because it was crucial that the participants were proficient enough in English to be able to complete the metacognition and motivation survey questionnaires as well as to communicate their thoughts, feelings and experiences in the second phase of the study. Table 3.2 displays the participant demographics.

Table 3.1: Quantitative Participant Demographics by Gender, First Language, and Proficiency Level

Gender	Intermediate		High Intermediate		Advanced	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Female	8	31	14	40	11	35
Male	21	69	21	60	21	59

First Language						
Arabic	9	31	9	26	11	34
Asian	14	48	23	66	15	50
Other	6	21	3	8	6	18

Student proficiency level in this context refers to the EIP courses in which the participating students were enrolled. Advanced students were those who were enrolled in level 500 in the program, high-intermediate learners were those enrolled in levels 490 and 470, and intermediate students were in level 450, 451 and 400.

Student scores on a parent university proficiency test (Wesche, Paribakht, & Ready, 1996) were also examined to show that more advanced students had actually achieved higher scores on this measure. This text-based test consists of three reading comprehension sub-tests and a cloze test. The reading comprehension section, consisting of three texts of increasing length and complexity, required participants to answer 25 multiple-choice questions. The cloze test consisted of a passage with 25 multiple-choice questions. Participants were given one hour and ten minutes to complete the whole test. The test has, over the years, demonstrated a high

level of reliability: 0.96 (Wesche, Paribakht, & Ready, 1996). Table 3.2 shows means and standard deviations at each proficiency level.

Table 3.2: Means and Standard Deviation of the Participants' Scores on the Proficiency Test at Intermediate, High Intermediate and Advanced Levels

	n	X	SD
Intermediate	29	28	4.2
High Intermediate	35	34	3.7
Advanced	32	37	3.5

Listening achievement was operationalized as scores on the parent university listening test (Wesche, Paribakht, & Ready, 1996). The details of the listening test will be discussed in the next section.

3.5.3 – Data Collection

Data collection for the first phase of the study began after approval from the Ethics Board of the parent university was secured. I gained access to the EIP students through the coordinator of the program, who first provided a list of potential participating courses and instructor contact information. I sent an email to the selected instructors (for an example of correspondence with

the coordinator and teachers see Appendix A) along with an attachment which outlined the two phases of the study, explaining the study and its significance, inviting them to participate in the study (Appendix B). Teachers who requested more information were invited to an orientation session. Six teachers agreed to participate; their participation was on a voluntary basis with no incentive offered.

Once the instructor informed consent forms (Appendix C) were signed, I met with the students to explain the purpose, processes, and significance of the research, as well as the potential risks and benefits of participation in the study (for the recruitment text, see Appendix D). Students were also informed of a potential future interview. Before the participant consent forms were distributed, students were assured of anonymity and their right to opt out at any point of the study. Since the briefing sessions were held in English, a second language for all students, the instructors and I explained the research process to the students in two different orientation sessions. After securing the signed consent forms (Appendix E), the quantitative measures were administered. None of the instructors were present while the participants completed the instruments.

Instrumentation

In order to collect data on L2 listening performance, motivational orientations, and metacognitive awareness, participants completed an English listening test, (Wesche, Paribakht, & Ready, 1996), a metacognitive awareness listening questionnaire (Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal & Tafaghodtari, 2006; Appendix F), and a motivation questionnaire (Noels, Pelletier, Clément & Vallerand, 2000; Appendix G).

Listening Test

The English Listening Test, also part of the parent university proficiency test, included listening to three texts and answering 25 multiple choice questions. The three texts, of increasing length and complexity, were based on different themes appropriate to the life experience of the adult university students (e.g., a radio interview with a psychology professor). The test ($\alpha = 0.90$; Wesche, Paribakht, & Ready, 1996) took about 20 minutes to complete.

Metacognition Questionnaire

Metacognitive knowledge was measured using the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) (Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, & Tafaghodtari, 2006; see Appendix F). This questionnaire, with demonstrated validity and reliability, consists of twenty-one randomly-ordered strategies related to L2 listening comprehension. The items measure awareness of five main components associated with regulation of L2 listening (i.e., Planning and Evaluation, Directed Attention, Person Knowledge, Mental Translation and Problem-Solving). Candidates rated their regulation of L2 listening on a scale ranging from 1 to 6, with 6 indicating strong agreement with the statement.

Motivation Questionnaire

Student orientations to motivation were measured using the Language Learning Motivation Orientation Scale, a questionnaire with demonstrated validity and reliability (Noels Pelletier, Clément & Vallerand, 2000; see Appendix G). This questionnaire uses twenty

randomly-ordered items to measure student level of amotivation, extrinsic motivation and/or intrinsic motivation on a scale ranging from 1 to 6, with 6 indicating strong agreement with the statement. The questionnaire was adapted for English second language listening by replacing the ‘English’ for ‘French’.

The first phase of this study explored the skill and performance aspects of L2 listening and evaluated listening performance expectations for learners of the EIP as stated in the EIP policy and practice guidelines. This phase, therefore, adopted cognitive psychology as a conceptual framework, which provided the context for the examination of the performance and skill aspects of L2 listening and the two specific variables of metacognition and motivational orientations. The second phase of this study, on the other hand, examined the literacy aspect of listening and evaluated the literacy orientations of the EIP policy and practices as stated in the EIP practice guidelines, and reflected in the EIP leaders’ perceptions and experiences. The second phase, therefore, adopted Masny’s Multiple Literacies Theory (MLT; 2005; 2005/2006), which provided the context for exploring the process dimension of listening. In the next section, I will first provide the details of the MLT, including its take on the notions of “literacy processes”, “literacy experiences”, “literacy events”, “learning”, and “tests, standards and curriculum”. Next, I will describe the participants involved in this phase and the procedures for data collection.

3.6 - Phase II: Listening as a Component of Multiple Literacies and the EIP Literacy Orientations

3.6.1 - Conceptual Framework

In this phase, listening was explored as a component of multiple literacies and the EIP program policies and practices were evaluated across the literacy orientation dimension of Cadiero-Kaplan's (2004) Language Policy and Programming Framework. More specifically, the second phase of the study focused on the different orientations towards literacy and their relation to the teaching and learning of L2 listening, which informed the program policies and pedagogical practices in the EIP. As mentioned earlier, MLT (Masny, 2005; 2005/2006) provided the framework for this phase, which refers to literacies as a social construct, consisting of "ways of becoming with the world ... which are the effect of continuous investment in reading the word, the world, and self as texts" (Masny, 2005/2006, p.1). Reading within this framework is about making sense, and sense is an event which emerges when experiences of life are connected. Informed by theoretical insights drawn from Deleuze and Guattari (1987), Masny (2005/2006) defines investment as connections of life experiences from which "an individual is formed, transformed and becomes *other* than" (p. 1). Accordingly, it is from these investments or connections that literacies are produced.

It is also important to note that in defining literacies, MLT builds on an unorthodox notion of experience, which has been introduced by Deleuze and Guattari (1987) based on the work of Peirce (1931-58; 1998) in semiotics. Deleuze understands experience as the reception of signs (Smith, 2005), and signs refer to pictures, symptoms, books, sentences, libraries, legislative representatives, musical concertos, orders of command, microscopes, etc. These phenomena, however, have no intrinsic meaning and "become signs only when we invest them in meaning" (Chandler, 2002, p.17). The importance of this fresh notion of experience for the second phase of this study is that from this perspective meaning is not simply transmitted to listeners or imposed

on the text (as understood from a cognitive psychology perspective). Rather, listeners are driven by a desire to make sense of oral texts and they do so through “creation and interpretation of signs” (Chandler, 2002, p.17). To this end, listeners are an engaged component in the process of making sense of texts.

3.6.1.1 – Triadic, Semiotic Literacy Processes: Reading the Word, the World, and Self

Literacies as sense-making processes (i.e., reading *the word, the world and the self*) with texts (both linguistic and non-linguistic) as their central component brings us to the notion of semiotics. According to Semetsky (2006), semiotics is the study of signs and their signification, which offers a perspective for recognizing other sign systems beyond linguistic ones (p.27). In semiotics, a sign is defined as “something [sign vehicle] which stands to somebody [sign user] for something [its object] in some respect or capacity. It addresses somebody, that is, creates in the mind of that person an equivalent sign, or perhaps a more advanced sign” (Peirce, 1911, p.228). From a semiotics perspective, the forms in which a sign appears (e.g., spoken words, pictures, books, libraries, musical concertos, orders of command) have no intrinsic meaning and “become signs only when we invest them in meaning” (Chandler, 2002, p. 17).

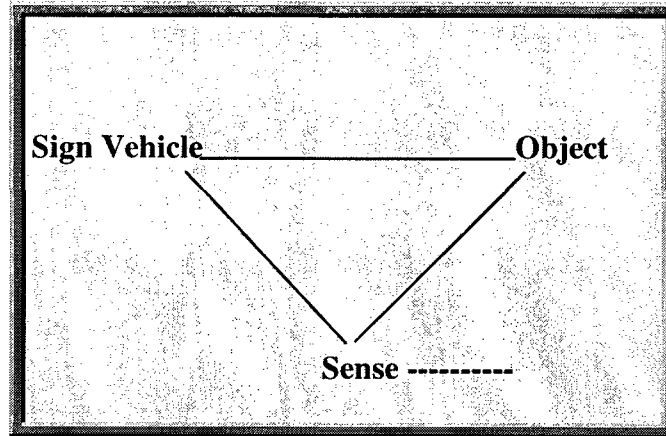


Figure 3.5: A semiotic triad (adapted from Chandler, 2002)

Investments in meaning occur within a triadic event (Figure 3.5), which involves an interaction between the sign vehicle, object and sense. This triadic event highlights the unceasing action of the sign, which does not just exist but grows, since every sign consistently creates a more advanced sign (Smith, 1997). The significance of this triadic system of sign making for literacy events in MLT lies in the fact that, texts cannot be regarded as transparent media for the communication of information any more (Figure 3.6). Rather, they are “enigmas that point beyond themselves to something hidden; the moon as a sign is a bright surface gesturing towards its dark side. Every sign has something enfolded within it, something ‘*other*’, that must be unfolded if it is to be understood.” (Bogue, 2004, p. 327).

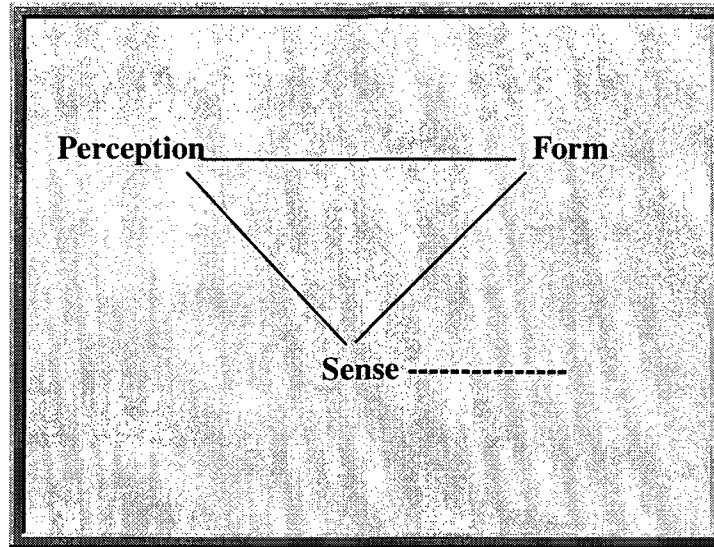


Figure 3.6: Literacy event (adapted from Semetsky, 2006)

Colebrook (2006) provides a useful example (Figure 3.7), which well reflects the nature of critical literacy events as situated in MLT: if the light that meets the eye is perceived as color, but that color is read as a blush signifying embarrassment, and that embarrassment is read as “social faux pas and that social faux pas is read as a sign of civility in general, then the relations are still triadic” (p. 62).

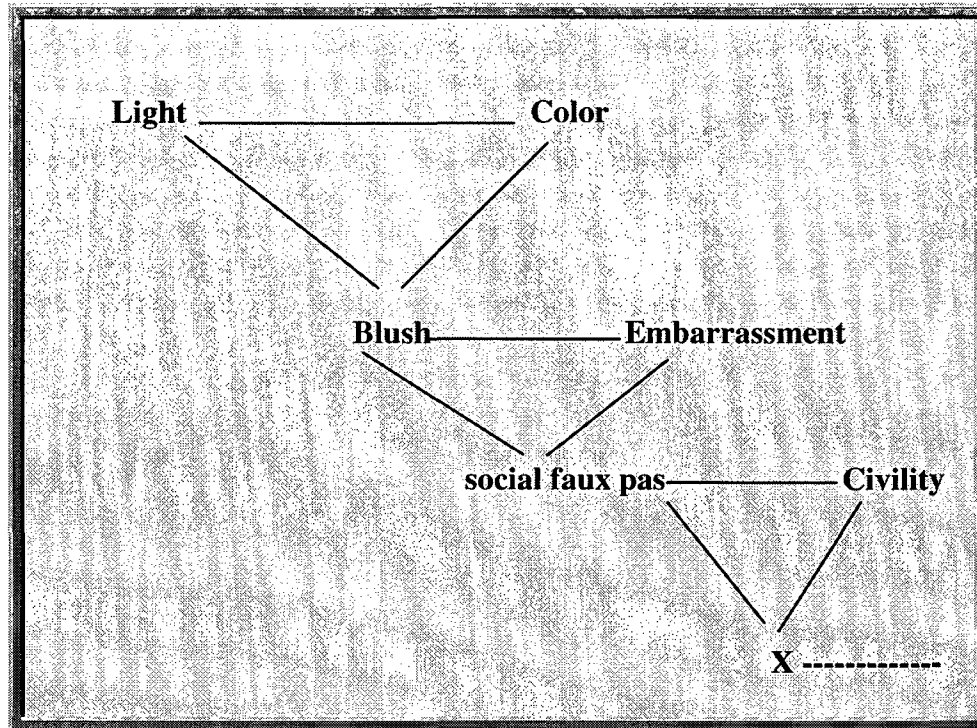


Figure 3.7: Literacy event (developed from Semetsky, 2006)

As a result of triadic relations, signs move from one to another; they grow and produce other signs “because the triadic logic leads to signs always already becoming something else and something more, contributing in the process of their growth – to human development, [and] becoming” (Semetsky, 2006, p. 31). According to Deleuze (2000), all learning proceeds via reading of signs: “everything that teaches us emits signs; every act of learning is an interpretation of signs” (p. 4). Similarly, from the perspective of Multiple Literacies Theory, production of literacies does not take place merely through acquisition of new skills or bits of information, but rather through “accession to a new way of perceiving and understanding the world” (Bogue,

2004, p. 328); that is, through reading of “*the word, the world and self*” (Masny, 2005) in a triadic relational fashion.

3.6.1.2 – Literacy Experiences: Qualitative and Inclusive

One consequence of the triadic relations in sign systems is that signs cannot be immediately recognized, for they have a future element to them (i.e., moving from one to another). This brings an unorthodox conception of literacy experience into sight. Since every experience is “essentially concerned with signs” (Deleuze, 2000, p. 4), a literacy experience, as situated in MLT, cannot be that which is immediately perceived; rather, it has an unknown component to it, and as such is unstable and fluid. According to Masny and Cole (2008), unlike other orientations to literacy, which consider experience as a stable category specific to one moment in an individual’s life -- i.e., a private moment -- MLT holds that experience is the many aspects of life that flow through the learner and constitute learner’s memories and desires. From this point of view, literacy experiences are “qualitative and inclusive” (Semetsky, 2006, p.76), for they encompass not only ‘the here and now’ (the Actual), but ‘the potentials’ (a May-be) and ‘the future’ (a Would-be). Take Colebrook’s example in this regard: “If I travel to another culture and learn its history and that culture, in turn, learns my history, then the past that we now have is of a larger world, which then opens the possibility for quite a different future; we will not act in the same ways, nor think the same way [any more]” (Colebrook, 2006, P.37).

3.6.1.3 - Literacy Events

The notion of 'literacy event' has been already used in different literacy views. For example, Heath (1982) has posited that literacy events are any occasions "in which a piece of writing is integral to the participants' interactions and their interpretive processes" (p. 8). In MLT, in contrast, an event is a moment that creates "differences that allow creativity to take off" (Masny, 2009, p. 7). As such, a literacy event is not different from any other life event. In other words, for a literacy event to take place, there needs not to be a written or oral text, which then has to be interpreted in a specific way. Rather, a literacy event is a creative moment that is selected and assessed according to what difference it can make in learners' lives. As Colebrook posits events are "not things to be interpreted, but creations that need to be selected and assessed according to their power to act and intervene in life" (Colebrook, 2002, p. xlv). The notion of event as situated in MLT, is particularly important for the present study, because instead of being focused on whether the students "understand the meaning" of a particular text in a listening activity, it directs my attention to what a particular literacy moment -- in its difference from other moments -- does for learners and teachers.

3.6.1.4 – Learning: Encounters vs. Recognition

Qualitative literacy experiences-- triadic and relational-- therefore, require constant anticipation, evaluation and interpretation, and in being so, they counter the relevance of 'common sense' in learning. Common sense, which reduces learning to 'recognition', is expressed "in the formulation of 'everybody knows'" (Poxon & Stivale, 2005, 65); it means ignoring (or missing the encounter with) all the details of a particular literacy experience and

instead settling for something that is familiar and represents the common sense idea of that moment.

Literacies, when situated in MLT, are produced not through common sense, but through sense which emerges from encounters with ‘difference’ (Masny, 2005); they are no longer produced through “the passage from non-knowledge to knowledge; i.e., a process with a definite beginning and ending” (Bogue, 2004, p. 329), where learners respond to pre-determined questions and arrive at pre-existing answers. It is worth noting that encounters in literacy events “do not [necessarily] occur with people (*rencontres*)” (Stivale, 2004, p.28), but rather with things: “we have literacies through the encounters of letters and words with paper, sounds that come together” (Masny & Cole, 2008).

What is central in these encounters is “being alert, on the lookout for something that passes, something troubling, [and] amusing” (Sitvale, 2003). As such, mere recognition is not sufficient for literacies to take place: “something in this world forces us to think. This something is an object not of recognition but of a fundamental encounter ... it is not a quality but a sign” (Deleuze, 1994, 139). To this end, literacies are produced only when meaningful relations are established between signs and responses through participation, critique and anticipation. Deleuze (1994) emphasizes that “we learn nothing from those who say: *Do as I do.*” (p. 23), for learning is the capacity for relations, or in Semetsky’s (2006) words, moving “together with a particular milieu” (p.76). From this perspective, learning is “to immerse oneself in a problem with its systems of relations, where one finds the space for “an encounter with signs” (Bogue, 2004, p. 337); teaching is, thus, “to invite students to participate along with them [teachers] in an activity rather than showing them what to do and how to do it” (Bogue, 2004, 337). What MLT,

therefore, envisions is the dimension of literacy practices that inspires discovery and creation in the lookout for new possibilities. The focus of such a vision is subtle interrelationships involved in literacy events, where critically-literate learners are produced by an immersion in the milieu.

3.6.1.5 – Literacies as Processes of Becoming

As mentioned earlier, in MLT, literacies consists of “ways of *becoming* with the world ... which are the effect of continuous investment in reading the word, the world, and self as texts” (Masny, 2005/2006, p.1). Becoming means that we do not assume that learning has a fixed start and end point; that learners start from a fixed point (e.g., illiterate, non-native speaker, non-knower, novice), and then move on to another fixed point (e.g., literate, advanced non-native speakers, knower, expert) in a developmental fashion. Rather, learners have entry and exit points in literacy events. Entry points can be stable knowledge systems (i.e., something that learners know; learners’ stable territory). These stable knowledge systems and territories, however, become instable (i.e., de-territorialized) through an encounter with something different or new. The encounter with something new then results in another knowledge system, which is stable (i.e., re-territorialize; as when something is learned). Becoming, therefore, is this constant moving between stability, instability, and re-stability or between what we already know, doubt and uncertainty, and what we know next. It is in this sense that MLT calls literacies as processes, and as processes of becoming: “MLT refers to literacies as processes: from a territory (stable and striation) to de-territorialization and becoming (resistance, chaos, instability) to reterritorialization (different mappings)” (Masny, 2009, p. 7). Masny (2009) provides a good example in this regard:

“... three children use a large elastic band to make a shape in math class (Masny & Waterhouse in press). They form a shape and Estrella, one of the children, announces that it is a triangle, a triangle with *six* corners. A territory is mapped out [what she knows]. The teacher corrects her; it is not a triangle. This introduces a disruption, a de-territorialization of a knowledge system. Estrella expresses doubt. ... Estrella later explains her uncertainty: she was thinking of the shape of the roof of a house. It has a triangle shape on each end. The roof has six corners. It has a solid shape. How is knowledge system re-stabilizing, re-territorializing in the process of learning about geometric shapes, in the process of *becoming*?” (p. 7).

3.6.1.6 – Tests, Standards and Curriculum: Striated Territories

As mentioned in the previous section, literacies are ways of *becoming* with the world, that is, the processes of stability-instability-restability (i.e., territorialization-deterritorialization-reterritorialization). Literacy programs, curriculum, standardized testing, and even personal worldviews of what it means to teach and learn, according to Masny (2009), are all stable territories. These stable territories are striated and limited spaces, which restrict the possibilities of literacy development. Becoming, on the contrary, happens in open and smooth spaces, where the possibilities of literacy development and learning is as “varied and multiple as domains of human desire” (Howell, 2009). Masny (2009) posits that the limited and striated spaces of literacy programs, standardized testing, and personal worldviews intersect and even overlap, in complex ways, with the smooth and open spaces of literacy processes; that even in striated and limited spaces of literacy programs, it is possible to “voyage smoothly” (Deleuze & Guattari,

1980/1987, p. 482). An examination of the intersection between curriculum, institutions, personal worldviews and perceptions (stable territory; a striated and limited space) and literacy processes (as smooth spaces) in the second phase of the study provides the context for the examination of different literacy orientations (e.g., literacy as a set of measurable skills and literacy as critical and multiple) and their relevance to the teaching and learning of listening in the EIP.

In sum, Masny's Multiple Literacies Theory and its associated assumptions regarding processes, learning, and experiences help to examine the process dimension of L2 listening and the literacy understandings, underlying the EIP policy and practices in the second phase of this study. In what follows, I will describe the participants involved in the second phase (including the program leaders and participants) and the procedures for data collection.

3.6.2 – Participant Recruitment

The participants of interest for this phase of the study included the major EIP stakeholders, i.e., leadership participants (coordinator and teachers) and the program participants⁸. The program participants were selected from those who had earlier participated in the first phase of the study. For this second phase, these participant were selected through maximal variation sampling (Creswell, 2005), which is a purposeful sampling strategy in which the selected participants differ on some characteristic or trait. The participants were selected based on their responses to the motivation questionnaires, their performance on the initial listening test, as well as class observations. Of interest were learners with low listening scores, but high Intrinsic Motivation scores and/or high listening scores, and high Extrinsic Motivation scores. Class

⁸ Program participants in the context of this research refers to the current EIP learners.

observations were to select learners whose participations in particular literacy/listening activities stood out from others. Details of the program participants' characteristics are provided in Table 3.3 in the section that follows.

3.6.2.1 - Leadership Participants

To better understand the literacy understandings (e.g., literacy as a set of skills; literacy as critical and multiple, etc.) which shaped the EIP policies and classroom practices with respect to L2 listening, participants were recruited from the institutional leadership, i.e., the EIP coordinator and three teachers. Since this leadership group as a whole is responsible for the curriculum, their participation was of great importance. The teachers' participation was particularly important as they were responsible for assessing the students' L2 listening outcomes while intensely involved in teaching-learning processes.

First, I contacted the EIP coordinator to invite her to participate in the study (for an example of the correspondence between the researcher and the leadership participants for interview scheduling purposes see Appendix H). After securing permission from the coordinator, I approached the instructors via email. Since the teachers had already allowed me to use their class time for the first phase of the study, they were already informed about the purposes and processes of this second phase (Appendix B).

3.6.2.2 - Program Participants

This group of internal stakeholders had already participated in the first phase of the study. They were all between the ages of 18 to 30, and were all planning to enroll in a regular academic

program offered at the university where the EIP program took place. These participants were one of the most important target groups for the purposes of obtaining internal stakeholder feedback. I chose potential participants based on their responses to the motivation questionnaire, their performance on the initial listening test (Table 3.3), as well as my observation of their engagement in classroom activities. Ten students were invited; however, only eight agreed to participate (for an example of the correspondence between the researcher and the program participants for interview scheduling purposes see Appendix I). Three of the volunteers did not show up for the interviews; therefore, only five students actually participated in the interviews. However, since the three students who did not show up for the interviews had already given their consent for class observations, I contacted them to make sure they had not withdrawn from the study. Since they re-confirmed their consent, an analysis of their notes taken during the listening activities will be included in the results. All the participants were compensated for their time with a 20-dollar gift certificate.

Table 3.3: Participant Characteristics by Gender, L1, Course Level, and Test Scores (Phase II)

Student*	Gender	Language Spoken at Home	EIP Level	Level Average Score	Listening Score	Extrinsic Motivation*	Intrinsic Motivation*
Ali	M	Persian	450	15.4	11	28	45
Bardia	M	Persian	500	16.2	17	40	35
Seif*	M	Turkish	500	16.2	16	43	42
Mika*	F	Chinese	500	16.2	12	40	39
Musa*	M	Arabic	500	16.2	22	36	43
Jean	M	Arabic-French	500	16.2	16	34	45
Angelica	F	Spanish	450	15.4	16	43	45
Amir	M	Persian-Turkish	490	17.1	16	34	37

*Participants' names are pseudonyms.

* The volunteers who could not participate in the interviews.

*Details of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation scores will be provided in Chapter 5.

3.6.3 - Data Collection

Data for the second phase of the study included policy reviews, semi-structured interviews and observations of classroom activities that focused on listening. Classroom observations and interviews took place from November 2006 to July 2007. Each classroom observation was preceded by an informal meeting with the program participants in an effort to set an informal tone for the research project such that the participants would feel more at ease when observations took place. During this time, we went over the consent form (Appendix J).

All interviews were semi-structured, which helped to focus on specific themes, and still allowed for new questions to be introduced (Lindolf & Taylor, 2002). I was particularly interested in the mis/match between the leaders' views of literacy and listening, the participants'

participation in listening/literacy events, and the policy-maker's assumptions regarding the teaching and learning of listening. Therefore, the interview protocols for the program leaders were developed partly from the results of the earlier program policy reviews, as well as in consultation with the current literature on multiple literacies (i.e., Masny's MLT, 2005/6; Masny & Cole, 2008). In addition, in this phase listening as a component of multiple literacies was explored in the EIP across the 'literacy orientation' dimension of Cadiero-Kaplan's (2004) framework. Therefore, the questions were also informed by Cadiero-Kaplan's Language Policy and Programming Conceptual Framework, as well as the observations of class activities (See Appendix K). One interview was conducted by phone. Interviews lasted between 45 minutes and one hour. Observations of classroom activities were video-taped except for one case where the teacher, in consultation with the majority of the students, agreed to classroom observation but no recording. Field notes were taken during all the classroom observations (See section 3.6.3.2 for details). In what follows, I provide the details of the procedures involved in document reviews, class observations and interviews.

3.6.3.1 - Document Review

Document reviews took place during the same period as class observations. Of particular interest were the EIP policy documents, including the teacher and teaching assistant guidelines as they related to the teaching and learning of L2 listening (particularly the listening level descriptors), as well as the pedagogic materials, i.e., listening materials and exercises prepared and used by the teachers. Access to the program policies and teacher and teaching assistant guidelines became possible through the EIP coordinator, while access to pedagogic materials and

exercises was secured through negotiations with the teachers. A review of the program policies and practice guidelines provided the opportunity to understand the ways in which the notion of literacy was viewed and valued in relation to L2 listening development by the policymaker. A review of the pedagogical materials pertaining to L2 listening, on the other hand, shed light on the ways in which different orientations towards literacy were valued and practiced by the program leaders.

3.6.3.2 - Class Observations

Classroom observations were particularly useful for a better understanding of teachers' day-to-day practices with respect to L2 listening as well as students' participation in these practices.

As a participant observer, I maintained a journal of these observations, mainly in the form of descriptive field notes and personal reflections to record a picture of the processes and dynamics, dissonances and tensions while L2 listening activities took place. Details of these field notes and reflections will be provided in the chapters that follow.

3.6.3.3 - Interviews

3.6.3.3.1 - Program Leaders

I met with the program coordinator in her office for a 45-minute interview. The interview, which occurred in May 2007, was recorded and transcribed. A transcription was sent to the coordinator for member check purposes. The coordinator was asked about the EIP policies and purposes in general and the program policies regarding L2 listening in particular, her

thoughts on the meanings of literacy and its relation to the EIP program participants and the teaching and learning of listening (see Appendix K).

In December 2006 and June 2007, I interviewed the instructors. These interviews were important in that they helped reveal the different conceptions of literacy held by the leaders. The interviews also helped to show the relation between these conceptions to the leaders' day-to-day practices, particularly those relevant to the teaching of listening in the EIP. Interviews, which lasted between 45 minutes and one hour, were recorded and transcribed. In order to member check the statements, teachers were asked to read and review the transcriptions. Some changes were made to clarify the statements. Questions concerned teachers' instructional materials and practices as these related to L2 listening, their perceptions of literacy and the degree to which these perceptions were valued in their teaching practices (Appendix K).

3.6.3.3.2 - Program Participants

Interviews with the program participants took place during the months of December 2006, May 2007 and June 2007 in a classroom in the building where the EIP courses were held. Each interview, lasting between 45 minutes and one hour, was audio-taped and then transcribed. The interview transcriptions were sent to all the interviewees for member check purposes. Questions concerned the L2 listening practices (i.e., classroom and socio-cultural activities) and the students' perceptions and experiences of L2 listening both inside and outside the classroom (see Appendix L). These interviews were very important in that they allowed the program participants to react more privately to the listening activities inside the program and to share their

experiences as L2 listeners both inside and outside the program. Also, the participants' reactions to some of the activities were verified and/or clarified.

3.7 - Researcher's Role

Traditionally, the application of quantitative methodology requires reduction of researchers' influence as an extraneous variable for the purposes of objectivity. This has been challenged for being an unachievable ideal (Greene, 2007; Kincheloe, 2001; Maxwell & Loomis, 2003). However, in order to be consistent with the practice of quantitative methodology, I distanced myself from the participants and the data by using standardized measurement tools and avoiding any personal involvement with the participants during the first phase. I would like to acknowledge that while in this phase I stayed focused on observing and measuring in order to reduce my influence, it may be argued that my choice of measurement tools and research questions were guided by my personal beliefs and experiences, which were informed by the theoretical perspective chosen for this phase.

The qualitative methodology, on the other hand, draws on multiple strategies that allow the researcher to reflect systematically on her role in the research, to be sensitive to her involvement in the framing and the shaping of the research, and use it as a tool for understanding (Maxwell & Loomis, 2003). The qualitative phase of this study required developing relationships with the program leadership and the program participants. Establishing rapport with the teacher participants, in particular, was very different than what I found in the quantitative phase of my study: I was both an ex-colleague and a researcher trying to understand the EIP teachers' perspectives and practices regarding L2 listening. In addition, my views about literacy practices

in bilingual programs had led me to design my study in its present form. As a teacher, I do understand that accepting a colleague as a participant observer in one's classes can be a very uncomfortable decision. In addition, interviewing the program students could pose the risk of making value judgments on the teachers' pedagogical practices in ways beyond the purposes of the research. It was, therefore, essential that during classroom observations and interviews, I establish a relationship of trust by not violating confidences. I believe that this awareness on its own did not automatically eliminate these risks; therefore, I made a conscious effort to engage in a process of genuine dialogue with all the stakeholders, specifically the teachers, prior to, during, and after the conduct of qualitative phase of the study, as suggested by Greene (2001). Genuine dialogue involved engaged, respectful and inclusive interactions between the research participants and myself, with the understanding that there were no privileged perspectives, no center of truth and no absolute authorities in matters of judgment and taste (Howe, 1994). Throughout the process of establishing relationships with my participants, I made sure to emphasize that full participation of all the involved stakeholders could lead to a better understanding of the program and generate practical judgments regarding areas of improvement in the program under the study.

3.8 - Ethical Issues

The basic ethical principles of no harm, of beneficence, autonomy and honesty were observed in this study. Participants, in both the quantitative and qualitative phases of this study experienced no harm; the participants were subject to no emotional, psychological or physical

threats. In-class distribution of questionnaires took place with the teachers' approval and every effort was made to not misuse class time.

All research participants were invited to de-briefings following the completion of the study. It was my hope that, by sharing the results of the study, an educative space could be provided for all the participants of the study and that future policy decisions, informed by the findings of this research, would lead to improved educational experiences for program participants.

Participation was on a voluntary basis for all participants; the participants were able to opt out at any point of the study with no consequences (i.e., no influence on student grades or employment status of the leadership participants). Confidentiality of participant responses was preserved throughout the conduct of the study. I believe I was honest in presenting the purposes and the processes of the research to potential participants as well as the data for member-check and debriefing purposes.

3.9 - Data Analysis

While presentation of the different stages of data collection might suggest a linear process, data analysis for this mixed-method research was non-linear and integrated (Greene, 2007, p. 144), involving the intentional interaction among different sets of qualitative and quantitative data. Under interactive analyses, I attempted to study the phenomenon as a complex system, which could not be reduced to any one discrete variable or even a provocative scenario in order to be understood. In doing so, I planned on three "stopping points" (Greene, 2007, p. 144) at which I could make sense of one set of analyses in its connection to another. In addition,

the three stopping points functioned as thresholds (i.e., points where different data sets connected) at which I could make sense of potential tensions between and among these data sets. For example, at Stopping Point 1, metacognition and motivation were understood as two variables which interacted and their interaction influenced listening achievement in a unique way; however, this influence was best understood when it was juxtaposed with (what was present and/or absent from) the EIP policy documents regarding listening expectations for learners. Therefore, this stopping point provided the opportunity for exploring possible congruence and/or dissonance between the achievement data and the program policies and practice guidelines. Stopping point 3, on the other hand, was the site where the juxtaposition of the observation data (of the students' participation in activities) with the program policies and practice guidelines led to the emergence of three provocative scenarios. These stopping points will be discussed at length in the following chapters.

In addition, the interactive data analysis allowed me to map the patterns of the stopping points across qualitative and quantitative data forms. It is important to note that I was not trying to create these stopping points through the application of an oppositional system between quantitative and qualitative data forms; rather, I used these points to make sense of the possible tensions in the complex system under the study. For example, Stopping Points 1 and 2 helped to reveal that the policy documents were heavily focused on the product of listening, at the expense of the critical sense-making processes involved in listening events.

Here I would like to acknowledge that there are many other possible stopping points in the data. Yet, the three stopping points, which I planned for the purposes of this study, were inevitably the result of not only the nature of the data and the ways in which these data were

collected, but also my own predispositions, values and biases as a researcher. Figure 3.8 illustrates the three stopping points:

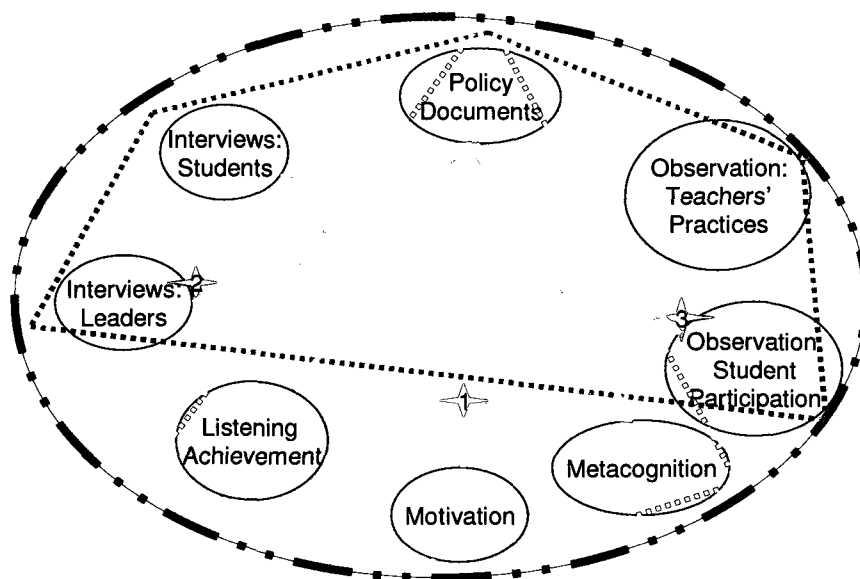


Figure 3.8: The patterns of Stopping Points across the quantitative and qualitative data sets

Stopping Point 1 (see Figure 3.9):

- ◆ The EIP students' perceptions of their listening performance and its relation to non-linguistic factors (participants' perception of metacognitive listening strategy use and participants' motivations orientations);
- ◆ L2 listening achievement data (listening performance in the context of the EIP, and its connection to the participants' metacognitive strategy use and motivational orientations); and,

- ◆ Program policy documents and practice guidelines (i.e., performance expectations for learners regarding the product of L2 listening and its relation to non-linguistic factors).

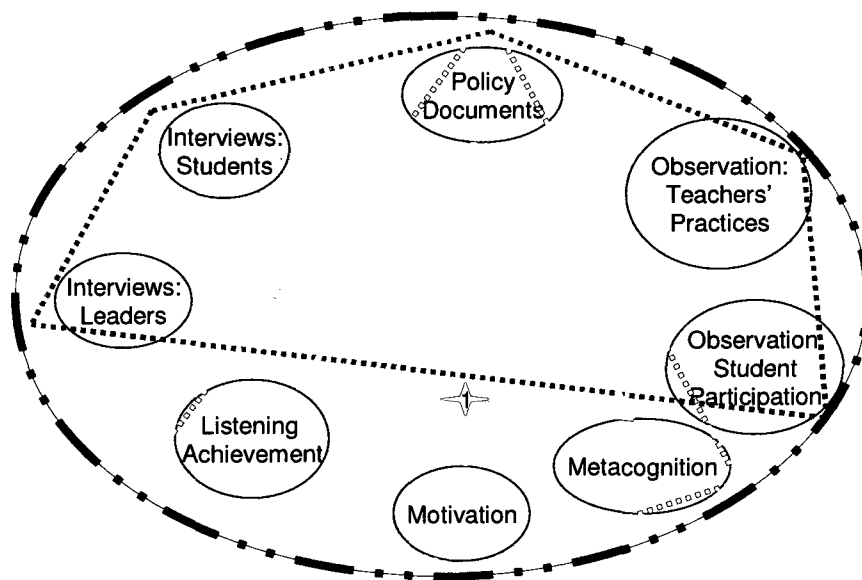


Figure 3.9: Stopping Point 1: Interaction among quantitative data sets and document reviews

Stopping Point 2 (see Figure 3.10):

- ◆ Program policy documents and practice guidelines (literacy orientations and their relation to the teaching and learning of L2 listening);

- ◆ The EIP leaders' understandings of literacy and their relation to the teaching and learning of L2 listening (as reflected in their perceptions).

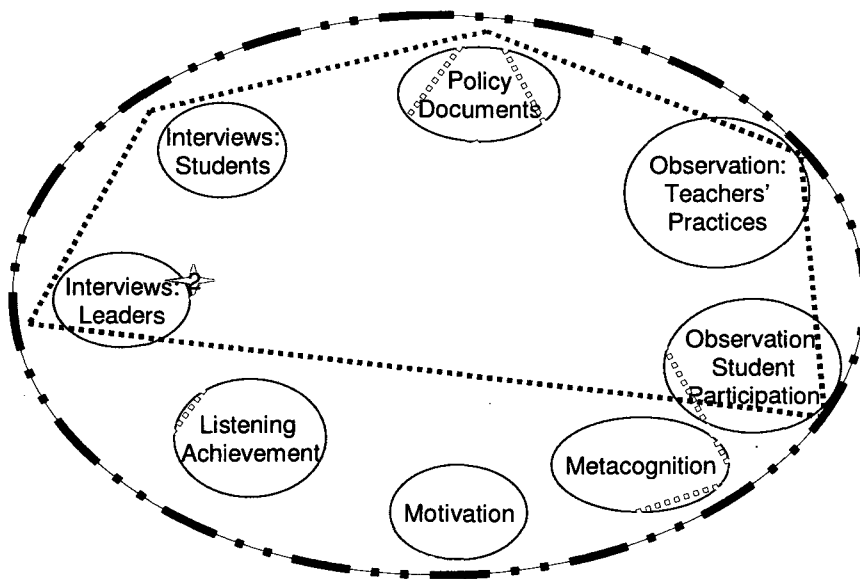


Figure 3.10: Stopping Point 2: Interaction among qualitative data sets and document reviews

Stopping Point 3 (see Figure 3.11):

- ◆ Program policy documents and practice guidelines (literacy orientations and their relation to the teaching and learning of L2 listening); and,

- ◆ EIP students' experiences of and participation in listening events within and beyond the EIP program (as reflected in their perceptions of their L2 listening ability).

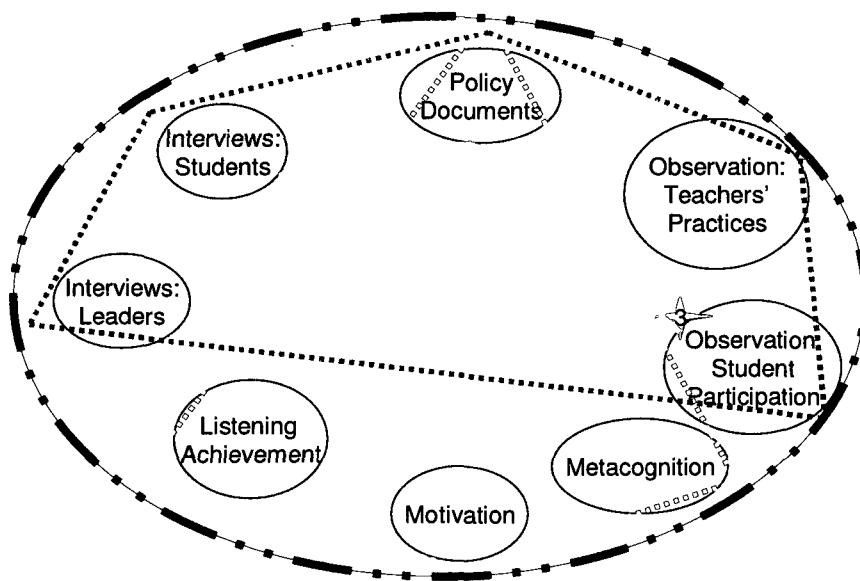


Figure 3.11: Stopping Point 3: Interaction among qualitative data sets: Classroom observations, learner interviews and document Reviews

A micro-political, as opposed to ideological, reading of the stopping points was adopted due to the different stakeholder sources and the dynamics involved. In educational contexts, pedagogical decisions and program policies are always informed by and connected to broader

socio-political decisions. In the case of the EIP, leaders' pedagogical decisions and practices, including those focusing on the development of L2 listening, are connected to a complex of factors including high-stakes L2 tests and the EIP learner expectations of the program. The EIP listening performance expectations for learners, on the other hand, are informed and affected by a complex of factors including program policies, classroom practices, high-stake tests and their conceptions of an academic lesson, based on past experiences.

Following a mixed interactive data analysis perspective, data were understood in mixed ways; that is, as discrete variables, vignettes and revealing scenarios. Fixed constructs, categories and themes were developed and utilized along with the perceptions and the thoughts of experience (Masny & Cole, 2008). In sum, the analyses presented at each point, were informed by cognitive psychology (metacognitive listening strategies, Vandergrift, 2006; Self Determination Theory, Ryan & Deci, 2004) and Multiple Literacies Theory (Masny, 2005/6; 2009) or both perspectives in a dialectic fashion.

3.10 - Validation and Justification

According to Greene (2007), methodological criteria, processes, and arguments about the quality of the methods used and the warrants of justification for the inferences are informed by philosophical assumptions underlying different inquiry paradigms. In mixed methods inquiry, where paradigms or mental models are mixed, therefore, justification of inquiry quality can be achieved through the quality of method and the quality of inferences. According to Greene (2007), for quality of method and data obtained, one should adhere to criteria and procedures of the traditions in which the method is being implemented. Regarding inquiry inferences, however,

a multiplisitic stance should be adopted, where multiple and diverse kinds of data, as well as criteria from both qualitative and quantitative traditions are used. In addition, inferences should be judged in consideration of their persuasive power in generating better understanding of the phenomenon under study.

3.10.1 - Quality of Method

Following Greene (2007), for quality of method and the data obtained, I made an attempt to adhere to the quality criteria and procedures of the traditions in which the method was implemented. Therefore, in the quantitative phase, I considered the quality criteria of ‘minimization of response bias’. This was achieved through a careful examination of the items of the survey questionnaires (motivational orientations and metacognition) for clarity and precision. None of the questions were leading questions or double-barreled. In addition, all the questionnaires had been previously examined for validity and reliability purposes, with reported results in peer-reviewed journals. Sample size was also another concern in the quantitative phase of my study. Given the nature of the program and the study, 96 participants were recruited, a good sample size for this study.

As for the qualitative phase, the quality concerns included appropriate balance of participant and observer roles, length of time on site, and reporting of observation in rich, descriptive contextualized detail. During the data collection phase, thick description was employed to ensure the method quality. According to Patton (2002), thick description includes the description of both the interviews and the setting, which helps transport the reader to the actual interview. Another concern was the influence of the researcher’s beliefs on data.

According to Miles and Huberman (1994) researchers' life experiences, beliefs and biases can influence inquiry decisions such as the selection of participants and data such that they fit the researcher's existing theory or preconceptions. I believe "it is impossible to deal with these issues by eliminating the researcher's theories, beliefs and perceptual lens" (Creswell, 2005, p. 108). However, it is imperative that the researcher be aware of these values and be able to explicitly explain the ways in which such values might influence the conduct and conclusions of the study. According to Lincoln and Guba (1986), instead of attempting to be objective, in qualitative research one should be aware of the interests and perspectives that exist. For these purposes, therefore, I believe it is necessary to examine my background as it relates to the program under the study. I was involved with the EIP for almost two years prior to the beginning of this dissertation. My experiences with the program students at the time, my colleagues from different levels of the program (i.e., administration to teaching) and the curriculum and pedagogical practices provided initial incentives for this investigation. Further, my own beliefs about the program, informed by my experiences, have guided and shaped the present research questions and the research design. I am fully aware that my past experiences with the program have influenced my study at all levels including data collection and analysis.

3.10.2 - Quality of Inferences

Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003) posit that in mixed methods research one should use the term 'inference' rather than 'validity'. Accordingly, in mixed methods inquiry, inference is an umbrella term for the findings or conclusions, which take the form of explanations, understandings or other accounts of what was learned from the study. Expanding on the notion of

inference, Greene (2007) suggests that the quality of inferences should be judged in light of the degree to which they are derived from multiple data sources; the extent to which they include criteria from different methodological traditions. Also, in judging the quality of inferences, one should consider that warrants for inquiry inferences is a matter of “persuasive arguments as well as fulfilling criteria” (p. 172). It is also imperative that inferences in mixed methods inquiry “be judged by the ways in which and the extent to which the study contributed to better understanding” (p. 173).

In the present study, I attempted to present data of different types “without prejudice as to source and only on their merits to inform” (Greene, 2007, p. 174). The application of points of intensity, particularly, allowed me to connect and juxtapose data from different sources to support my particular mixed-methods stance with its dialectic intent. By applying micro- and macro-lenses, I also consciously attended to the contextualized and local meanings and experiences (those of the EIP graduates and students as well as the program leaders) and yet considered patterns of regularities and tendencies (survey questionnaire input) and thus included criteria from both qualitative and quantitative traditions and the relative paradigms.

Greene (2007) suggests conversations and dialogues be held among “interested parties regarding the quality and warrant for particular study inferences” (p. 173). This was fulfilled by first keeping a record of all the materials including interview transcriptions, video and audio taped material and responses to the questionnaires. Then the interview transcripts were shared with the stakeholders for member-check purposes. The findings and conclusions were shared with the program leaders, i.e., the EIP coordinator, teachers, as well as other program

stakeholders, i.e., students and graduates as internal and external program stakeholders. Any comments, dissonances and dis/agreements were welcomed and embraced.

Finally, the quality of inferences in a mixed methods study should be judged in light of the extent to which the study contributes to understanding. In fact, one of the most challenging aspects of any mixed methods study, according to Greene, (2007) is to demonstrate that “the understandings and insights generated would not have been attained with a single methodology” (p. 174). In the current study, listening performance and processes were of equal interest. In addition, policy and pedagogical decisions are the result of a complex of factors, including immediate, intermediate and long-term learning outcomes and processes (such as listening performance and investments in multiple literacies in this context), learners’ expectations of what it means to participate in a second language program. Therefore, application of only a quantitative or a qualitative methodology would not have generated the insights which were obtained through this mixed methods inquiry. I was interested in singling out recurring patterns in what is being commonly perceived and practiced as a “language skill” in most second language programs. However, I was also interested in L2 listening as a process of sense-making through life experiences, which connect in multiple and creative ways and form L2 listeners’ desires, fears and hopes. Together, these portrayed a more complex landscape and thus provided richer understandings and more practical judgments regarding policies and pedagogical practices pertaining to L2 listening in the EIP.

3.11 - Summary

This chapter described the methodology of this mixed-methods study. First, a description of the program under the study was provided. Next, the mixed-methods world view adopted in the study, as well as the conceptual frameworks of Phase I and Phase II of the study were discussed; the participants were described, and the instruments were defined. Finally, the mixed-methods design, the methods of data collection and analysis, as well as the procedures for validation of the adopted methods, were outlined. The next two chapters will present the results of the data generated at each of the three Stopping Points.

CHAPTER IV: PHASE-I RESULTS (STOPPING POINT 1)

4.1 - Introduction

This chapter (Stopping point 1) will present the findings pertaining to the examination of listening as a skill (the performance dimension of listening) and evaluation of the performance expectations of learners in the EIP in the area of listening development, as reflected in the EIP policies and practice guidelines. The EIP learners' perceptions of metacognitive listening strategy use and motivation orientations (non-linguistic factors) will be first examined to determine the patterns of strategy use and learner motivation. These perceptions will then be analyzed for the ways in which they relate to each other and L2 listening performance in order to determine the linear combination of the metacognitive and motivation scales which best predicts the participants' listening performance. Next, a multi-dimensional model will be developed to demonstrate that L2 listening ability is the effect of the interaction between linguistic, cognitive (L2 listening metacognitive strategies) and affective factors (learner motivation orientation). Finally, the results of this multi-dimensional model will be juxtaposed with the EIP policies regarding the development of listening ability, particularly the listening level descriptors, in order to examine the role of these variables in the policy texts and the policymaker's assumptions regarding L2 listening development.

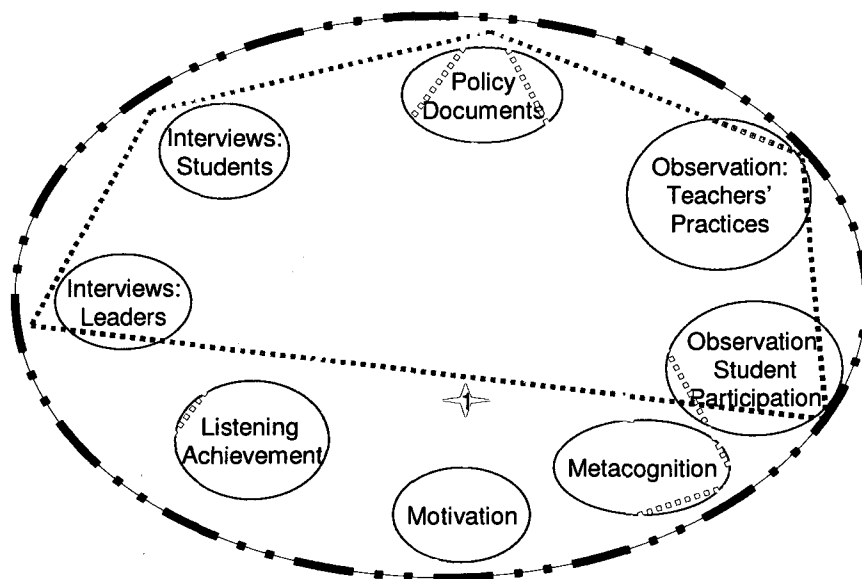


Figure 4.1: Interaction among quantitative data sets & document reviews

At stopping point 1 (Figure 4.1), data analysis included interactions among quantitative data, -- including the EIP participants' L2 listening placement test results, data from the Metacognition Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ; Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal & Tafaghodtari, 2006), the Motivation Orientation Scales Questionnaire (Noles, Clement & Pelletier, 2001) --, and document reviews for the purpose of answering the following questions:

1. What is the role of reported strategy use and learner motivation (i.e., metacognitive listening strategies and motivation orientations) in the EIP participants' L2 listening performance?

- I. What metacognitive listening strategies do EIP participants report using?
 - II. What motivation orientations do the EIP learners report using?
 - III. What linear combination of reported metacognitive strategies and motivation orientations best predicts listening performance?
2. To what degree do performance expectations for learners regarding L2 listening development, as stated in the EIP policy and practice guidelines, reflect strategy use and learner motivation (i.e., metacognitive listening strategies and motivation orientations)?

The results of Stopping Point 1 will be described in the following order: the descriptive analyses of the questionnaire responses (Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire, MALQ, and Motivation Orientation Scales Questionnaire, MOSQ), correlational analyses, multiple regression analysis, the structural equation modeling (SEM), and finally the policy reviews.

4.2.1 - Descriptive Analyses

The two important questions which were answered by the descriptive analyses were: What metacognitive listening strategies are used by the EIP participants? And what motivation orientations do the EIP learners have? Addressing these two questions was necessary for identifying 1) whether metacognitive strategies, i.e., Problem-Solving, Planning and Evaluation, Mental Translation, Directed Attention strategies and Person Knowledge strategies, were appropriately used by the EIP participants, and 2) whether the participants were intrinsically or

extrinsically motivated. In what follows, I first describe the constructs underlying the metacognition and motivation orientations questionnaires. Next, I will provide the details of the descriptive analyses of the metacognition questionnaire. The section ends with the details of the descriptive analyses of the motivation questionnaire.

The Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) and Motivation Orientation Scales Questionnaire (MOSQ) measured eight different constructs that were found in previous literature to be correlated with second language (L2) listening performance (Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2008; Tafaghodtari & Vandergrift, 2008; Mareschal, 2007; Vandergrift, 2005; 2006; Noels et al., 2000): Planning and Evaluation (PE), Mental Translation (MT), Directed Attention (DA), Problem-Solving (PS), and Person Knowledge (PK); as well as Amotivation (AM), Extrinsic Motivation (EM) and Intrinsic Motivation (IM). Items for each of these constructs included the following:

- Planning and Evaluation: strategies listeners use to prepare themselves for listening and to evaluate the results of their listening efforts (MALQ Items 1, 10, 14, 20, 21);
- Mental Translation: strategies representing an inefficient approach to listening, which are often avoided by advanced-level learners and used by beginner-level listeners (MALQ Items 4, 11, 18);
- Directed Attention: strategies that listeners use to concentrate and stay on task while listening (MALQ Items 2, 6, 12, 16);

- Problem-Solving: strategies that listeners use to guess at what they don't understand (i.e., inferencing) while listening, and to monitor their guesses (MALQ Items 5, 7, 9, 13, 17, 19);
- Person Knowledge: the beliefs (i.e., self-efficacy) that L2 listeners hold regarding their ability in L2 listening (MALQ Items 3, 8, 15);
- AMotivation: state of lacking the intention to engage in L2 listening activities due to lack of contingency or perceived lack of competence (MOSQ Items 5, 17);
- Extrinsic Motivation: state of engagement in L2 listening activities not for reasons inherent in them but for instrumental reasons such as finding a better job (MOSQ Items 1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 10, 13, 14, 16);
- Intrinsic Motivation: state of engagement in L2 listening activities for the pleasure and satisfaction inherent in them such as an interest in learning new things (MOSQ Items 3, 6, 9, 11, 12, 15, 18, 19, 20).

4.2.1.1 - Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ)

Table 4.1 displays the means, standard deviations, and range for each sub-scale in the MALQ.

Table 4.1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Ranges for Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire Items by Metacognitive Factors

	Item	X	SD	Range
Planning and Evaluation		3.2	1.3	2-5.8
	MALQ1	2.3	1.4	1-6
	MALQ10	3.1	1.3	1-6
	MALQ14	3.4	1.2	2-6
	MALQ20	3.0	1.2	1-6
	MALQ21	4.6	1.2	2-6
Problem-Solving		4.5	0.6	1.8-5.6
	MALQ5	4.8	1.1	2-6
	MALQ7	4.5	1.1	2-6
	MALQ9	5.1	1.1	2-6
	MALQ13	4.2	1.1	2-6
	MALQ17	4.8	1.1	2-6
	MALQ19	4.2	1.1	1-6
Mental Translation		3.1	1.1	1-6
	MALQ4	3.2	1.4	1-6
	MALQ11	4.0	1.3	1-6
	MALQ18	2.3	1.3	0-6
Directed Attention		2.4	0.5	2.7-5.5
	MALQ2	2.5	1.1	0-6
	MALQ6	2.1	1.1	1-6
	MALQ12	2.5	1.1	0-6
	MALQ16	4.4	1.3	1-6
Person Knowledge		3.4	1.2	1-6
	MALQ3	3.3	1.5	1-6
	MALQ8	3.9	1.2	1-6
	MALQ15	3.5	1.6	1-6

The first question addressed the issue of the types and patterns of metacognitive strategies used by the EIP learners while listening to English texts. In order to answer this question, the means, standard deviations and range of the five scales of the MALQ were examined. As demonstrated by Table 4.1, the mean score for Problem-Solving was above the scale midpoint, indicating that the learners generally reported high levels of strategy use in this domain. The means for Planning and Evaluation, Directed Attention, and Translation were below the scale midpoints, suggesting that learners generally reported low levels of functioning in these domains. The mean for Person Knowledge fell within the average range.

I will now provide a detailed analysis of the patterns of strategy use for each scale by the EIP learners.

Planning and Evaluation

As shown by Table 4.1, the mean score of this subscale fell below the midpoint ($X_{PL} = 3.2$), suggesting that although the EIP learners tried, planned for and evaluated their listening efforts, on average planning and evaluation strategies were not fully exploited by these learners. Moreover, examining individual items in this scale was important in order to better understand the specific strategies which were underused by the learners. Items 1, 10, 14, 20 and 21 surveyed the learners regarding a plan for listening, a goal while listening, as well as the evaluation of the effectiveness of their listening performance (Vandergrift et al. 2006).

Item 1	Before I start to listen, I have a plan in my head for how I am going to listen.
Item 10	Before listening, I think of similar texts that I may have listened to.
Item 14	After listening, I think back to how I listened, and about what I might do differently next time
Item 20	As I listen, I periodically ask myself if I am satisfied with my level of comprehension.
Item 21	I have a goal in mind as I listen.

The means for having a mental plan before listening ($X_1 = 2.3$; $X_{10} = 3.1$) and the need for evaluation of strategic effectiveness of listening efforts ($X_{14} = 3.4$; $X_{20} = 3.0$) all fell below the midpoint for these strategies. The mean for having a goal in mind, on the contrary, fell above the strategy midpoint. As such, although the participants on average were highly goal-oriented, they did not appear to construct a concrete plan for specific listening tasks in which they were to participate. The learners also undermined the relevance of evaluation of their goals and plans. Figure 4.2 illustrates the means for reported Planning and Evaluation strategy relative to their scale midpoint.

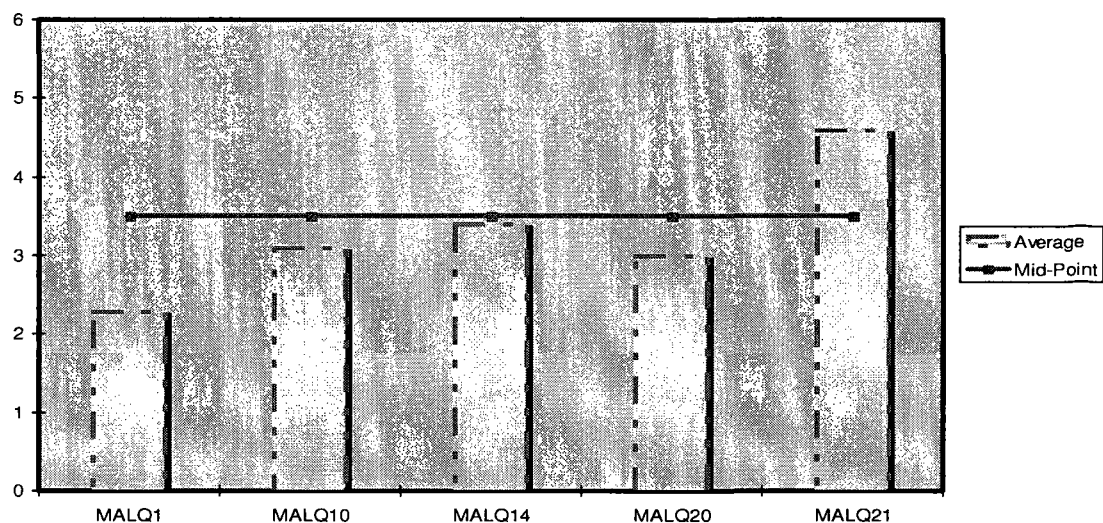


Figure 4.2: Planning and Evaluation Strategy Means Relative to the Scale Midpoint

These results overall suggest that while the program participants seemed to be goal-oriented, the importance of having a mental plan prior to listening activities might not have been quite clear for them. In sum, this particular group as whole was under-using Planning and Evaluation strategies.

Problem-Solving

For Problem-Solving, the program participants were asked to report the strategies they used to make sense of oral text when understanding was difficult or not possible. Items included strategies such as using known words and/or the general idea of the text to deduce the meaning of unknown words and to interpret the oral text. As shown by Table 4.1, the mean score for this

scale fell above the midpoint ($X_{PS}= 4.5$), suggesting that learners generally reported high levels of using Problem-Solving strategies.

Item 5	I use the words I understand to guess the meaning of the words I don't understand.
Item 7	As I listen, I compare what I understand with what I know about the topic.
Item 9	I use my experience and knowledge to help me understand.
Item 13	As I listen, I quickly adjust my interpretation if I realize it is not correct.
Item 17	I use the general idea of the text to help me guess the meaning of the words that I don't understand.
Item 19	When I guess the meaning of a word, I think back to everything else that I have heard to see if my guess makes sense.

An analysis of the individual items also showed that the mean scores for all the strategies in the Problem-Solving domain were above the strategy midpoints. Therefore, the respondents generally found the use of linguistic and textual clues to be important in making inferences ($X_5 = 4.8$; $X_{17} = 4.8$; $X_{19} = 4.2$). In addition, the participants in general agreed that extra-linguistic and extra-textual clues (e.g., personal experience and general knowledge) were important in guessing at what they did not understand ($X_7 = 4.8$; $X_9 = 5.1$). Figure 4.3 illustrates the means for Problem-Solving strategy relative to their scale midpoint.

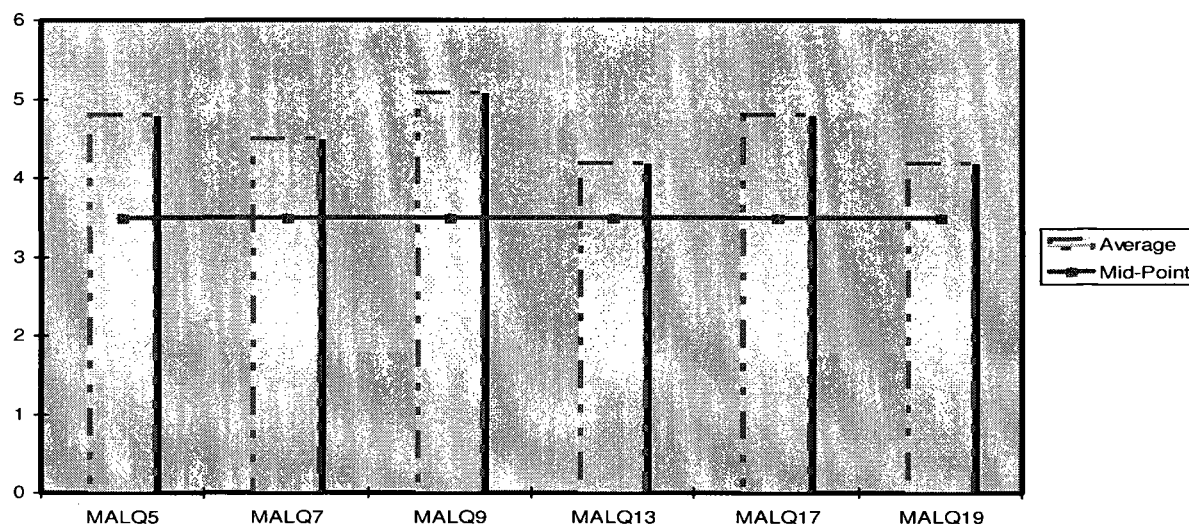


Figure 4.3: Problem-Solving Strategy Means Relative to the Scale Midpoint

Overall, these results indicate that the program participants were well aware of the Problem-Solving strategies and that they seemed to be taking advantage of these strategies for understanding difficult oral texts.

Mental Translation

For Mental Translation, the program participants were asked to report if they used or avoided online mental translation when listening in English. As shown by Table 4.1, the mean score for this scale fell below the midpoint ($X_{MT}= 3.1$), indicating that the participants in general did not rely on translation for understanding oral texts.

Item 4	I translate in my head as I listen.
Item 11	I translate key words as I listen.
Item 18	I translate word by word as I listen.

An examination of the responses to individual items also confirmed that this particular group, on average, disagreed with using mental translation strategies ($X_4 = 3.2$), especially when it came to word by word translation ($X_{18} = 2.3$). Interestingly, however, the mean for the translation of key words fell above the strategy midpoint. This suggests that the participants generally found that translation of key words was a positive strategy, which facilitated their comprehension ($X_{11} = 4.0$). Figure 4.4 illustrates the means for Mental Translation strategy relative to their scale midpoint.

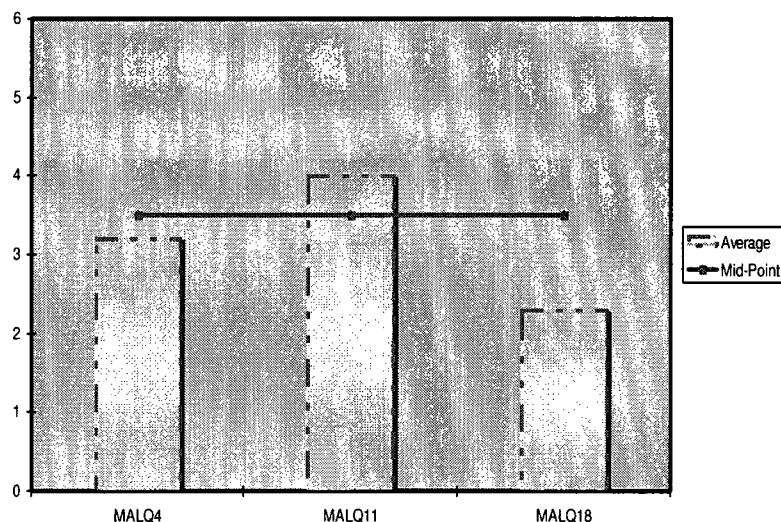


Figure 4.4: Mental Translation Strategy Means Relative to the Scale Midpoint

Given the proficiency level of the program participants (i.e., high intermediate to advanced) as well as the contextual climate of the program (the program instructors usually do not know the program participants' first language and English is the only language of instruction), avoiding online translation is not surprising. In fact, these findings accord with the previous literature, which suggests more advanced listeners in general avoid translation strategies (Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal & Tafaghodtari, 2006; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010).

Directed Attention

For Directed Attention, the students were asked to report the strategies they used to concentrate and stay on task while listening. As shown by Table 4.1, the mean score for this scale fell below the midpoint ($X_{DA} = 2.4$), suggesting that on average Attention strategies were not fully exploited by these learners.

Item 2	I focus harder on the text when I have trouble understanding.
Item 6	When my mind wanders, I recover my concentration right away.
Item 12	I try to get back on track when I lose concentration
Item 16	When I have difficulty understanding what I hear, I give up and stop thinking.

A closer look at the individual strategies revealed that the mean for focusing and/or refocusing strategies fell well below the strategy midpoints ($X_2 = 2.5$; $X_6 = 2.1$; $X_{12} = 2.5$), indicating that the EIP learners did not properly use concentration strategies when losing focus. Interestingly, however, the mean for giving up on listening when losing concentration was above the midpoint ($X_{16} = 4.4$). This suggested that these students remained on task even when they

lost concentration. Figure 4.5 illustrates the means for Directed Attention strategy relative to their scale midpoint.

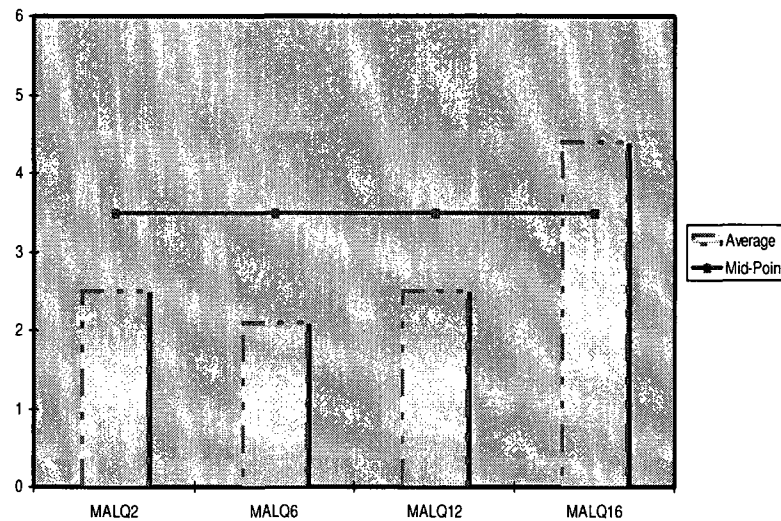


Figure 4.5: Directed Attention Strategy Means Relative to the Scale Midpoint

These results, overall, show that the EIP participants were generally resilient to task difficulty (which could cause concentration loss); however, they still had problems to re-concentrate. Therefore, while they were conscious of the significance of attention strategies, they were not fully able to use them properly.

Person Knowledge

For Person Knowledge, the program participants were asked to report their perceptions of L2 listening difficulty as well as their evaluation of own listening ability. As shown by Table 4.1, the mean score for this scale was average ($X_{PK} = 3.4$), which suggests that learners were anxious, but not overly anxious about listening situations.

Item 3	I find that listening in English is more difficult than reading, speaking, and writing in English.
Item 8	I feel that listening comprehension in English is a challenge for me.
Item 15	I don't feel nervous when I listen to English.

An examination of the individual items, however, showed that the respondents found that L2 listening was a challenge for them, as the mean score for item 8 was slightly above average. ($X_8 = 3.9$). The participants also found listening was a slightly stressful experience ($X_{15} = 3.6$). However, the mean score for item 3 ($X_3 = 3.3$) indicated that the participants did not find that listening was particularly more challenging than any other language skill. Figure 4.6 illustrates the means for Person Knowledge strategy relative to their scale midpoint.

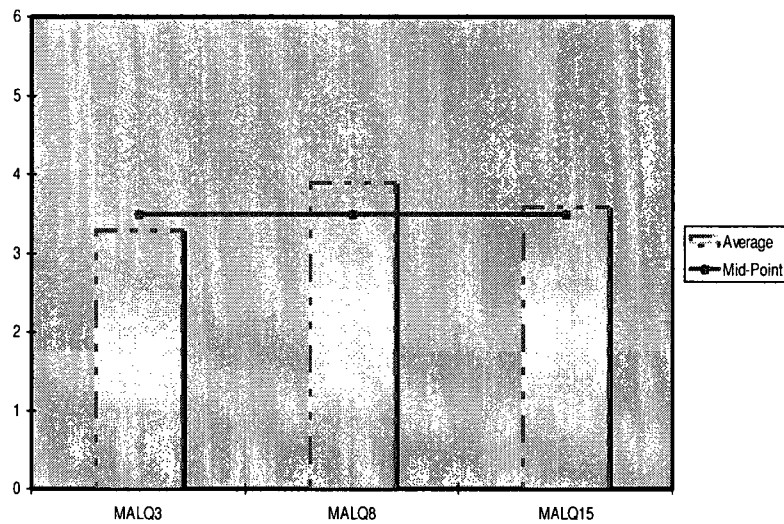


Figure 4.6: Person Knowledge Strategy Means Relative to the Scale Midpoint

Overall, these results indicate that the EIP participants found listening as challenging and stressful as the other component of L2 language development (i.e., reading and writing). Therefore, they believed the same amount of effort was required in order to be able to improve their L2 listening ability.

4.2.1.2 - Motivation Orientation Scales Questionnaire

Table 4.2 displays the means, standard deviations, and range for each sub-scale in the MOSQ.

Table 2
Means, Standard Deviations, and Ranges for Motivation
Orientation Scale Questionnaire Items by Motivation
Factors

	Item	X	SD	Range
Amotivation		2.9	1.0	1-6
	MOSQ5	1.3	1.1	1-6
	MOSQ17	1.2	1.0	0-6
Extrinsic Motivation		4.2	1.3	1-6
	External Regulation	4.3	1.5	1-6
	MOSQ1	4.6	1.4	1-6
	MOSQ2	4.6	1.2	1-6
	MOSQ4	5.2	0.9	1-6
	Introjected Regulation	4.7	1.2	1-6
	MOSQ7	4.5	1.2	1-6
	MOSQ8	3.6	1.4	1-6
	MOSQ10	4.7	1.2	1-6
	Identified Regulation	3.4	1.3	1-6
	MOSQ13	3.9	1.5	1-6
	MOSQ14	2.7	1.6	1-6
	MOSQ16	4.5	1.3	1-6
		3.8	1.2	1-6
	Intrinsic Knowledge	4.3	1.8	1-6
	MOSQ3	4.5	1.3	1-6
Intrinsic Motivation	MOSQ6	4.1	1.1	1-6
	MOSQ9	4.5	1.1	1-6
	Intrinsic Accomplishment	4.3	1.1	1-6
	MOSQ11	4.1	1.1	1-6
	MOSQ12	4.1	1.1	1-6
	MOSQ15	4.9	1.2	1-6
	Intrinsic Regulation	3.3	1.2	1-6
	MOSQ18	3.5	1.1	2-6
	MOSQ19	3.2	1.2	1-6
	MOSQ20	3.1	1.2	1-6

The second research question concerned the EIP learners' motivation orientations. In order to answer this question, the means, standard deviations and range of the scales and subscales of the MOSQ were examined. As demonstrated by Table 4.2, the mean score for

Amotivation was well below the scale midpoint ($X_{AM} = 2.9$), whereas the mean score for Extrinsic Motivation was above average ($X_{EX} = 4.2$). The mean score for Intrinsic Motivation was average, and lower than that of Extrinsic Motivation ($X_{IN} = 3.0$). These results suggest that the EIP learners are motivated listeners, and that they ascribe value to their L2 listening efforts. They also appear to find pedagogical practices in the EIP regarding L2 listening development relevant to their overall language learning goals. However, their motivation for their L2 listening efforts appears to be driven mainly by external forces (Figure, 4.7).

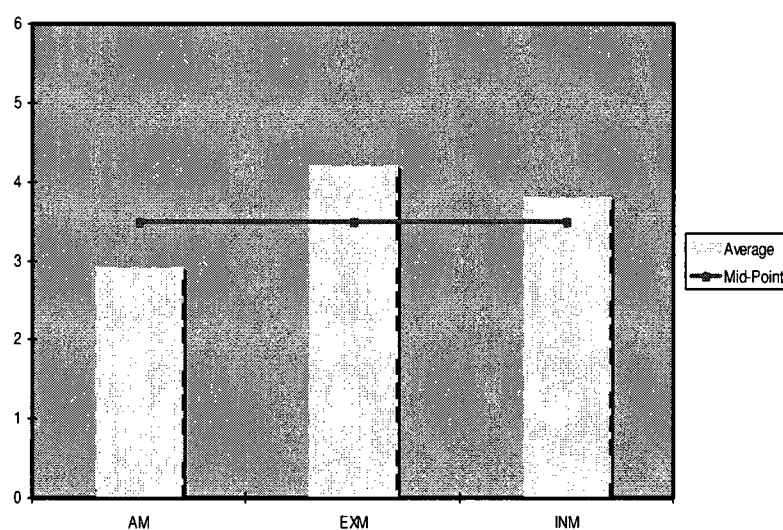


Figure 4.7: Motivation Orientations Means Relative to the Scales Midpoint

As was presented in Chapter Three, an important aspect of the MOSQ is the degree to which listeners' efforts are self-determined. Therefore, while it is very important that learners

regulate their listening efforts, it is also important that they internalize the regulation of these efforts. It is also very important for learners to transform these efforts in ways that can be personally endorsed. In order to see whether this was the case for the EIP learners participating in this study, the next section will be dedicated to the examination of the subscales of Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation orientations.

Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsically motivated behavior is often controlled and non-autonomous and, as such, is commonly believed to not be personally important to individuals. However, MOSQ differentiates between three types of extrinsic motivation and the degree to which they are self-determined and autonomous: External Regulation, Introjected Regulation and Identified Regulation. While external regulation represents behavior that is the least autonomous and the least internalized, identified regulation represents behavior, which has a certain degree of personal meaning and relevance to the individual.

As shown by Table 4.2, the mean scores for External and Introjected Regulation subscales for the EIP learners fell well above the subscale midpoints ($X_{XR} = 4.3$; $X_{INR} = 4.7$), indicating that the learners' listening efforts were mainly regulated and controlled by external factors. The mean score for Identified Regulation, which is the least controlled type of Extrinsic Motivation, however, fell below average ($X_{IDR} = 3.4$), confirming that the learners' listening efforts were in general externally regulated (Figure 4.8). The next section provides the details of the participants' functioning in each subscale.

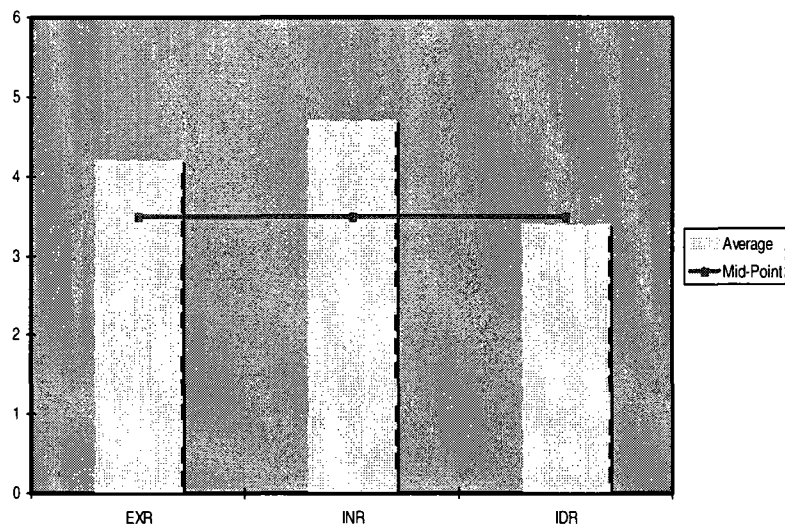


Figure 4.8: Extrinsic Motivation Sub-Scale Means Relative to the Sub-Scales Midpoints

External Regulation (EXR)

In order to determine the degree to which the learners' listening efforts were controlled by external sources, the students were asked to report whether their efforts in improving their L2 listening were motivated by achieving some instrumental end, such as money or a better job.

Item 1	In order to get a good job.
Item 7	In order to earn more money later on.
Item 13	For the benefits that I might gain by being accepted in the English-speaking community.

The participants in general agreed that improving their listening in English would result in getting a better job in the future, in being accepted in the English-speaking community, as well as in earning more money ($X_1 = 4.6$; $X_{13} = 4.6$; $X_7 \approx 5.6$). As mentioned before, these results indicate high degrees of external regulation -- associated with the least autonomous form of motivation -- of the participants' listening efforts. In other words, the EIP participants' efforts were dependent on some pressures from external events. These findings are not surprising since a majority of the students in the program either had a conditional admission to regular university programs or planned to join regular academic programs at some point. Many of them also had to take an ESL high-stakes exam or needed to meet the requirements of their bridging course. As such, their engagement with L2 listening activities was externally regulated.

Introjected Regulation (INR)

As for Introjected Regulation, -- i.e., taking in the regulation of listening efforts but not accepting it as one's own --, the participants were asked about the sources of pressure for improving their L2 listening.

Item 2	To prove to myself that I am a good citizen.
Item 8	Because I would feel guilty if I don't know English.
Item 14	Because I would feel ashamed if I could not speak/listen to my English-speaking friends in English.

In general, the participants agreed that improving their L2 listening was necessary for them as good global citizens ($X_2 = 4.6$). In addition, although the respondents did not experience feelings of guilt ($X_8 = 2.7$), they generally agreed that failure to make sense of oral text in

English could be a shameful experience ($X_{14} = 3.6$). In other words, although the EIP participants did not practice their L2 listening to avoid feelings of guilt, they were still motivated by external causes such as avoiding feelings of embarrassment. Research has shown that people whose behaviors are introjected tend to lose motivation for the target activity at some point (Ryan, 1982). The implication of this for the EIP participants is that the learners could lose genuine interest for improving their listening in English, above and beyond the controlled and structured EIP activities if their efforts in improving their L2 listening is strongly motivated by feelings of embarrassment (or avoidance of such feelings).

Identified Regulation (IDR)

When asked about personally-relevant reasons for improving their L2 listening, the program participants in general agreed that improving their L2 listening was important for their personal development ($X_4 = 3.9$). Yet, they did not feel that wishing (and/or making efforts) for understanding other languages (including English) was necessarily their own choice ($X_{10} = 2.7$; $X_{16} = 3.4$).

Item 4	Because I think it is important for my personal development.
Item 10	Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak more than one language.
Item 16	Because I choose to be the kind of person who speaks English.

These results imply that although the program participants were strongly driven by some instrumental goal or external contingency in their engagement with the listening activities (e.g.,

succeeding in high-stakes tests), they had, at the same time, internalized those contingencies in ways such that they could endorse their listening efforts as personally relevant and meaningful.

Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic Motivation is at the heart of autonomous behavior; in other words, when people are intrinsically motivated, they are self-determined and autonomous. The different types of Intrinsic Motivation, i.e., Intrinsic Knowledge, Intrinsic Accomplishment and Intrinsic Regulation, refer to the degree of internalization and integration of the activity, and the degree of autonomy.

As shown by Table 4.2, the mean scores for Intrinsic Knowledge and Accomplishment fell above the subscale midpoints ($X_{INK} = 4.3$; $X_{INA} = 4.3$), while the mean score for Intrinsic Regulation fell slightly below average ($X_{INR} = 3.3$). These results suggest that the participants had to some degree personally endorsed their efforts and activities regarding L2 listening; however, these efforts were not fully integrated and autonomous (Figure 4.9). The next section will provide the details of each subscale of Intrinsic Motivation.

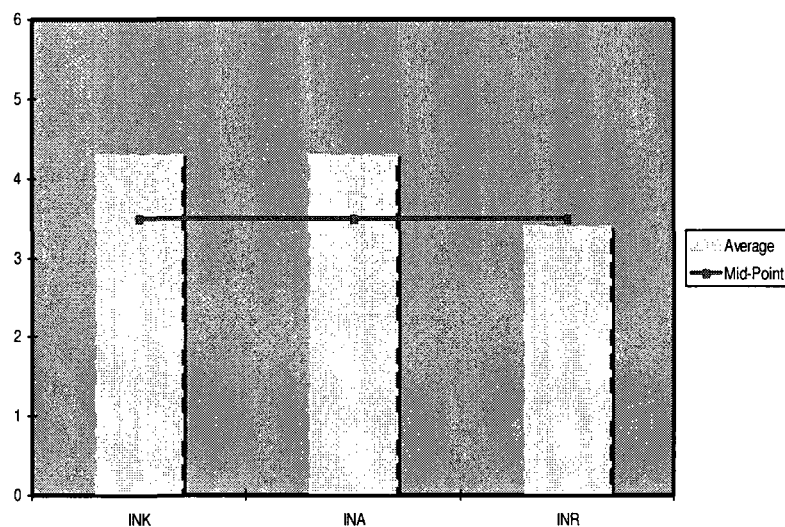


Figure 4.9: Intrinsic Motivation Sub-Scale Means Relative to the Sub-Scales Midpoints

Intrinsic Knowledge (INK)

For Intrinsic Knowledge, the program participants were asked to report if they enjoyed their efforts in improving their L2 listening and the consequences of such efforts.

Item 3	Because I enjoy the feeling of learning about English-speaking people and their way of life.
Item 6	For the pleasure that I experience in knowing more about the English literature.
Item 9	For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things.

The participants in general related their efforts in improving their L2 listening to exploring new ideas and developing knowledge, and reported enjoyment in learning about English-speaking people and their way of life ($X_3 = 4.5$). They also reported that they enjoyed knowing more about the English language literature ($X_6 = 4.1$), and that they felt satisfied when they realized improving their L2 listening helped them find out new things ($X_9 = 4.5$). These findings imply that the program participants on average ascribed interest, rather than obligation, to L2 listening activities.

Intrinsic Accomplishment (INA)

As for Intrinsic Accomplishment, the participants were asked about the feelings they experienced regarding their efforts for improving their L2 listening.

Item 18	For the enjoyment I experience when I understand a difficult idea in English.
Item 19	For the good feeling I get when I do better than I thought in my English class.
Item 20	For the satisfaction that I feel when I am doing difficult exercises in English.

The respondents in general said that improving their English language listening led to enjoyment, especially when they understood a difficult idea while listening in English ($X_{18} = 4.1$). They also generally felt good when they did better than expected in their English courses ($X_{19} = 4.1$), and felt satisfied when they did challenging listening exercises ($X_{20} = 4.9$). These findings also confirmed the earlier results that the participants felt satisfaction in participating in listening activities. These results also imply that, for this particular group, it was very important

to perceive L2 listening practices in ways that they felt they were able to extend and exercise their capacities, and to explore and to learn more. Satisfaction was, therefore, experienced if they did better than expected in those difficult activities, which points to the need for satisfaction of competence. As such, challenging L2 listening activities were perceived to be relevant as long as they satisfied the need for competence; otherwise, they would be perceived as stressful (Also see Table 4.1 and Figure 4.6 for the results of Person Knowledge).

Intrinsic Regulation (INR)

The degree of intrinsic regulation of listening efforts was examined through the sensations stimulated by improving L2 listening.

Item 11	For the “high” that I get while speaking English.
Item 12	For the “high” that I get when I hear someone speaking a foreign language.
Item 15	For the pleasure that I get from hearing English spoken by English-speaking people.

The results showed that the EIP learners on average did not report that they felt overly excited about engagement in listening events ($X_{15} = 3.1$; $X_{11} = 3.5$; $X_{12} = 3.2$). Higher degrees of sensations are believed to be simulated by participating in activities which are freely initiated and which emanated from the individuals’ genuine interest rather than obligation. These types of behaviors, according to Reeve (2004), are very important because they promote perceptions of choice and freedom. The EIP learners’ Intrinsic Regulation results suggest that although the EIP participants embraced the value of learning and developing knowledge about English language

and culture, they had not fully integrated this knowledge. This is not surprising given the high levels of External Regulation reported by the learners.

In sum, the initial descriptive analyses of the metacognition and motivation questionnaire results revealed that L2 listening was a challenging and stressful experience for the participants of the program. In order to make sense of the oral text, the participants appropriately used Problem-Solving strategies and rightly avoided Mental Translation strategies (except for key words). However, they under-used Planning and Evaluation strategies and did not recognize the significance of these very important strategies. They also reported difficulty in the use of Directed Attention strategies although they recognized their value and relevance. In addition, the program participants ascribed value and interest to L2 listening component of the program and saw it in line with their own goals and objectives. These participants were motivated individuals and while their engagement with L2 listening activities was strongly motivated by attaining separate outcomes or extrinsic rewards (e.g., getting a better job or being recognized as a good global citizen), they still had a clear sense of volition.

Now that the learners' patterns of strategy use and their motivation orientation have been outlined, it is relevant to determine the ways in which these strategies and motivation orientations influence actual L2 listening performance. As such, the next section will be dedicated to examination of the nature of the relationships between and among the EIP learners' L2 listening performance, reported metacognitive strategy use and reported motivation orientations through the application of correlational and regression analyses.

4.2.2 - Correlational and Regression Analyses

The correlational and regression analyses helped answer the following research question: What linear combination of metacognitive strategies and motivation orientations best predicts L2 listening performance? In the following section, I try to identify 1) whether metacognitive subscales (i.e., Problem-Solving, Planning and Evaluation, Mental Translation, Directed Attention, and Person Knowledge) correlate with the three motivation orientations (i.e., Amotivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Intrinsic Motivation), and if so what pattern they the correlations follow; and, 2) whether the combination of metacognitive strategies and motivation orientations can predict variability in listening performance.

4.2.2.1 - Correlational Analyses

Table 4.3 provides the means and standard deviations for the learners' listening performance at the three proficiency levels: intermediate, high intermediate, and advanced.

Table 4.3
Means and Standard Deviations for Listening
Performance

Proficiency Level	n	X	SD
Intermediate	29	14.5	1.1
High Intermediate	35	16.1	1.3
Advanced	32	18.3	1.5

An inspection of histograms and skewness coefficients showed that all measures were systematically distributed except for the measure of Intrinsic Motivation, which was positively

skewed; the logarithmic (log X) transformation of the Intrinsic Motivation score was normally distributed and, therefore, was used in all the analyses. Table 4.4 displays Cronbach's alpha coefficients for all the questionnaire variables. Many of the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the questionnaire variables were poor (i.e., measurement error) with the exception of Mental Translation ($\alpha = 0.76$), Problem Solving ($\alpha = 0.66$) and Extrinsic Motivation ($\alpha = 0.66$). This restricted the observed magnitude of the Pearson product moment coefficients. Therefore, correlations were corrected for measurement error using the following formula:

$$^9r^*_{12} = r_{12} / \sqrt{r_{11} r_{22}}$$

The adjusted correlation matrix with its associated effect size is provided in the bottom half of Table 4.4.

⁹ Where r^*_{12} is the disattenuated correlation, r_{12} is the observed correlation, r_{11} and r_{22} are the reliabilities of the two constructs.

Table 4.4

Means, Standard Deviations, Ranges, Cronbach's Alphas, and Correlations of Questionnaire Variables

	Alpha	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
1 Listening Score	0.90 ¹		0.26**	0.18	0.12	0.13	0.24**	0.04	0.31**	0.30**
2 Planning and Evaluation	0.61			0.31**	0.1	0.21*	0.32**	-0.13	0.22*	0.13
3 Directed Attention	0.40				0.1	0.1	0.25*	0.05	0.05	0.05
4 Person Knowledge	0.60					0.28*	0.1	0.04	0.04	0.02
5 Mental Translation	0.76						-0.18	-0.02	-0.2	-0.18
6 Problem Solving	0.66							-0.2	0.21*	0.01
7 Amotivation	0.51								-0.32**	0.1
8 Extrinsic Motivation	0.66									0.56**
9 Intrinsic Motivation	0.58									
Correlations with r Adjusted for Attenuation										
2 Planning and Evaluation		1	0.63**	0.16	0.31**	0.51**	-0.23*	0.35**	0.22*	
3 Directed Attention			0.34	1	0.20*	0.18	0.49**	0.11	0.10	0.11
4 Person Knowledge			0.03	0.04	1	0.31**	0.16	0.07	0.06	0.05
5 Mental Translation			0.1	0.03	0.1	1	-0.25*	-0.04	-0.28*	-0.27*
6 Problem Solving			0.26	0.24	0.03	0.06	1	-0.35**	0.31**	0.03
7 Amotivation			0.05	0.01	0.004	0.001	0.12	1	-0.5**	-0.18
8 Extrinsic Motivation			0.12	0.01	0.003	0.08	0.1	0.25	1	0.95**
9 Intrinsic Motivation			0.05	0.01	0.003	0.07	.009	0.03	0.90	1

¹ The Cronbach alpha reported here is based on the Wesche, Paribakht and Ready (1996).

As can be seen in Table 4.4, L2 Listening correlated significantly with Planning and Evaluation ($r^2 = 0.07$), Problem-Solving ($r^2 = 0.06$), Extrinsic Motivation ($r^2 = 0.10$) and Intrinsic Motivation ($r^2 = 0.09$). The correlations were all positive, but small (Cohen, 1988). Extrinsic Motivation showed the highest correlation with L2 listening. As for the relationships between the scales of the MALQ and MOSQ, Amotivation significantly and negatively correlated with Extrinsic Motivation with a large effect ($r^2 = 0.25$) but did not correlate significantly with Intrinsic Motivation ($r^2 = 0.03$). In addition, there were significant and negative correlations between Amotivation and Planning and Evaluation ($r^2 = 0.05$) and Amotivation and Problem-Solving ($r^2 = 0.12$). The results also indicated that Extrinsic Motivation and Intrinsic Motivation correlated positively and significantly ($r^2 = 0.90$; very large effect), similar to previous studies (Noel, et al. 2001; Vandergrift, 2005). In addition, there were significant correlations between Extrinsic Motivation and three subscales of the MALQ, i.e., Planning and Evaluation ($r^2 = 0.12$), Mental Translation ($r^2 = 0.08$) and Problem-Solving ($r^2 = 0.10$). Intrinsic Motivation significantly correlated with Planning and Evaluation ($r^2 = 0.05$) and Mental Translation ($r^2 = 0.07$).

In sum, only Planning and Evaluation, Mental Translation as well as Problem-Solving strategies showed significant correlations with the three MOSQ subscales, i.e., Amotivation, Extrinsic Motivation and intrinsic Motivation. As shown in Table 4.4, the significant correlations (among MALQ and MOSQ subscales) ranged from 0.22 to 0.35, which, according to Cohen (1988) are small. The correlations in general followed the expected patterns, with Extrinsic Motivation showing the highest correlation with all the three subscales of the MALQ.

4.2.2.2 - Regression Model

As demonstrated by the correlational analyses, only four of the MALQ and MOSQ scales correlated with L2 listening, and none of the correlations were of large effect. Although these correlational analyses are instrumental in demonstrating the relationship among the factors, they cannot account for the direction of the relationships. Without knowing the direction of relationship, however, it would be difficult to determine whether it is performance on L2 listening which reinforces motivation and strategy use or it is strategy use and the level and orientation of learner motivation which reinforce higher L2 listening achievement results. In addition, correlation coefficients only tell us how much one variable (e.g., L2 listening) tends to change when another does (e.g., Extrinsic Motivation), but they do not tell us how this relationship changes when other variables come into the equation. Therefore, correlational analyses cannot provide the information necessary for deciding on the linear combination of metacognitive strategies and motivation orientations and their relationship with L2 listening.

In order to address this issue, a regression model was developed. Given the small sample size ($n = 96$), it was not possible to keep all the metacognitive strategy and motivation orientation scales in the equation. Therefore, in consideration of the smaller sample size and based on the patterns of correlations among the L2 Listening scores and the MOSQ and MALQ scales (i.e., Amotivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Intrinsic Motivation; Planning and Evaluation, Directed Attention, Person Knowledge, and Problem-Solving), only those scales which had shown significant correlations with L2 Listening were selected to be included in the regression model: Planning and Evaluation, Problem-Solving, Extrinsic Motivation and Intrinsic Motivation (Fig 4.10).

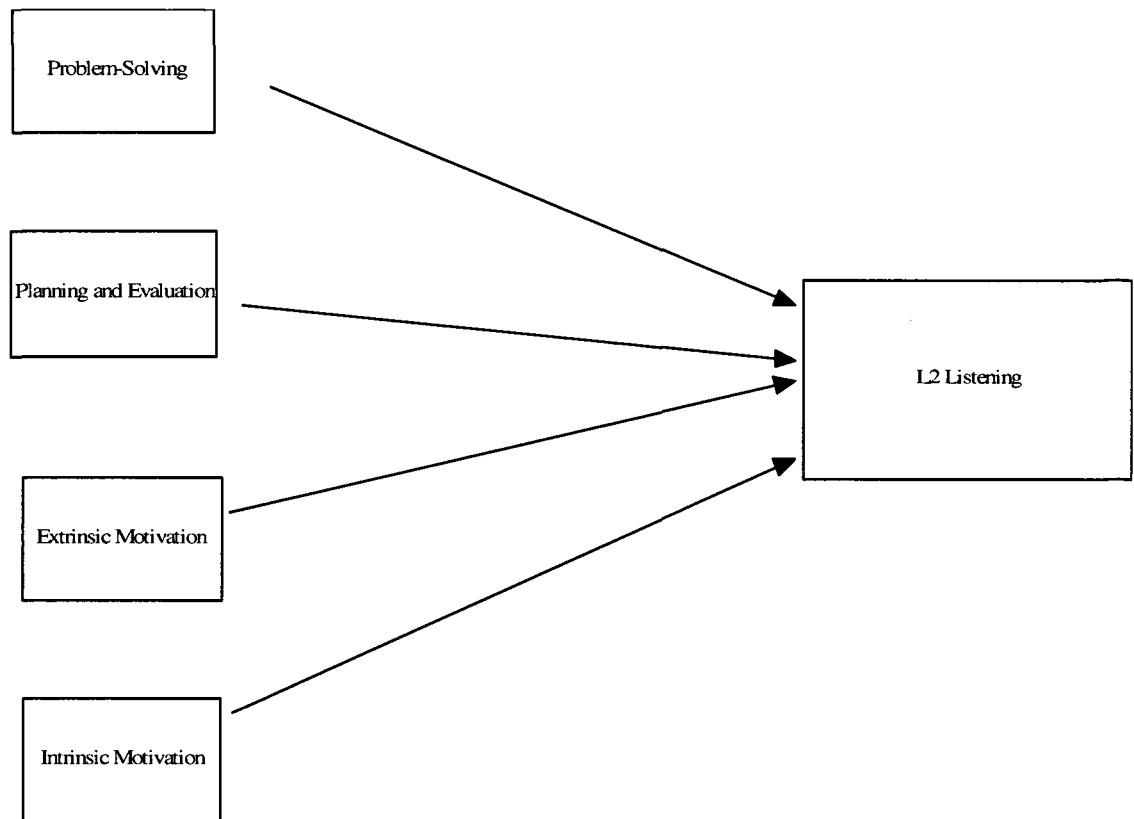


Figure 4.10: Listening ability as a function of planning and evaluation, problem-solving, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation

Table 4.5

**Results of Multiple Regression: Listening Ability
as a Function of Planning and Evaluation, Problem Solving,
Extrinsic Motivation and Intrinsic Motivation**

Model Summary					
Model	SS	df	MS	F	Sig
Regression	47.03	4	1175	11.76	0.000
Residual	90.87	92	0.99		
Total	137.87	96			

$R^2 = 0.36$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.31$

Table 4.5 and 4.6 display the summary of the multiple regression model, the unstandardized regression coefficient (B), the standardized regression coefficients (β) as well as R^2 , and adjusted R^2 . As can be seen (Table 4.5), this combination of variables significantly predicted L2 listening achievement (represented by L2 listening scores), $F_{4,92} = 11.76$, $p < 0.001$.

Table 4.6
Summary of Standard Multiple Regression Analysis for
Planning and Evaluation, Problem-Solving, Extrinsic Motivation
and Intrinsic Motivation Predicting L2 Listening Performance

Variable	B	SE	<i>B</i>	t	Sig.
Evaluation and Planning	0.04	0.03	0.14	1.49	0.13
Problem-Solving	0.001	0.001	0.12	1.13	0.26
Extrinsic Motivation	0.04	0.21	0.24**	2.05	0.4
Intrinsic Motivation	0.06	0.01	0.43**	4.19	0.00

Note. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.001$.

The beta weights, presented in Table 4.6, suggest that while the two Motivation Orientation scales, i.e., Extrinsic Motivation ($B = 0.24$) and Intrinsic Motivation ($B = 0.43$) significantly contributed to prediction of L2 listening, the two MALQ scales were not significant predictors. However, all the four variables together accounted for 34% of the variability in L2 listening ($R^2 = 0.36$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.31$), which is a medium effect (Cohen, 1988).

While this combination of metacognitive strategy and motivation orientation scales was a significant predictor of performance on L2 listening, it also raised an interesting question: Why do Planning and Evaluation and Problem-Solving appear to be non-significant predictors of L2 Listening Performance although they correlate significantly with both L2 Listening Performance, and the motivation scales? One possible answer to this question could be that the nature of the influence of the two metacognitive scales on L2 Listening performance has been changed due to their interaction with the motivation scales. In other words, it is possible that when all the variables are considered in the equation, Planning and Evaluation and Problem-Solving only indirectly influence variability in L2 listening. Since regression takes account of direct prediction

paths only, and “does not provide information about possible indirect prediction paths” (Musil, Jones & Warner, 1997, p. 273), the two metacognitive scales appear to lack the necessary observed power (i.e., they appeared to be non-significant predictors). However, in regression, lack of observed power of predictive variables (i.e., non-significant regression coefficients beta weights) could also be due to poor reliability of measurement. A re-examination of reliability of the questionnaire scales showed that the original Cronbach alphas of all the predictive variables were below 0.60, which also could be the reason for the non-significant beta weights (for the Cronbach alphas of all the questionnaire scales see Table 4.4). Therefore, in order to understand the role of metacognitive strategy use and learner motivation orientation in L2 listening ability, it was necessary to run an analysis which was able to take account of both direct and indirect paths, as well as to evaluate the relationships between the variables (Strategy Use and Motivation Orientation) and their measures (Musil, Jones & Warner, 1997). Structural equation modeling (SEM) is such an analysis, because it is able to evaluate not only the hypothesized structural linkages among variables, but also the relationships between each variable and its respective measure. As such, SEM was conducted for the purpose of understanding the role that strategy use and learner motivation play in the EIP participants’ L2 listening ability.

4.2.3 - Structural Equation Modeling

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was run to answer the following research question: What is the role of reported strategy use and learner motivation (i.e., metacognitive listening strategies and motivation orientations) in the EIP participants’ L2 listening ability? The results of the SEM, which are presented below, demonstrate that the relationship between listening

performance, and metacognition and motivation orientation is not simple and that this relationship is modified by the way that these two variables interact with each other. As such, interactivity plays an important role in the way that cognitive and affective factors influence performance.

SEM is different from a path or a regression model in that it assumes that critical constructs such as L2 listening ability are not directly observable and are better modeled as latent variables (Byrne, 2006; Templaar, 2006). As such, instead of keeping five variables (i.e., L2 Listening Performance, Planning and Evaluation, Problem-Solving, Extrinsic Motivation and Intrinsic Motivation) in the equation, three latent variables (i.e., constructs that cannot be observed directly) were constructed: Motivation Orientation, Metacognitive Strategy Use, and L2 Listening Ability (see Figure 4.11). Extrinsic Motivation and Intrinsic Motivation were defined as measures of the latent variable Motivation Orientation; Planning and Evaluation and Problem-Solving were defined as measures of the latent variable Metacognitive Strategy Use; indicators for the variable L2 Listening Ability were created using the participants' scores on the L2 Listening proficiency test and Person Knowledge. Person Knowledge, which represents self-efficacy beliefs that the L2 listeners hold about their L2 listening ability (Vandergrift et al., 2006), was determined to be a measure of the latent variable L2 Listening Ability instead of Metacognitive Strategy Use since it was believed that the L2 Listening Ability construct should include both the actual listening scores and perceptions of the task difficulty. In addition, Person Knowledge, although a component of metacognitive knowledge, was distinct from the other metacognitive subscales as it only consisted of "beliefs" rather than actual strategies. In the measurement model, all the indicators were defined as continuous and generic measures of the

respective latent variables. In this study, the SEM models were estimated with EQS using Maximum Likelihood Estimation.

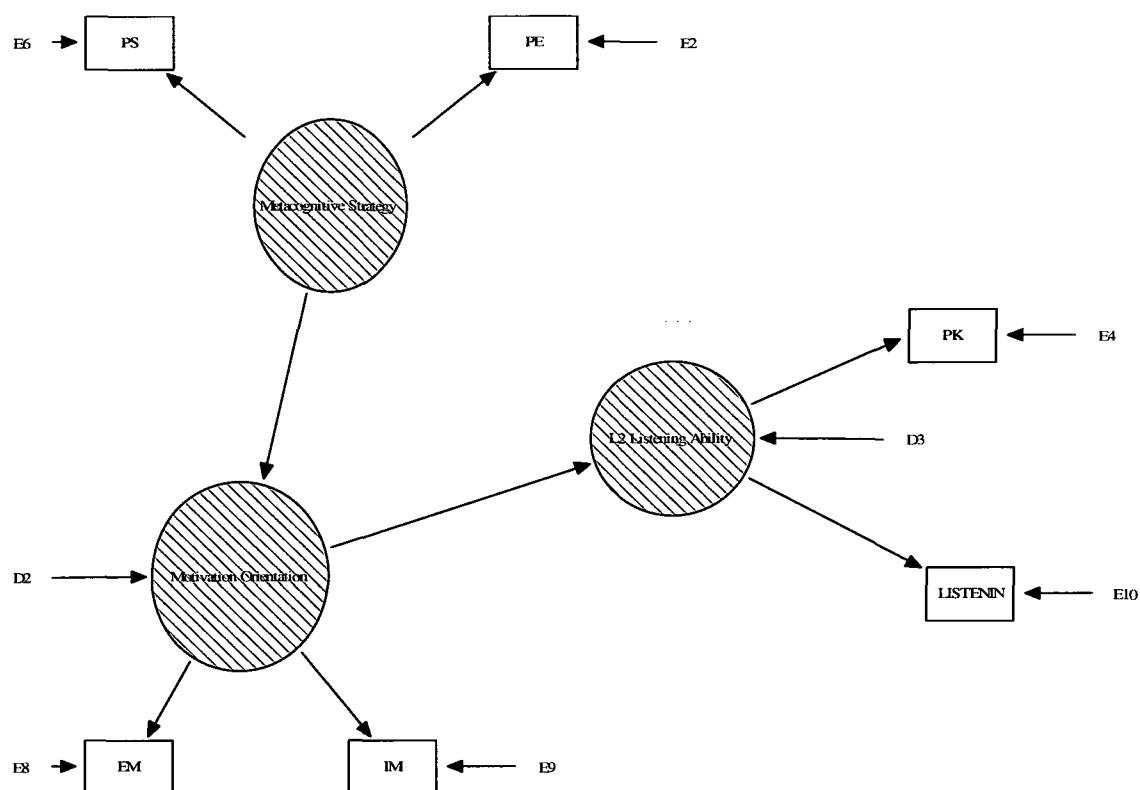


Figure 4.11: Direct and indirect paths between and among listening ability, metacognitive strategy use and motivation orientation: model 1

The measurement model was translated into a series of equations that included the measurement model followed by the structural model. Based on the results of the bivariate

correlations (Table 4.4) and regression model (Tables 4.5 & 4.6), two structural equations were added to the model: a) a path from Metacognitive Strategy Use to Motivation Orientation and b) a path from Motivation Orientation to Listening Ability (Figure 4.11). These paths represent the correlated antecedents of L2 Listening Ability, in which Motivation Orientation has a direct effect on L2 Listening Ability, while Metacognitive Strategy Use has an indirect effect on L2 Listening Ability through its direct effect on Motivation Orientation. Table 4.7 presents the fit indices of the hypothesized model.

Table 4.7

Model-Fit-Indices for L2 Listening Ability							
Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	<i>p</i>	CFI ^a	IFI ^b	MFI ^c	RMSEA ^d
1	7	14.39	0.03	0.87	0.89	0.96	0.09
2	6	9.57	0.25	0.97	0.97	0.99	0.05

Note. ^aComparative Fit Index, ^bIncremental Fit Index, ^cMcDonald Fit Index, ^dRoot Mean Square Error of Approximation.

According to Byrne (2006), fit indices yield information bearing on the model's lack of fit; therefore, "assessment of model accuracy must be based on multiple criteria that take into account theoretical, statistical and practical considerations" (p. 102). As can be seen in Table 4.7,

the chi-square test was significant (chi-square = 14.39; $df = 7$; $p = 0.03$) suggesting that the fit of the data to the hypothesized model was not satisfactory. However, due to the sensitivity of chi-square statistics to sample size and model complexity (Byrne, 2006), other goodness-of-fit indexes were examined. The main criteria used to assess model fit included Bentler's (1990) Comparative Fit Index (CFI), a non-normed index that compares the fit of a baseline model with that of a better hypothesized model; Bollen's (1989) Incremental Fit Index (IFI), an index which accounts for parsimony and sample size; McDonald's (1989) Fit Index (MFI), an absolute fit index which assesses model misfit; and Steiger and Lind's (1980) Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), an index which is sensitive to the number of parameters in the model. MacCallum and Austin (2000) strongly recommend routine use of RMSEA for at least three reasons: a) it appears to be adequately sensitive to model misspecification (Hu & Bentler, 1998); b) the interpretive guidelines (values greater less than 0.60) in general are helpful in making appropriate conclusions regarding model quality (Hu & Bentler, 1999); and c) it is possible to build confidence intervals around RMSEA values. CFI, IFI and MFI coefficient values greater than 0.95 indicate superior fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999) and RMSEA values less than 0.60 indicate good fit.

As demonstrated in Table 4.7, the main indices of goodness-of-fit in this analysis did not show a satisfactory fit and only one of the indices met the cut-off criteria (CFI = 0.87; IFI = 0.89; MFI = 0.96; RMSREA = 0.094). An examination of the modification indices (Lagrangian Multiplier test statistics) suggested addition of a path from Metacognitive Strategy Use to L2 Listening Ability. This finding implied that, in this specific sample, Metacognitive Strategy Use had both a direct effect on L2 listening ability and an indirect effect through the mediation of

Motivation Orientation. Therefore, to achieve a good statistical fit, a path flowing from Metacognitive Strategy Use to L2 listening ability was specified (Figure 4.12).

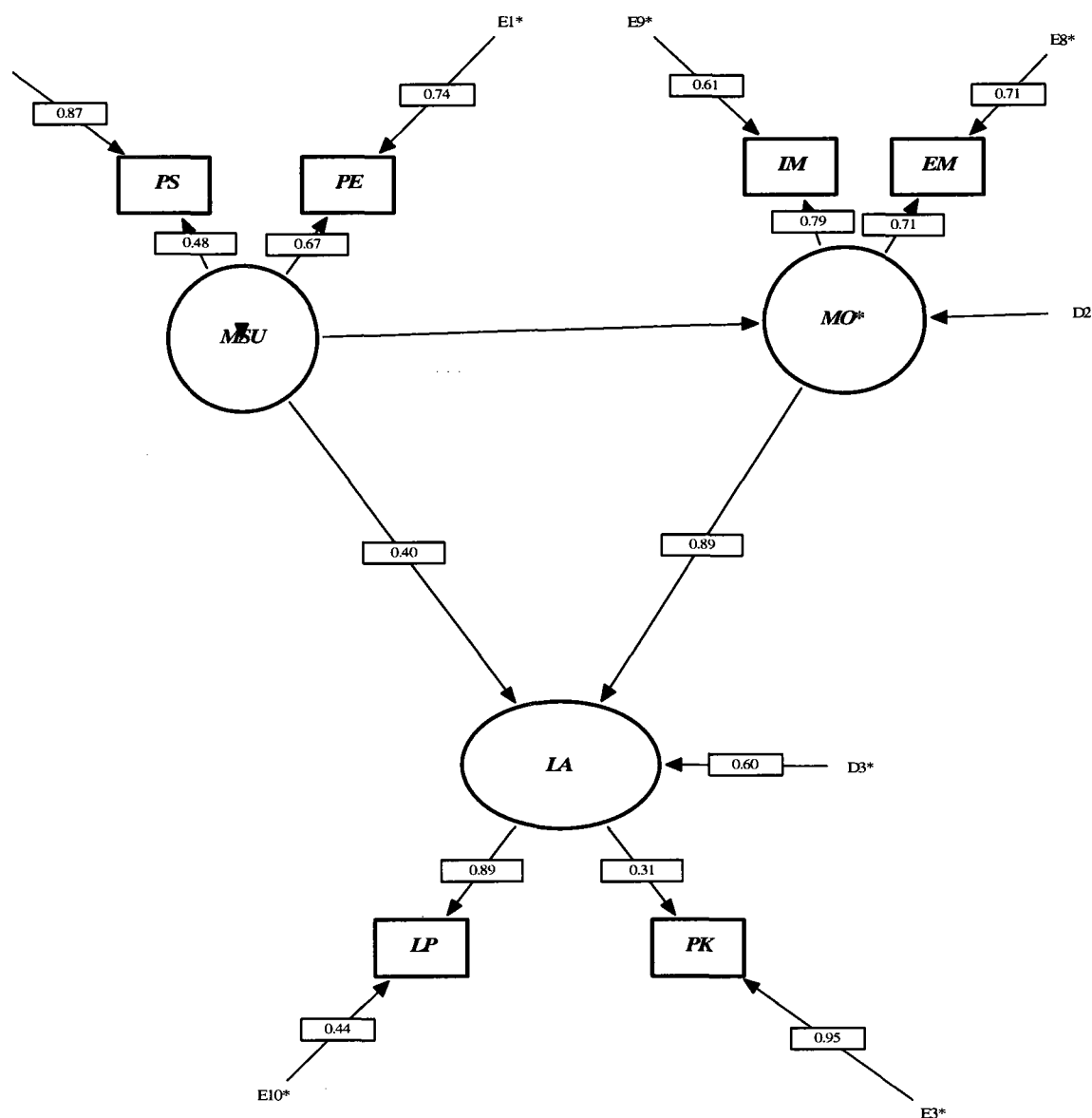


Figure 4.12: Effect of metacognitive strategy use on L2 listening ability through the mediation of motivation orientation: model 2

The goodness-of-fit results of the second model are also presented in Table 4.7. As can be seen, the fit of model 2 was satisfactory and all the main goodness-of-fit indices (CFI = 0.96; IFI = 0.97; MFI = 0.99; RMSREA = 0.05) met the cut-off criteria. Fig 4.12 shows the path diagram with the estimated standardized path coefficients. To further assess the overall model fit, the number of iterations required for a convergent solution and the mean absolute change in parameter estimates (associated with each iteration) were examined. According to Byrne (2006), in model specification, “the best scenario is a situation in which only a few iterations are needed to reach convergence” (p. 102). An examination of the results indicated only 14 iterations were needed to reach convergence and that after the first seven iterations, the parameter values remained relatively stable. This further confirmed that the fit of model 2 was satisfactory¹⁰.

In sum, after correcting for measurement error with SEM, the R^2 for the latent variable Listening Ability changed to 0.64, which is a large effect. Thus, based on the SEM model, it can be estimated that for this particular group, while 36% of the variance can be explained by variables not included in this SEM model, 64% of variability in the program participants’ L2 listening ability could be explained by their level of metacognitive strategy use and motivation orientation when these variables are considered.

Since there is empirical evidence from the program participants’ perceptions and actual listening performance for the role of interaction between linguistic and non-linguistic factors (metacognition and motivation orientation) in L2 listening development, the next section will examine the place that these factors have in the expectations for learners in the EIP documents.

¹⁰ Examination of the measurement proportions of the model showed that each indicator variable had a loading of at least 0.40 (with the exception of PK = 0.31).

4.2.4 - Cognitive and Affective Factors: The EIP Program Policy and Practice

Guidelines

The answers to the questions 1, 1.I, 1.II, 1.III revealed the significant role of metacognitive strategy use and motivation orientation in explaining variance in L2 listening performance. This took me to the next research question of the first phase of the study: To what degree do performance expectations for learners regarding L2 listening development, as stated in the EIP policy and practice guidelines, reflect strategy use and learner motivation (i.e., metacognitive listening strategies and motivation orientations? Since there is empirical evidence from the students' performance and perceptions that learning strategies and motivation orientations influence variability in listening performance, it is important to determine whether there is a mis/match between the policymaker's assumptions regarding the performance dimension of listening as a measurable skill and the program participants' actual performance and perceptions.

It is important to note that while this section is only limited to the listening performance expectations for learners in the Guidelines for Teachers and Teaching Assistants, a more in-depth review of the EIP program policy and practice guidelines will be provided in Chapter 5. The EIP Guidelines for Teachers and Teaching Assistants, include 25 pages of text divided into 18 sections: "An Overview of the EIP", "Program Start-up Procedures", "Team Teaching in the EIP", "Teacher Evaluation", "Social Activities", "Teaching Support Services", "The Role of Administrative Staff in the EIP", "Emergencies", "Teaching Assistant Duties", "Training (2-4 hours)", "Suggested Timetables", "Course Outline Standard", "Guidelines for Conducting

Research”, “Descriptors for Listening Comprehension”, “Descriptors for Written Expression”, “Descriptors for Reading Comprehension”, “Descriptors for Oral Expression” and “End of Course Evaluation of Students and Teaching Staff”. “Descriptors for Listening Comprehension”

The following is an excerpt from the introductory pages of the Guidelines for Teachers and Teaching Assistants:

“Students in the beginner and intermediate levels focus on the acquisition of oral interaction skills, while in the upper levels, the focus shifts more to English for professional and academic purposes....”

As can be seen from these introductory lines, the guidelines appeared to assume that professional and academic skills are distinct from the oral interaction skills¹¹. In addition, they undermine the importance of an instructional focus on the oral skills (i.e., listening and speaking) in more advanced levels at the outset of teaching and learning goals.

It is worth noting that specific details regarding course objectives, standards and progressive indicators were missing from the program policies and practice guidelines under analysis. More specifically, although the practice guidelines included level descriptors, learning goals were broadly discussed under course outline standards and descriptors for the four skills. For example, in ‘Course Outline Standards’, the guidelines recommended that the teachers be explicit about general content and the teaching techniques:

¹¹ Another reading of these introductory lines in the guidelines can be that the need for professional and academic skills are more immediate at higher proficiency level (Vandergrift, personal communication, December 2008).

Description: Keep this general; four skills, 21 hrs per week including classroom instruction, lab and field trips; TOEFL and extra-curricular activities; teaching techniques and general content (In the past, some course outlines have included the description from the EIP brochure).

Content: Include thematic content, grammar, functions, etc.

Methodologies: Small group activities, oral presentations, grammar-focused activities, pair work.

A closer examination of the methodology section of the EIP course outline standards also demonstrated that the documents provided teachers with brief guidelines regarding instructional strategies (group work, pair work, etc.). However, the guidelines in general did not mention the role of learner motivation in developing pedagogical activities. In addition, there was no explicit reference to the role of strategy instruction. This is surprising given that strategy instruction can be one way of improving academic performance in both first and second language. This absence also stands in contrast with some studies in the field of L2 listening development, which have provided evidence for the effectiveness of integrated instruction of a repertoire of strategies in helping L2 learners develop comprehension skills for real-life listening (Berne, 2004; Grabe, 2004; 2005; Graham & Maca, 2008; Mendelsohn, 1994; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010).

In addition, motivation-supportive teaching behaviors -- e.g., encouraging learners' intrinsic motivation, acknowledging learners' feelings, recognizing learners' interest and disinterest, etc. -- have shown to result in higher academic achievement, higher perceived

competence and self-esteem, greater creativity and higher rates of retention (Reeve, 2004).

Reeve (2004) posits that in light of such great benefits, it is imperative that educational programs provide guidelines regarding how to support motivation: “Programs do uphold intrinsic motivation as an important classroom aspiration, but teachers are often left wondering, ‘OK, *how* do I promote motivation – *what* would I do’?” (p. 191).

Cadiero-Kaplan (2004) posits that in L2 evaluation studies, examination of expectations for learners should “seek to clarify expectations of students as defined by the stakeholders, policies, and programs. For example, by the time they graduate, what are students expected to be able to do and/or accomplish, including expectations and methods of preparedness” (p. xxiv). In the EIP program policies and practice guidelines, the level descriptors for the four language skills (i.e., listening, reading, writing, and oral interaction) were the only section in which the performance expectations were explicitly outlined. As such, further examination of the level descriptors was necessary in order to find potential references to metacognitive strategy use and learner motivation. The followings are excerpts from Descriptors for Listening Comprehension from beginner, intermediate and advanced levels. Only a few have been selected in consideration of economy of space.

1. Academic Beginner. (1.5/2): Can understand a limited number of simple words, formulaic phrases, and short sentences on topics of immediate personal relevance, mainly in one-on-one conversations. Must be addressed in a very clear and deliberate manner. Request frequent repetitions or explanations. Often prefers translation.

3. High Beginner. (2.5+/3-): Can understand sentence length utterances of previously learned elements on a variety of basic topics. Can handle most information questions and simple stories about everyday experiences. Recognizes topic by familiar words and phrases. Can follow some longer texts on familiar topics, but comprehension is uneven. Has difficulty recognizing changes of topic, and often requests repetition. Requires some rewording, explanation or repetition from the speaker to maintain extended one-on-one interaction.

5. Mid Intermediate. (3+/3.5-): Can understand a range of vocabulary and a limited number of idioms. Can follow main ideas, and identify some key words and important details in connected discourse in moderately demanding contexts on general topics delivered at slower speed. Can cope with changes of speaker, but requires strong signaling to handle shifts in topic. May frequently request repetition, but then understand most of the message.

7. Low Advanced. (4/4+/4.5-): Has a good to very good range of vocabulary and structures. Is very comfortable in most one-on-one interactions. Can understand the main points and the supporting details in moderately demanding contexts if presented in a standard dialect. Can usually follow extended discourse containing abstract and complex ideas on a familiar topic, but has some limitations in the range of topics and the length. Background noise rarely interferes with comprehension, but has difficulty following rapid, colloquial/idiomatic or regionally accented speech between native speakers. Sometime requires repetition to clarify details.

9. High Advanced. (5/5+): Understands and processes almost like a *native* educated speaker. Functions as a native speaker in terms of changes of speaker or topic, rate of delivery, background noise, most regional accents, and the need for repetition. May not understand excessively rapid, highly accented or colloquial

As can be seen from the above excerpts, beyond the linguistic input, the descriptors appear to only point to two cognitive and socio-affective strategies: ‘asking for repetition’ (socio-affective) and ‘translation’ (cognitive). It is worth noting that ‘asking for repetition’ was recognized to be consistently a part of the listening performance expectations at varying EIP levels. For translation strategies, however, the EIP standards seem to suggest that while less advanced listeners (e.g., academic beginner) are expected to prefer translation, more advanced listeners (e.g., high advanced) completely avoid this strategy. This is in concert with the current literature on L2 listening which suggests that translation as a metacognitive strategy (as a regulatory strategy) is used at different stages of L2 listening; however, it is an inefficient approach to listening comprehension, which less-skilled listeners (of beginning stages) often feel compelled to use (Eastman, 1991; Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal & Tafaghodtari, 2006). Since there was evidence from the program participants’ performance and perception input regarding the significant role of both metacognitive and motivational factors in successful listening performance, it is important that the performance expectations for learners be adjusted to include these regulatory factors.

In brief, the EIP policies, particularly the level descriptors with respect to the development of L2 listening, mainly focused on the linguistic criteria (vocabulary, accent, etc.) in the specification of performance expectations for learners in the 9 EIP levels.

4.3 – Discussion

In this section, I will further discuss the findings of Stopping Point 1. Stopping Point 1 of this-mixed methods study reported on the results of a conceptual model of listening as a measurable skill, based on the interaction among linguistic, cognitive and affective factors, and evaluated the performance expectations for learners with respect to L2 listening in light of this model. More specifically, Stopping Point 1 focused on the program participants' patterns of reported metacognitive strategy use and motivation orientations, the ways in which these factors related to and influenced learners' actual listening performance and L2 listening ability, as well as the place that these factors have in the EIP policies regarding L2 listening.

With respect to reported metacognitive strategy use, the patterns of strategies revealed that the EIP learners were generally goal-oriented and reported high levels of strategy use in the domain of Problem-Solving. The results also showed that the participants did not rely on online translation, with the exception of the translation of key words. Given the context of the program (i.e., the program instructors usually do not know the program participants' first language and English is the only language of instruction) as well as evidence from the current literature on metacognitive listening strategies (e.g., Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal & Tafaghodtari, 2006), these results were not surprising. The patterns of strategy use in the domains of Planning and Evaluation and Directed Attention, however, were not desirable, as the surveyed learners seemed to be under-using the evaluative and concentration strategies. More specifically, the EIP participants of this study did not appear to gauge the importance of having a mental plan or a specific goal prior to listening activities; neither did they value the evaluation of any such plans

or goals. The participants also failed to properly engage concentration strategies although they reported resilience to difficulty when it came to listening activities. As for Person Knowledge or self-efficacy beliefs, while the participants did not find listening to be particularly more difficult than other components of second language learning, they still perceived listening as challenging and stressful.

Overall these results suggest that although these learners were aware of one or two learning strategies, they may still need systematic help through focused instruction in order to be able to employ the metacognitive strategies in all the five domains as a whole. In other words, specific learning and teaching activities should be designed to help build awareness among the learners that such strategies exist, that they are different from comprehension/cognitive strategies, and that they increase listening success (Zohar, 2004; Zohar & David, 2008). The utility of these strategies to educational contexts has been already established by research in the fields of education, psychology, and second language acquisition. In the context of the teaching and learning of L2 listening, there also seems to be agreement in the current literature that orchestrated use of self-regulatory and metacognitive strategies can improve L2 listening achievement (Goh, 2008; Graham & Mac, 2008; Mareschal, 2007; Vandergrift, 2004; 2007; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010). Some of the instructional practices, which have already shown to be relevant in this regard, include direct instruction, scaffolding, teacher modeling, and group activities (Goh, 2008; Schraw, 1998; Vandergrift, 2004). A recent study by Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010), has demonstrated that sensitizing learners to the processes underlying listening through a pedagogical cycle of guided practice over time, as compared to one or two

isolated strategies, can both raise awareness of listening processes and improve listening success (Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010).

Most of the existing literature on the application of metacognitive strategies as well as other kinds of learning strategies, however, relies heavily on what individual teachers can do to help learning strategies become a part of pedagogy and practice. What has been absent from the literature is the place that second language policy and programming should play in promoting a pedagogy which is inclusive of learning processes. It goes without saying that for strategy instruction to find a space in curricular activities and to become an integral aspect of L2 pedagogy, it is imperative that L2 policy and programming endorse a focus on these strategies through an explicit alignment of the broader program goals with the learning of these strategies. Further discussions of how this can be achieved will be provided in Chapter 6.

With respect to learners' motivation orientations, which was the focus of the second sub-question, the results of Motivation Orientation Scales Questionnaires overall suggest that the EIP participants reported, for the most part, being extrinsically (as opposed to intrinsically) motivated and that their motivation for developing their L2 listening was controlled by some external outcome. These results are not surprising since a majority of the participants of the study, had enrolled in the EIP for the purpose of meeting the L2 requirements for future regular academic programs. One problem with being strongly driven by external outcomes, rather than pure endorsement of the activity itself, is that if the instrumental consequences of the behaviors (e.g., meeting the requirements of the high-stakes tests in this case) are removed, individuals most likely stop doing them. In addition, although the EIP participants of this study were able to personally identify with the value of their efforts in L2 listening development (Intrinsic

Knowledge), a higher level of integration and internalization should be encouraged (Intrinsic Integration) such that the participants can personally endorse these listening activities. Only when learners can personally endorse listening activities, will their listening experiences will result in feelings of excitement rather than stress and anxiety. That said, however, these results do not suggest that extrinsic motivation is not valuable and the instrumental outcomes are not significant. Rather, they suggest that pedagogy and practice can take advantage of the driving external outcomes to promote internalization and integration (as opposed to introjection) of learners' extrinsically motivated behavior. According to Deci and Ryan (2004), one way to achieve this is to support feelings of relatedness to others, as well as to promote perceptions of competence and autonomy. The relevance of promoting autonomy and more intrinsic orientations towards motivation has been already demonstrated by research in the field of second language acquisition (e.g., Beaty, 2008; Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Yu & Watkins, 2008). Similar to studies on strategy-promoting practices, a majority of these studies rely too much on the role that individual teachers play in designing and developing learning activities which support learners' feelings of relatedness, integration and autonomy (motivation-supportive). However, what has been taken for granted is the role that second language policy and programming should play in providing the space for such a motivation-supportive pedagogy to be designed, developed, implemented and evaluated. Examples of how this can be achieved further discussed in Chapter 6.

As for the ways in which L2 listening performance, strategy use and motivation orientations are related, results showed that L2 listening correlated significantly with strategies in two domains of metacognition: Planning and Evaluation and Problem-Solving. These results

once again provide evidence for the importance of goal setting and evaluative strategies. L2 listening also correlated significantly with Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Orientations. These results are in line with the findings of the similar studies on the role of motivation in L2 listening (e.g., Tafaghodtari & Vandergrift, 2008). However, they stand in contrast with Vandergrift's (2005) study in which he found no significant relationships between L2 listening proficiency and the Extrinsic and Intrinsic motivation orientations of adolescent learners of French. Vandergrift (2005) posited that his findings could be the result of the test effect as the adolescent participants in that study "might not have been capable of performing well on the listening test because of either a lack of adequate vocabulary due to limited exposure to French or an incongruence between the listening tasks practiced in class and the listening task on the test" (p. 83).

As for the relationship between the scales of the survey questionnaires, strategies in three scales of metacognition (i.e., Planning and Evaluation, Mental Translation and Problem-Solving) showed significant correlations with all the three MOSQ subscales, i.e., Amotivation, Extrinsic Motivation and Intrinsic Motivation Orientations. These results are generally in line with the literature which supports correlation between metacognition and motivation (Dornyei & Skehan, 2003; MacIntyre & Noel, 1996; Vandergrift, 2005). However, they differ from Vandergrift's (2005) study of adolescent learners of French, in which no relationship was found between the metacognitive strategies and the two motivational orientations (extrinsic and intrinsic motivation orientations). These discrepancies could be the result of the sample size, the age range of the participants, and the context of the program. In addition, lack of significant correlations among the three subscales of the MOSQ and Directed Attention strategies confirms the earlier descriptive results which revealed that the program participants, although resilient to task

difficulty, found it difficult to re-focus once their concentration was lost (no matter how motivated they were). This points to the importance of a pedagogical focus on strategy use. The same holds for the patterns of correlations among the motivational orientations and Person Knowledge.

A final important sub-question answered at Stopping Point 1 was the linear combination of motivation orientations and metacognitive strategy use (which showed significant correlation with L2 listening) that could best predict performance on L2 listening. As the results of the regression analysis demonstrated, the two Motivation Orientation scales, i.e., Extrinsic Motivation ($B = 0.24$) and Intrinsic Motivation ($B = 0.43$) significantly contributed to prediction of L2 listening success, while the two MALQ scales were not significant predictors. However, all the four variables together accounted for 34% of the variability in L2 listening ($R^2 = 0.36$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.31$). These findings suggest that the hypothesized linear combination of motivation and metacognition is indeed a relevant combination for predicting performance success. Yet, lack of observed power of Planning and Evaluation and Problem-Solving is somewhat surprising, particularly because the two metacognitive scales had already shown significant correlation with both the L2 Listening performance and the Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Orientations. These surprising results also related to the first major research question: What is the role of reported strategy use and learner motivation in the EIP participants' L2 listening ability? In order to answer this question, a multi-dimensional model of L2 listening ability was constructed, in which metacognition was hypothesized to indirectly relate to L2 listening and only through its interaction with motivation orientation, while motivation was hypothesized to directly relate to L2 listening. A further examination of this hypothesized model

through SEM showed that metacognition played both a direct and indirect role in L2 listening ability and that when linguistic, cognitive and affective factors are considered in the equation, they could explain more than 65 percent of variability in L2 listening ability. These findings further provide evidence for the argument that L2 listening success could not be limited to linguistic knowledge. Rather, it is the effect of a complex of factors including metacognitive strategies as well as learners' motivation orientations. These results are in line with Tafaghodtari and Vandergrift's (2008) results that together metacognition and motivation orientations significantly account for variability in L2 listening performance. Beyond these two studies, the results of the current study point to interactivity as a crucial aspect of the ways these factors influence L2 listening performance. In other words, an exclusive focus on any of these three variables (i.e., linguistic, metacognition or motivation) may not necessarily result in desired and enduring change in listening outcomes. A wide ranging and inclusive curricular and pedagogical approach to the teaching of L2 listening is required if we expect L2 listeners to perform significantly better.

These results also took me to the second major question which was answered at Stopping Point 1: To what degree do performance expectations for learners regarding L2 listening development, as stated in the EIP policy and practice guidelines, reflect strategy use and learner motivation (i.e., metacognitive listening strategies and motivation orientations)? A close examination of the EIP policies and practice guidelines showed that the guidelines do not include course standards, and progress indicators and only include level descriptors, which focus mainly on the linguistic aspect of second language development. Learning strategies and learner motivation appeared to have no specific weight in the policies. Neither were they explicitly

aligned with broader program goals and objectives. The EIP level descriptors, however, took account of the application of translation in some of the nine listening level descriptors. As mentioned before, level descriptors are supposed to illustrate when someone gets better in doing something, what it is that gets better (Greatorex, 2003). Therefore, level descriptors should be developed and evaluated not only based on expert knowledge, but also based on empirical data from learners' performance (Greatorex, 2003), as well as in relation to a systematic collection of learners' work demonstrating their gradual development (Wenger, 1998; Wolf, 1995). Given that the results of this study have provided some empirical evidence (from learners' performance and perceptions) on the significant role of metacognitive strategies and learner motivation, it is imperative that the EIP level descriptors reflect the development of strategy use and learner motivation from the beginner levels to the most advanced levels. Chapter 6 will focus on how this can be achieved.

4.4 - Summary

In sum, Stopping Point 1 of this mixed-methods study focused on the skill dimension of listening by developing a model of listening performance that included learning strategies and motivation orientations, and simultaneously evaluated the EIP program policies and practice guidelines in the area of listening development along Cadiero-Kaplan's expectations for learners. This was achieved based on empirical evidence from learners' L2 listening performance and perceptions of metacognitive strategy use and motivation orientations. The results suggested that the program participants valued their listening efforts as relevant to their personal goals, yet needed systematic motivation-supportive instruction in order to personally endorse and

internalize these efforts. A further examination of the learners' listening ability also showed that interactivity is at the heart of the way metacognition and motivation influence performance. This empirical evidence suggests that a simultaneous focus on two types of instruction (strategy- and motivation-supportive) may improve L2 listening success. These findings additionally pointed to the need for program policies and practice guidelines to implicitly and explicitly promote the use of strategy- and motivation-supportive teaching behaviors and pedagogical practices and to highlight the relevance of cognitive and affective variables along with linguistic factors in the performance expectations for learners.

Stopping Point1 focused on listening performance expectations. Yet, a mere focus on performance might privilege the product of listening over its processes. Vandergrift (2007) warns against an exclusive focus on the product of listening, i.e., the right answer, in the field of L2 listening and calls for more studies in the field to examine meaning making processes. The second phase of this mixed-methods study takes a step forward this direction by assuming that the program policies should not only focus on what affects listening performance (the skill dimension of listening), but also be reflective of the critical processes involved in making sense of the oral text. This phase particularly focuses on the literacy orientations which inform program policies and practices in the EIP. The results of this second phase will be described in the next chapter in two Stopping points. Stopping Point 2 will examine how 1) the EIP policies view L2 listeners and the development of L2 listening, and 2) the EIP leaders view and value different orientations towards literacy and their relation to the teaching of L2 listening. Stopping Point 3 will examine some sense-making processes experienced by EIP learners and determine whether these processes are captured by the EIP program policies and practice guidelines.

CHAPTER V: PHASE-II RESULTS (STOPPING POINT 2 & 3)

5.1 - Introduction

This chapter will present the results of Stopping Points 2 and 3 of the second phase of this mixed-methods study. The two Stopping Points will explore listening as a component of multiple literacies in light of the theoretical insights gained from Multiple Literacies Theory (Masny, 2005/06; 2007; 2009), and evaluate the different orientations towards literacy in the EIP policy and practice guidelines and their relation to the teaching and learning of L2 listening in the program. At Stopping Point 2, first the EIP policy and practice guidelines will be examined in order to understand the ways in which second language listeners and the development of L2 listening are viewed by the policymaker. Next, the program leaders' (EIP teachers and coordinator) views of different orientations towards literacy and their relation to the teaching of L2 listening will be explored and compared with the literacy orientation/s reflected in the EIP policy and practice guidelines in order to understand what is most relevant to leaders' practice. Finally, Stopping Point 3 will focus on the sense-making processes experienced by EIP learners in listening/literacy activities, and on whether these processes are captured by the policymaker's assumptions of literacy and listening. In addition, at Stopping Points 2 and 3, leaders and learners' perceptions and learners' sense-making experiences will provide criteria for judging areas of improvement in the EIP policy and practice guidelines, as they relate to L2 listening development.

As stated in Chapter 3, while the above presentation of the two Stopping Points might suggest a linear approach to data analysis, -- starting from document reviews and ending with the

learners' sense-making processes --, data analyses presented in this chapter were integrated and involved constant interactions among different sets of qualitative data. In addition, the purpose of data analysis in this chapter was not to provide interpretations of the data and/or to impose a system of meaning on the data. According to Masny and Cole (2008), from a Deleuzian perspective, data analysis is about "perceptions and the thought of experience": "Deleuze and Guattari (1994) have moved away from empiricism because it supposes a foundation grounded on human beings who seek to fix categories and themes. They call upon transcendental empiricism ... [which] deals with perceptions and the thought of experience creating connections and becoming *Other than*" (p. 10). This approach to data analysis is in line with Colebrook's (2002) reading of Deleuze's transcendental empiricism, where we are not concerned with what the text means, but with what the text can do. Situated within MLT, my analyses are shaped by "reading, reading the world, and self". I would also like to acknowledge that while there are as many perceptions of data "as the domains of human desire" (Howell, 2009), the ones presented in this chapter are inevitably valorized by my role as a researcher and a previous teacher in the program (Waterhouse, Personal Communication, 2009).

5.2 - Stopping Point 2

At stopping point 2 (Figure 5.1), data analysis included interactions among document reviews and interviews with the EIP leaders, for the purpose of answering the following questions:

1. How do EIP policy and practice guidelines view L2 listeners and the development of L2 listening?
2. How do EIP leaders, i.e., program teachers and coordinator, view and value different orientations towards literacy and their relation to the teaching of L2 listening?

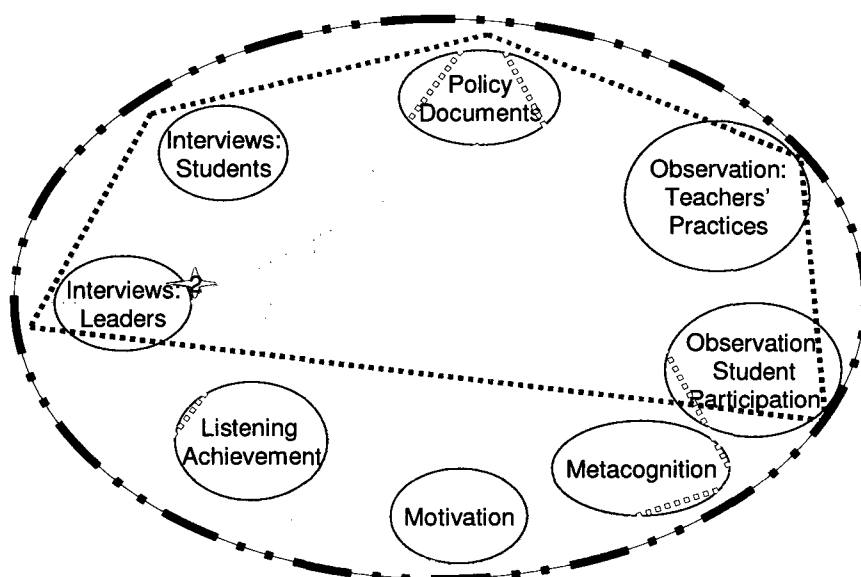


Figure 5.1: Stopping Point 2: Interactions among qualitative data sets & document reviews

At this Stopping Point, the results are described in the following order: the review of the EIP policy and practice guidelines and the results of the interviews with the EIP leaders. The review of the EIP policies and practice in the area of listening development will help to reveal which literacy orientations inform the policies. It will also help to show the ways in which L2 listening and L2 listeners are viewed by the policymaker, and the possibilities and limitations of such views. The interviews with the program leaders, i.e., the teachers and the coordinator, will

help to understand the varying notions of literacy (ranging from literacy as an autonomous skill to more critical conceptions of literacies), which inform the teaching and learning of L2 listening in the EIP and identify areas of improvement in the policy and practice guidelines. This can also demonstrate which conceptualization of listening (as a skill, form of multiple literacies, and/ or both) is most relevant to the teachers' practices. The document reviews and the leaders' perceptions will both help to uncover gaps in and limitations of the EIP program policies and practice guidelines.

The results of the review of the EIP policy and practice guidelines in Stopping Point 1 demonstrated that these guidelines in general encouraged a focus on the linguistic component of listening comprehension. Contrary to the evidence from the EIP participants' perceptions and performance, which highlighted the importance of learning strategies and motivation orientations in explaining variability in listening performance, the guidelines failed to include these variables and, as such, did not appear to encourage strategy- and motivation-supportive instruction in the area of L2 listening. The focus on the linguistic component also raises questions regarding the assumptions underlying these practice guidelines pertaining to L2 listeners, listening as a construct, its performance and process dimensions, and the role of these dimensions in the teaching and learning of listening. These issues will be examined and discussed in Stopping Point 2.

5.2.1 – Program Policy and Practice Guidelines: L2 Listening and L2 Listeners

An important research question answered in the second phase of this study concerns the ways in which the program policy and practice guidelines view L2 listening ability and L2

listeners. L2 program policies are built upon unstated assumptions about the nature of L2 development, which can range from an autonomous skill to a form of multiple literacies. An examination of these assumptions was, therefore, necessary for understanding which conceptualizations of literacy and listening were valued by the policymaker in developing the current EIP program policy and practice guidelines. In this section, I first provide an overview of the EIP *Guidelines for Teachers and Teaching Assistants (2006)*. As mentioned in Chapter 4, the text includes 25 pages of text divided into 18 sections: “An Overview of the EIP”, “Program Start-up Procedures”, “Team Teaching in the EIP”, “Teacher Evaluation”, “Social Activities”, “Teaching Support Services”, “The Role of Administrative Staff in the EIP”, “Emergencies”, “Teaching Assistant Duties”, “Training (2-4 hours)”, “Suggested Timetables”, “Course Outline Standard”, “Guidelines for Conducting Research”, “Descriptors for Listening Comprehension”, “Descriptors for Written Expression”, “Descriptors for Reading Comprehension”, “Descriptors for Oral Expression” and “End of Course Evaluation of Students and Teaching Staff”. “Descriptors for Listening Comprehension” is the only section in the guidelines, explicitly focused on L2 listening development, which makes their review particularly relevant to the questions of Stopping Point 2. Finally, while language descriptors were included in the final section of the program policy and practice guidelines, specific course objectives, level standards and progress indicators were absent from the documents.

In my analysis, I have tried to identify the basic emphases in terms of the assumptions underlying different orientations to literacy and language development (skill versus multiple literacies). More specifically, excerpts have been chosen from different sections of the texts to demonstrate that 1) the policy and practice guidelines mainly appear to present listening as a

measurable skill as understood within a functional orientation towards literacy and language development; and 2) a skills-oriented understanding of listening negatively describes L2 listeners around what they lack rather than what they have; and compartmentalizes and quantifies the learning of L2 listening based on a set of representative behaviors.

It is important to note that most of the sections in the policy and practice guidelines are dedicated to the logistics in the EIP rather than guidelines for classroom instruction and/or materials preparation. For example, in the “Social Activities” section, while we read that the program’s social convener’s tasks “include regular classroom visits to provide information and promote activities”, there is no suggestion in the text as to how these activities are selected, whether they relate to classroom activities and what role teachers, teaching assistants, and students should (or should not) play to link these activities to classroom activities. As mentioned before, the only section that specifically focuses on L2 listening is “Descriptors for Listening Comprehension”. This section is organized around listening as an autonomous skill; descriptions of listening stages, descriptions of listeners based on what is lacking, and listening development as progression through a linear system.

Listening as an autonomous skill: That the policy and practice guidelines emphasize teaching and learning of L2 listening as a skill was obvious in the different sections of program policy and practice guidelines. First, the word literacy was absent from all the sections of the texts whereas listening as an autonomous skill -- taught and learned in an integrated fashion along with other autonomous language skills, i.e., speaking, reading and writing-- was explicitly mentioned throughout the document. In the different sections of the practice guidelines, for

example, it was repeated multiple times that students in the EIP focus on the acquisition of the language skills, that teachers should participate in the team evaluation of proficiency levels in different skills, and that the classroom activities include grammar and functions.

“Comprehension” as the product of listening was also mentioned in multiple sections, specifically in the “Descriptors for Listening Comprehension”. The followings are excerpts from “An Overview of the EIP” in the guidelines:

“Our client ranges from recent high school graduates to establish professionals from a variety of countries ... World events such as the Asian monetary crisis, have an impact on our mix of students.”

“Students in the beginner and intermediate levels focus on the acquisition of oral interaction skills, while in the upper levels, the focus shifts more to English for professional and academic purposes....”

“Each group is taught by a team of two teachers (one nine-hour teacher, and one six-hour teacher) plus a teaching assistant (TA) ... Essentially the TA role differs in that TAs are not expected to conduct activities that generate a lot of correcting ...”

“On the first day of the program, a placement test is administered to all students Class lists are drawn up as soon as the tests are machine-scored ...”

As can be seen from the excerpts, there are a number of assumptions underlying the Overview section that deal with the teaching of English as a second language (ESL) in general,

and the L2 listening in particular as a skill. These assumptions are constituted by notions such as ‘client’, ‘acquisition’, ‘correction’, etc, which are associated with the influence of “business ideas” and “scientific principles” of learning (Anderson 2005, Stiggins, 2002, Kontovourki, 2009). For instance, the first page of the document focuses on the concern that world events, such as the Asian Monetary crisis, have an impact on the mix of the students. Here, the reference to the financial crisis from among many of ‘world events’ could point to the importance of the world economy in the professional experiences of the teachers and students. Hyslop-Margison and Pinto (2007) posit that such business and scientific ideas, which are often supported by a functional model of literacy, also emerge from a specific perspective on the roles of learners and teachers in shaping their social and professional experiences. For example, in the discussions on identifying learners’ appropriate levels in “Program Start-up Procedures”, the guidelines suggest that “a placement test is administered to all students regardless of whether they are returning students or new students”. What is ignored here are the roles that learners, their previous participation in the EIP program, and teachers’ evaluation of the students’ performance in previous levels should play in making decisions regarding the identification of the appropriate EIP levels for students. A similar assumption was emphasized in the sections dedicated to descriptions of the four language skills. For example, in “Descriptors for Listening Comprehension”, while the ability to ‘listen to’ and ‘comprehend’ is repeated multiple times, there is no mention, in the texts, of learners’ role in the “development” of such ability. This, according to Dight (2005), shows that the four language ‘skills’ can be acquired independent of the contexts and the personal meanings and experiences of listeners.

This skills-oriented understanding of teaching and learning of L2 listening can be further demonstrated by the following excerpts from the “Teaching Assistant Duties” section in the EIP policy and practice guidelines:

“Participate in the team evaluation of proficiency levels in listening and speaking”

“To a limited extent (maximum 10% of marks) TAs should be directly involved in generating final grades for students in listening and speaking skills”

“Marks are assigned not for participation, but for the quality of the work submitted and for having met the level criteria”

As stated in the above excerpts, EIP teachers and teaching assistants should evaluate students as a team, especially in the areas of “the listening and speaking skills”. However, it is rather curious that TAs can only be involved indirectly (if at all) in “generating final grades” for writing and reading.

It is also important to mention that an examination of other program documents such as the program marketing materials and official website, also showed a parallel set of assumptions, constructed by notions such as “feeling significant”, “cultural awareness”, “social interactions”, etc. The following, for example, are excerpts from the program brochure and official website:

“... We understand that you want to become confident and proficient as quickly possible and that you want to learn to be in control of your own learning processes ... Our mission

is to create a civil and collaborative environment where everyone feels comfortable, included and significant.”

“..., our EIP courses focus on communication and study skills in an academic environment, language for specific purposes, cultural awareness, and social interaction.”

While this parallel set of assumptions could point to more critical understandings of literacy and L2 development, its infrequency (if not absence) in the document points to its lack of relevance to the practice guidelines and the policymaker’s assumptions regarding teaching and learning of ESL, in general, and L2 listening in particular. In addition, while the appeal of a skills-orientation towards literacy is its ability to promote higher levels of learner participation in social contexts (e.g., workplace and school) to fulfill their own objectives as family and community members, citizens, job holders (Fransman, 2006; Hyslop & Pinto, 2007), such an approach often takes for granted the creative ways in which learners engage in these social contexts. In the context of the EIP policy and practice guidelines, too, there was no suggestion in the texts as to the creative and critical ways in which EIP participants should/could engage with the texts they “listen to and comprehend” in “an academic environment” or their “social interactions”. For example, the texts do not suggest whether listeners can agree or disagree with what they “comprehend”, and/or if so whether they are supposed to take a position or not. Such critical engagement with texts is increasingly reflected in recent attempts to develop standards for L2 learners. ESL standards for Pre-K-12 by TESOL explicitly note various ways of engaging with texts (e.g., negotiate solutions to problems, expressing enjoyment or lack of after watching a movie) in different the level descriptors, which will be demonstrated in Chapter 6.

Descriptions of listening stages: Reviewing the descriptions of listeners' expected performance at each stage, as presented in level descriptors, is relevant in this section particularly because 1) these descriptions further demonstrate which understanding of literacy and listening informs the program policies and practice guidelines (skills-oriented versus multiple literacies); and 2) their inclusion in the policy and practice guidelines, as well as the alignment of each descriptor with the CanTEST (a high-stakes proficiency test) levels show the relevance of these descriptions to EIP course planning and development, as well as learner evaluation in the area of listening development. The latter is important, because level descriptors state the program proficiency standards, and outline the expectations for the program participants. In addition, their inclusion in the EIP practice guidelines shows that the proficiency standards are to be implemented as an integral part of each level in the required curriculum. The idea is, therefore, that if classroom instruction effectively integrates the relevant descriptors, upon the completion of each level the EIP participants will reach their full potential.

The following excerpts from the descriptors demonstrate the linear progression of listening acquisition from one EIP level to the next, as well as their alignment with the CanTEST levels:

“9 EIP levels (+ CanTEST levels- approx.):

Academic beginner. (1.5/2)

Mid Beginner. (2+/2.5-)

High Beginner. (2.5+/3-)

Low Intermediate. (3/3+)

Mid Intermediate. (3+/3.5-)

High Intermediate. (3.5/3.5+)

Low Advanced. (4/4+/4.5-)

Mid Advanced. (4.5/5-)

High Advanced. (5/5+)"

According to the glossary of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), descriptors are “broad categories of discrete, representative behaviors that students exhibit when they meet a standard” (TESOL, 2007). Tracing ESL students’ representative behaviors in program policies is widely practiced based on the general movement towards transparency and accountability in educational systems as well as the value placed on stating what the attainment of a given language objective means in practice (North & Schneider, 1998). Alderson (1991), for example, has proposed a three-way classification on the purposes for which language descriptors and proficiency scales are written and used: assessor-oriented, user-oriented and constructor oriented. Accordingly, assessor-oriented descriptors and proficiency scales are used to bring consistency to the rating process. User-oriented descriptors are to give meaning to scores in reporting results. Finally, constructor-oriented descriptors and scales are used to provide guidance in the construction of syllabuses as well as tests in terms of “real life tasks”. However, these language descriptors and scales have been problematized in educational contexts for several reasons. First, there are circumstances in which descriptions of qualitative aspects of a person’s proficiency, rather than discrete “representative behaviors”, are more appropriate (North & Schneider, 1998). Second, these scales, which are created to offer definitions of learner proficiency at successive bands of ability, are often used to provide “stereotypes against which

learners can compare their self image” (North & Schneider, 1998, p. 3). These stereotypes also provide links within an institution between pre-course testing, syllabus planning, materials organization, progress assessment and certification (North, 1993). Third, the descriptors are “descriptions of expected outcomes, or impressionistic etchings of what proficiency might look like as one moves through hypothetical points or levels” (Clark, 1985, p. 348). As in the case of a vast majority of such descriptors, “it is far from clear on what basis it was decided to put statements at Level 3 and others at Level 4 any way” (North, 1997, p. 3). Finally, most scales of language proficiency are produced “pragmatically by appeal to intuition, the local pedagogical culture, and those scales to which the author had access” (p. 4) and in the process of development, it is rare that much consideration is given to whether or not the categories and descriptor-formulations are relevant and makes sense to users, i.e., teachers and learners. In other words, what is usually ignored in preparation of such descriptors is the complex relations between these texts, learners and teachers as users of such descriptors (Ball, 2004), as well as the fluid—rather than static-- nature of varying language stages. As De Jong (1990) has put it, “the acceptability of these levels seems to rely primarily on the authority of the scholars involved in their definition, or on the political status of the bodies that control and promote them” (p. 72). For example, an important issue which has not received enough attention, -- although has been raised as early as 1928 by Thurstone --, is the basis on which “the authors of the scales have put particular content at one level rather than another” (North, 1997). As mentioned before, this top-down rationality is particularly problematic in that these “broad categories of discrete, representative behaviors” often set standards for “program planning, program development and

assessment for ESL and ELD students” (The Ontario Curriculum, Ontario Ministry of Education, 2001).

Along with the top-down rationality that underlies descriptions of ESL learners of varying stages in the form of language descriptors and scales, the review of the benchmarks showed that they describe L2 listeners in terms of what they lack, rather than on the basis of what they have. In addition, L2 listening development is presented as simple progression through a linear system of equivalent points based on a set of representative behaviors rather than development through a qualitative and fluid system. In what follows, I will focus on these two aspects of level descriptors.

Descriptions of L2 listeners based on what is lacking: As mentioned before, descriptors are descriptions of what listening proficiency might look like as one moves through hypothetical points or levels in a linear developmental fashion (Clark, 1985; North, 1997). In this sense, descriptors are built upon scientific assumptions which approach learners as “universal entities and impose simple solutions to what has been perceived as their problem” (Kontovourki, 2009, p. 253). This “scientific” approach assumes that there exist different or distinct points of ESLness (L2 listening comprehension levels, in this case), which can be described and identified objectively based on the way the human brain processes speech. In addition, to be effective, L2 listening instruction should conform to the way the human brain comprehends oral text. This approach was evident in the EIP descriptions of listening stages with explicit reference to multiple sources of information (e.g., vocabulary, idioms, discourse markers, speech rate) and difficulties in information processing (uneven comprehension or comprehension loss). More

importantly, these multiple sources of information and comprehension loss or break-down were defined in relation to how “native speakers” function as listeners. In other words, listeners progress through these distinct points in relation to the identity of an imaginary “native listener/speaker” (with a fixed identity), from whom the L2 listener deviates, constituting 9 distinct levels of ESLness. This was demonstrated through defining listeners’ “representative behaviors” at each listening stage.

What follows is a selection of these descriptors, which displays a sample of the representative behaviors in the High Advanced EIP levels and their relation to a “native speaker”.

Descriptors for Listening Comprehension: 9 EIP levels (+ CanTEST Levels- approx.):

7. Low Advanced. (4/4+/4.5-): Has a good to very good range of vocabulary and structures. Is very comfortable in most one-on-one interactions. Can understand the main points and the supporting details in moderately demanding contexts if presented in a standard dialect. Can usually follow extended discourse containing abstract and complex ideas on a familiar topic, but has some limitations in the range of topics and the length. Background noise rarely interferes with comprehension, but has difficulty following rapid, colloquial / idiomatic or regionally accented speech between native speakers. Sometimes requires repetition to clarify details.

9. High Advanced. (5/5+): Understands and processes almost like a *native* educated speaker. Functions as a native speaker in terms of changes of speaker or topic, rate of delivery, background noise, most regional accents, and the need for repetition. May not

understand excessively rapid, highly accented or colloquial speech, speech that has strong cultural references and/or verbal humor, sarcasm, or irony.

According to the above excerpts, some of the Low Advanced listener's "representative behaviors" include 'understanding main points in moderately demanding contexts', 'being able to follow extended discourse', 'sometimes requesting repetition', etc. Very importantly, the Low Advanced listener has difficulty following "native speakers". The High Advanced listener, on the contrary, 'understands and processes almost like a native educated speaker', 'functions as a native speaker in terms of the need for repetition', etc. Through these descriptors, not only does it become possible to see how a listener progresses from ESL point 7 to 9 (Low Advanced to High Advanced; 4/4+/4.5- to 5/5+), we can also see how this progression takes place in relation to a "native speaker".

The relevance of the term "native speaker" to L2 teaching and learning has already been problematized by different scholars on different grounds (Amin, 2002; Cook, 1999; 2002). First, the term is highly contested as it has been defined differently in different fields. For example, while in linguistics, the term "native speaker" has been defined as someone who has an intuitive sense of what is grammatical and ungrammatical in the language, other definitions suggest that a "native speaker" is an individual who is also accepted by the community as the native speaker (Kramsch, 1997). Second, it appears that individuals who can meet the criteria of "native speaker", as the different definitions of the term suggests, rarely (if at all) exist (Coulmas, 1981), and as such, the term seems to refer to an "imaginary construct" (Kramsch, 1997, p. 363) that "corresponds less and less to reality". Third, there have been concerns that the term is the flip side of a value-laden dichotomy of "native" versus "non-native speakers", according to which

people either “are” or “are not” a native speaker (Amin, 2002; Kamwangamalu, 2008; Rampton, 1990). What is disregarded in such a dichotomy is a range of individuals who fall between the two extremes. Further, the issue of native speaker has been problematized on the basis of the highly politicized notion of “world Englishes”. For example, many scholars have questioned whether or not speakers of English as a First Language in former colonies (such as India) are also “native speakers” (Davis, 2002; Kamwangamalu, 2008).

What is particularly problematic with describing L2 listeners in relation to “a native speaker” is the assumption that there are fixed identities and prototypes of both “a native speaker” and “L2 listener” that can be disconnected from their social and cultural experiences, and have to be made sense of in terms of their distinction from an external structure. Therefore, rather than describing learners in terms of what they have, this approach describes L2 listeners in its relation to what is ‘absent’ and ‘lacking’, i.e., the characteristics (or representative behaviors) of another level and/or the “ideal native speaker”. More importantly, by constantly tracking back to an external structure, the descriptions either disregard *difference* or present *it* as negative and deficient (i.e., listeners at each stage are different from the native speaker, which is what they should ideally be / become)”. Colebrook (2002) suggest that the negative understanding of *difference* is mainly informed by the works of structural linguists such as de Saussure, who posited that we understand one term in its difference from another. The problem is when we assume that “one sign only makes sense if defined against another, we assume that *difference* negates” (Colebrook, 2002, p. 15). For example, we believe that we can only have a sense of what an adolescent is and what a child is “because we have two signifiers or words. [The problem, however, is] we can easily imagine a culture which makes no such a distinction”. In a

similar vein, by constantly presenting L2 listeners' difference from a "native speaker" as negative, we deny instances in which making such a distinction is not possible or even relevant. Examples of such instances will be demonstrated in Stopping Point 3.

The problem of describing learners in relation to an external structure has also been raised in the field of SLA. Skehan (1984) and North (1997), for example, have posited that many of the proficiency scales and descriptors fail to fulfill their promises as offering criterion-referenced description and assessment of L2 learners although they generally claim to do so. Accordingly, too often the meaning of the descriptors at one level is dependent on the reading of the descriptors at other levels and "the descriptors on most levels are not independently developed to check that they are actually saying something" (p. 4). In sum, the descriptions of learners in the form of "representative behaviors", which are constructed around what learners do not have often fail to assist teachers in understanding learners' entry and exit points AT each level.

Listening development as progression through a linear system. The scientific approach to describing L2 listeners and L2 listening also involves compartmentalization of knowledge and ESL learners (Schwarzer & Luke, 2001) through dividing, cutting-up, and organizing ESL learners according to a set of static and fixed "representative behaviors". In the EIP listening descriptors, ESL listeners are described as -- from frequently to occasionally -- demonstrating certain representative behaviors -- including "requiring repetition", "demanding signaled topic shifts", "functioning on familiar topics", "showing uneven comprehension", "being limited in following extended discourse", "experiencing difficulty following rapid, colloquial/idiomatic" --,

which change through a linear system and progress from one point to another. The following excerpts from Descriptors for Listening Comprehension demonstrate how one of these representative behaviors, 'asking for repetition', changes from Academic Beginner to High Advanced:

Academic beginner. (1.5/2)

..... Requests frequent repetition or explanations. ...

Mid Beginner. (2+/2.5-)

...Comprehension is often uneven and repetition and rewording are often necessary.

High Beginner. (2.5+/3-)

... Requires some rewording, explanation or repetition from the speaker ...

Low Intermediate. (3/3+)

... Often requests repetition,

Mid Intermediate. (3+/3.5-)

... May frequently request repetition ...

High Intermediate. (3.5/3.5+)

... May occasionally request slower speech, repetitions or re-wording. ...

Low Advanced. (4/4+/4.5-)

...Sometimes requires repetition to clarify details.

Mid Advanced. (4.5/5-)

... Occasionally requiring repetition.

High Advanced. (5/5+)

...Functions as a native speaker in terms of changes of speaker or topic, rate of delivery, background noise, most regional accents, and the need for repetition. ...

Figure 5.2: Need for Repetition from Academic Beginner to High Advanced

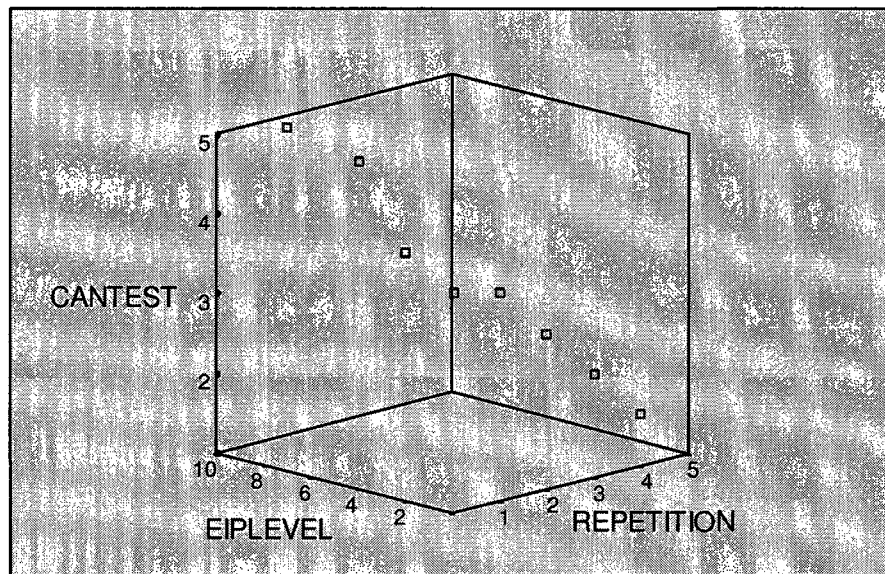


Figure 5.2 was created to visually demonstrate change in ‘the need for repetition’ from EIP Level 1 to Level 9 (Level 10 indicates where a “native speaker” would be) based on the descriptions for each listening stage, and the alignment of each stage to the levels of a high-stakes proficiency test (CanTEST). As can be seen, arranging the degree of asking for repetition in each EIP level along the CanTEST levels (quantified by +/- 1.5 to 5) indicates the possibility of locating a relatively straight line from Academic Beginner (1.5/2) to High Advanced (5/5+), and therefore, a linear progression. The alignment of student learning to high-stakes tests has

been widely criticized for minimizing learning to the results of a single measure or indicator. According to Kontovourki (2009), using high-stakes tests, which often serve accountability purposes, not only quantifies learning, but also assumes that effective classroom instruction is in line with the purposes of high-stakes tests. In the EIP listening descriptors, too, the use of CanTEST benchmarks indicates that effective classroom instruction conforms to the descriptions and purposes of a high-stakes proficiency test.

In addition, the straight line from Academic Beginner to High Advanced may suggest that while listeners develop from 1.5 to 5+, their ‘need for repetition’ gradually reduces in a linear fashion. However, there is no suggestion in the text how this gradual reduction affects the listening experiences of learners in different levels. In other words, the change in ‘the need for repetition’ from one level to another level only appears to involve a reduction in the volume of ‘asking for repetition’ without any changes in the quality of listener experiences. I borrow from Deleuze (1994) to call this kind of change “extensive”. According to Deleuze, extensive properties, such as length, area, or volume, are divisible in ways such that after division, the quality of the parts stays the same. For example, a volume of matter divided into two halves produces two volumes, each having the exact characteristics of the original. These properties stand in contrast to properties which are *intensive*. Intensive properties refer to properties such as temperature or pressure, which, if divided, involve a change in quality of the system (Deleuze & Guattari, 1987). “The temperature of a volume of water for instance can be divided by heating the container from below and the bottom. In doing so, however, we change the system qualitatively ...[As the system loses] its dynamics and symmetry” (DeLanda, 2006, p. 1). Therefore, the two halves are not equal any more and the difference between the two is not a

matter of distinction between two discriminate and equal points, but the difference engages changes in intensity and the quality of the two. In a similar way, “learning involves a qualitative change” (Ramsden, 1988, p. 271) in a learner’s way of reading, experiencing, perceiving, and valuing; i.e., “ways of becoming with the world” (Masny, 2009, p.1). Illustrative of the inadequacies of extensive changes as the basis for describing L2 listening development is the way in which the changes in background noise interference has been described for the EIP Low Advanced (4/4+/4.5-) and Mid Advanced (4.5/5):

7. Low Advanced (4/4+/4.5-): Has a good to very good range of vocabulary and structures. Is very comfortable in most one-on-one interactions. has some limitations in the range of topics and the length. Background noise rarely interferes with comprehension, but has difficulty following rapid, colloquial/idiomatic or regionally accented speech between native speakers. Sometimes requires repetition to clarify details.

8. Mid Advanced. (4.5/5-): Has a wide range of vocabulary and structures. Is very comfortable in all one-on-one and group interactions. ... Background noise or most regional accents may very infrequently interfere with comprehension. May sometimes miss some details or signals and be temporarily lost; occasionally requiring repetition.

As stated in the above descriptors, background noise rarely interferes with comprehension in the case of Low Advanced listener, while for the Mid Advanced listener background noise very infrequently interferes with comprehension. Here, if rarely could mean infrequently¹², first it is

¹² <http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/rarely>

very difficult to establish the two levels as discriminative points, which change extensively: 4/4+/4.5- and 4.5/5-; and second, it is difficult to imagine that while the degree of background noise interference changes, there is no change in quality of learners' listening experiences: "Perhaps the student learns a new vocabulary and feels happy. Perhaps they become confused by a new word and become frustrated. Perhaps the teacher corrects the students. Perhaps they don't" (Masny, 2009, p. 7).

In sum, the review of the policy and practice guidelines showed that a skills-orientation towards literacy informed the EIP policy and practice guidelines. This orientation was reflected by the descriptions of the 9 EIP levels, which presented listening as comprehension, and compartmentalized it based on a set of "representative behaviors". As such, listening development was presented as progression through a system of equivalent points, organized around a system of "extensive changes". I argued that although extensive differences would show that instruction conforms to the purposes of high-stakes tests, qualitative and intensive differences better reflect the nature of learning listening. In addition, the program policy and practice guidelines portrayed L2 listeners as having relatively stable identities secondary to the identity of "the native speaker" and were developed around what L2 listeners do not have. I argued that negatively describing listeners around what they lacked is less than helpful, because this approach does not provide teachers with any information regarding learners' own entry and exit points at each level.

The identification of assumptions underlying program policies and practice guidelines helps to identify the norms and standards around which teachers' pedagogical decision making and students' learning experiences are assumed to shape. As was seen, the guidelines valued

certain assumptions (e.g., skill, comprehension, native speaker) that, if literally translated into practice, could ultimately confine students and teachers' experiences in the program. In order to see whether the same or different assumptions inform pedagogical practices in the EIP, it is important to understand the ways in which the program leaders (i.e., the EIP coordinator and teachers) view and value different orientations towards literacy and their relation to the teaching and learning of L2 listening. This took me to the next research question, which was also addressed in Stopping Point 2 of the second phase of the study: How do the EIP leaders. i.e., program teachers and coordinator, view and value different orientations towards literacy and their relation to the teaching of second language listening?

5.2.2 - Leaders' Orientation towards Literacy: Micropolitics of Pedagogy

The presentation of a skills-oriented notion of literacy reflected in the policy and practice guidelines, as described in the previous section, serves as the context for the ways in which the EIP leaders view and value different orientations towards literacy and the ways in which these orientations inform their decision making processes regarding the teaching of L2 listening. Understanding program leaders' views is important in that they can reveal not only (a) , but also the reasons for such a focus, and therefore, serve to reconceptualize L2 listening in light of that which is most relevant to teachers' practices.

Understanding leaders' views is also relevant to the recent interest in the role of teachers in evaluation of educational and second language programs (Kiely, 2009; Pennington, 1998; Rea-Dickins, 1994). According to Kiely (2009), in traditional language program evaluation, teachers are viewed as the deliverers of a particular instructional strategy and teachers'

divergence from the guidelines “constituted a possible threat to blueprint fidelity. [However], in recent years there has been a renewed interest in the contribution of teachers to language programs” (p. 106). Accordingly, the inadequacies of traditional views of program evaluation (defining evaluation in terms of curriculum management with a focus on accountability) has resulted in a parallel development in evaluation inquiry which serves the purpose of in-depth understandings of programs through a cycle of inquiry and dialogue to document the teachers’ “range of actions, reactions, and contributions that shape programs” (p. 99).

As to the role of teachers in forming and transforming program policies, Honan (2004) also notes that the ways in which teachers translate policies into their work have remained under-researched in educational inquiry. According to Ball (2004), educational researchers tend to begin inquiry by assuming “the adjustment of teachers and context to policy, but not of policy to context” (p. 19). Mainly originating from a structural reading of text, this approach “not only ignores the multiple and varied readings of policies that occur, but also ignores the multidimensional nature of these readings and of the texts themselves” (Honan, 2004, p. 269). Such an assumption un/intentionally privileges the policymaker’s status over teachers’ complex decision making processes, for it disregards the subtle micropolitical relationships involved in pedagogical practices. In the case of L2 listening development, such assumptions would lead to the establishment of a linear connection between teachers’ decisions and the guidelines. For instance, based on a structural reading of the guidelines, it is possible to assume that the best way teachers can assist Mid Advanced learners, who fail to “comprehend” some details in the oral text, is to repeat or replay the text for them:

8. Mid Advanced. (4.5/5-): Has a wide range of vocabulary and structures. Is very comfortable in all one-on-one and group interactions. ... Background noise or most regional accents may very infrequently interfere with comprehension. May sometimes miss some details or signals and be temporarily lost; occasionally requiring repetition.

However, assuming a simplex relationship where the decision-making process has been imposed on both the teacher and the learner excludes the system of relations within which pedagogic decisions are produced. This has been already noted in the field of language teaching by Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, and Thwaite (2001) who posit that teachers' decisions are not necessarily the product of an exclusive focus on a pedagogical element such as the content (i.e., language). Rather, they are shaped by a "dynamic balancing" (p. 472) among teachers' perceptions of the many aspects of pedagogy both inside and outside of language programs. These aspects include, but are not limited to, the content to be taught, students' expectations of programs and teachers and students' classroom interactions. I borrow from Deleuze (1990) to call the perceptions of these aspects as intensive readings of what it means to teach and learn. To read intensively is a way of reading "in contact with what is outside the book" (Deleuze, 1990, p. 8).

With respect to the EIP, my interviews with the program leaders provided the space for documenting the teachers' views of the notion of literacy, the teaching of listening, the role of descriptors in learner evaluation and the relevance of the notion of "native speaker" to the teaching of listening in the EIP. These interviews, therefore, served the purposes of describing and understanding leaders' contributions to the EIP in the area of L2 listening, which could potentially be used in improving program policy and practice guidelines. As mentioned earlier,

this bottom-up approach to program evaluation also problematizes the reduction of teachers' decision making processes to "uncomplicated implementation of a pedagogic script in the form of a syllabus, course book, or scheme of work – the traditional evaluator's dream" (Kiely, 2009, p. 107).

My interviews with the EIP leaders (i.e., the program coordinator and the teachers), which took place in December 2006, May 2007 and June 2007, were particularly valuable in gaining access to their decision-making processes regarding the teaching of L2 listening, as well as the value they place on the relevance of different notions of literacy in these decisions. This also included my interview with the coordinator of the program, which took place in May 2007, concerning her role in the development and implementation of the EIP policies. Her input was particularly relevant, since she had worked as an EIP teacher for more than 10 years prior to taking her supervisory role. Therefore, this section covers the insights gained from the interviews with both the program teachers and the coordinator.

In this section, I utilize data from the interviews to first demonstrate that the leaders perceived of the notion of literacy in diverse ways. While some leaders understood literacy strictly as reading and writing, and as such, irrelevant to the teaching of listening as a comprehension skill, others viewed literacy as multiple and critical, encompassing all forms of reading texts, and therefore, relevant to the teaching and learning of L2 listening. Second, although these views were diverse, the skills-orientation appeared to be a consistent part of the leaders' perceptions. However, leaders' understanding of listening as a skill was not a simple translation of the practice guidelines, but rather shaped by what exists inside and outside the program. In addition, excerpts from the interviews are chosen to demonstrate that, contrary to the

assumptions of the policymaker, the leaders did not find the use of a native speakers norm to be particularly helpful and relevant to their pedagogical and evaluation efforts in the area of L2 listening.

In the selection of interview excerpts, I have paid attention to the tensions created by the intersection of leaders' views (or in MLT's terms, stable worldviews) with competing views. These tensions are significant for they can introduce creativity in practice (Markee, 1993; Kiely, 2009). According to Markee (1993), innovation in the field of L2 education encompasses "proposals for qualitative change -- in pedagogical materials, approaches and values -- that are perceived as new [or different] by individuals who comprise a formal education system" (p. 60). Kiely (2009) suggests that such qualitative changes, which focus on the dimensions of the program that are often ignored, provide the basis for real innovation in language programs. In the analyses of these tensions, I have adopted a micro-political lens, informed by Deleuze's reading of systems of meaning, in which "we do not look at texts for the ways in which systems of meaning are imposed" (masculine versus feminine, white versus black) (Colebrook, 2002, p. 46); rather we look at the systems of relations within which the text takes place. I believe that adopting a micropolitical lens for analysis helped to reveal the ways in which teachers as leaders of the program both advance and restrict the possibilities of policies and translate them into their practice in creative ways. This section is organized into two subsections: leaders' intensive readings and struggles; and from literacy as reading and writing to listening as literacy.

Intensive Readings and Struggles: An examination of the leaders' views showed that literacy and its relation to listening were read intensively and in contact with what exists inside and outside

the program, including (but not limited to) leaders' pedagogical goals and feelings of what they could do with and for the students, as well as learners' expectations of the program. More specifically, the leaders' views were produced at the intersection of the pressure of high-stakes second language proficiency tests, the international students' expectations and perceptions of academic instruction, the students' goals beyond the EIP, and the leaders' own feelings of responsibility towards their students' success. Such intensive readings were evident in the way Sarah, a person of visible minority with 2 years of experience in the program, explained her responsibility as a teacher in the EIP:

Sarah: I mean I have to prepare them [her students] for the test [high-stakes tests] because that is what they need in order to get into their programs of study.

Here, Sarah explains that as a teacher she has the responsibility to prepare her students, not just for the content, but also for high-stakes tests as well as ultimately for getting into regular programs. In her description, Sarah demonstrates a struggle in balancing between her role as the teacher in the program ("I have to prepare them"), the role of high-stakes tests ("for the tests"), and the importance of the achievement of students' goals beyond the program ("because that is what they need in order to get into their programs").

Betty, a white leader with more than 10 years of experience in the program, shows a similar struggle in response to my question regarding her view of teaching and learning L2 listening:

Betty: It's a constant toll that people [international students] feel that they are here [in Canada] and they spend a lot of money to be in this program and that they are here to learn English and their conception of learning English is to work hard and ... your nose tight to the book ... and [just] reading and writing and you know; and it's hard to convince them that learning a language is more than just that.

Betty also intensively reads teaching and learning listening. This intensive reading is shaped at the intersection of her students' "conceptions of learning English" as reading and writing, with her own conception of learning a language, which "is more than just that [reading and writing]". Her reading is also shaped by the financial pressure that international students face in their studying English outside of their home countries: "...they feel they are here [in Canada] and spend a lot of money ...".

In what follows I try to demonstrate that these intensive readings and struggles reflect the complex nature of the notion of literacy as presented in Chapter 2, and help to reconceptualize listening both as a skill and a form of multiple literacies.

From literacy as reading and writing to listening as literacy: The review of literature in Chapter 2 presented literacy as a contested and complex notion, which has been perceived and practiced in different ways, ranging from literacy strictly as reading and writing to literacy as multiple and critical. This complexity was reflected in the way leaders perceived of the notion of literacy and its relation to the teaching and learning of listening. It is important to note that in this section, I am not trying to provide a binary opposition between those who understand and practice 'literacy' as reading and writing and those who adopt a more critical orientation towards

literacy and its application in their pedagogy. Rather, I try to illustrate the different ways in which the leaders' readings of literacy and L2 listening development have painted a complex and fluid pedagogical landscape. As mentioned before, these readings appear to be articulations of a system of relations between what exists inside and outside the program. Description of these relations are important in that they reveal which reconceptualization of listening is most relevant to leaders' practices; how leaders contribute to the program in the area of listening development; and how they translate policy and practice guidelines into their practice. As such, descriptions of these relations are important in understanding whether policy and practice guidelines align with leaders' needs and experiences. This is particularly relevant to the stated evaluative inquiry purpose as the description of the EIP in the area of L2 listening for the purposes of understanding program policies and practices.

As noted in Chapter 2, the concept of literacy is traditionally understood as the basic skills of reading and writing in an “automatic, fast, effortless and accurate [manner]” (Fransman, 2006, p.3). An examination of the leaders' perceptions of literacy and its relation to listening demonstrated that some leaders' perceptions of literacy were shaped by this traditional view, i.e., literacy strictly as reading and writing, and as such, irrelevant to the teaching and learning of listening. This was evident in how Marie, a 25-year-old white female with 2 years of experience in the EIP, described her conception of literacy:

Marie: Well, literacy is not an issue here; the students already know how to read and write. This is an advanced class. They are supposed to pass the TOEFL or the CanTEST, so I am pretty sure they are able to read and write...

I: So you think literacy is the ability to read and write?

Marie: Yes, absolutely and that's what they have before joining the program.

To Marie, literacy was not only strictly the ability to read and write, but also a basic skill which did not concern more advanced learners. From her point of view, literacy was quite irrelevant to her students, who were advanced learners and whose concern was succeeding in high-stakes proficiency tests. It is important to note that in Marie's perception of literacy, the performance dimension of language development including listening appears to play an important role.

Similar assumptions about literacy were also evident in Betty's perception of literacy; however, she did not necessarily limit literacy to reading and writing:

Betty: We assume that people who come to us have a high level of literacy, you know it is a university level in that sense so; when we have tohave literacy problem, we recommend that they go somewhere else to so that they develop the basic skills before they come to us; so when they come to us, it is not a real beginner; our lowest level is not a real beginner level; it is an academic beginner level so people need to have a fairly strong base at least in the day to day English before they can ... and sometimes students come in, and they just they don't have the academic background or skills to be able to handle the program; we don't like to turn the people away, but we do find sometimes that we have to recommend that they try another program, because we can't really help them beyond a certain point; after they've been with us for two or three sessions and they are not making the progress that we would normally expect, then we have to think either we are not doing something right or they are not doing it right and often it is that THEY are not doing ... they just don't have the aptitude or the interest or the ability to do the kind of academic preparation that we can do that we are able to do ...

In Betty's description, literacy is a "problem" that only concerns real beginners and is relevant to "day to day English". The EIP participants, on the contrary, have high levels of literacy before joining the program: "We assume that people who come to us have a high level of literacy, you know it is a university level in that sense so". Therefore, literacy is completely irrelevant to the goals and objectives of the EIP as a university level program, which are focused on academic preparation as opposed to literacy development. If the literacy "problem" persists, then the leaders have to "recommend that they [learners] go somewhere else to so that they develop the basic skills [literacy skills]" to prepare for the kind of education that the EIP could offer. Similar to Marie's perceptions, performance appears to be the dimension around which Betty's perceptions of teaching and learning in the EIP are shaped. This became evident in Betty's descriptions of feedback in different areas of language development:

Betty: We are very much in favor of using, hmmm, providing as much feedback as possible, giving frequent tests, you know, in all kinds of areas; well at the same time we do have, hmmm, we have a lot of this, what you call that, a kind of evaluation where you, formative evaluation, ...feedback a little But...you did a really good job in your organization; maybe you could work on your structure a bit more, things like that. And also a bit more formal tests at midterm and at the end so that we have a ...for determining whether the student was ready to move on or whether they've reached the benchmark that are described in descriptors.

Betty also emphasizes the program's broader policies in terms of expectations for learners and a scientific approach towards providing feedback to EIP learners, particularly in the form of formal tests: "We are very much in favor of using, hmmm, providing as much feedback as possible, giving frequent tests, you know, in all kinds of areas". This is also clear in her view of the program policies regarding formative evaluation of learners, which she describes in terms of breaking down and compartmentalizing language in a scientific manner: "well at the same time we do have, hmmm, we have a lot of this, what you call that, a kind of evaluation where you, formative evaluation, ...feedback a little But...you did a really good job in your organization; maybe you could work on your structure a bit more, things like that". In addition, Betty describes level descriptors as set standards and "the benchmark" against which learners' performance should be judged in each level. Accordingly, the descriptors also provide the objectives, towards which classroom practices and teachers' efforts should aim: "for determining whether the student was ready to move on or whether they've reached the benchmark that are described in descriptors".

Marie and Betty's perceptions point to both similar and different assumptions regarding the notion of literacy. Masny (2009) calls these assumptions "worldviews" and "territories" (p. 9). For example, when Sarah announces that literacy is reading and writing, "a territory is mapped out" (Masny, 2009, p.7). Similarly, when Betty says that those students who have a literacy "problem" have to leave the program, another territory is mapped out. According to Masny (2009), when these territories intersect with different worldviews or territories, however, disruption, resistance, struggle, and creativity are introduced into teacher territories. This was evident in the way Nina, a 27-year-old white female with only one year of experience in the

program, tried to map out her territory (i.e., worldview). Nina had been traveling and teaching around the world in countries such as Japan and Egypt. At the time of the interview, she was also doing her Masters in Second Language Education. In her interview, she frequently drew on her understandings of the graduate courses she was taking as well as her experiences as a learner of Arabic and French as a Second Language: “You know, when I was trying to learn Arabic, there were so many things other than just words or grammar that I had to learn”. The following is what she told me regarding her view of literacy:

Nina: Well, listening is a skill, [pause] ok, right now, I am taking a course with my one professor, we are looking at the concept of literacy and oral communication

I: In the EIP program?

Nina: No, not in the EIP program. [pause] In the [EIP] program, I think it is more of a skill

I: Do you think it is enough as a skill?

Nina: No, I think it should be a literacy based concept, well, although how do you define literacy, so I guess all the teachers would define it differently, but there needs to be agreement on what you are gonna assess in terms of literacy.

I: What is your definition of literacy?

Nina: Well, it used to be communicating in writing, also structure, proper grammar skills, again it depends on the purpose, so in one class the purpose might be just to get the survival skills, whereas in another class, it might be more academic skills; so I think classes, yeah, I think depending on your audience, if your audience is academics, for academic purposes, they do need to do all the grammar, so pretty standard skills, yeah,

I: So you think academic listening is an academic skill?

Nina: I don't know I am struggling with it, like in order to get by and be successful later, I feel, if you don't teach the skills, you are doing the students disservice, they are not gonna be able to get by, so you know, if you can't read and write and speak properly, you won't get a job, so I want to make sure they have the skills even though I am aware of other definitions of literacy. So do you think I am horrible?

I: NO. No, [laughs].

Here, Nina appears to be well aware of the diverse and competing understandings of the term literacy (i.e., different worldviews and territories) in the broader educational context: "It used to be communicating in writing, also structure, proper grammar skills"; "in one class the purpose might be just to get the survival skills"; "whereas in another class, it might be more academic skills". She is also mindful of the application of these contested worldviews and territories in the EIP teachers' everyday practices, and the consequences of lack of agreement on one "definition" of literacy for EIP learners: "There needs to be agreement on what you are gonna assess in terms of literacy". In addition, for her, both skills and process dimensions are relevant, and making a definitive decision would be doing her students disservice. More specifically, while Nina appears to be aware of the relevance of other definitions of literacy, she is mindful that if the students do not have the skills required of them outside the program, they will not be able to achieve their goals: "If you can't read and write and speak properly, you won't get a job". So Nina struggles to balance these contested understandings: "I don't know; I am struggling with it". Within Multiple Literacies Theory (MLT; Masny, 2005/06), it is in

the intersection of the two competing worldviews, i.e., the two stable territories, and that creates struggles “that allow creativity to take off” (Masny, 2009) in practice.

This struggle is further demonstrated by Nina’s descriptions of L2 listening. Here, her perceptions are also shaped by intensive readings of the relations among the many aspects of pedagogy within and beyond the program: “it depends on the purpose, so in one class the purpose might be just to get the survival skills, whereas in another class, it might be more academic skills; so I think classes, yeah, I think depending on your audience, if your audience is academics, for academic purposes, they do need to do all the grammar, so pretty standard skills, yeah”. In this sense, Nina’s professional ethics seems to have become “amor fati (the love of what is); not judging what is” (Colebrook, 2002, p. 35). It is important to note that while Nina ascribes as much relevance to the performance dimension of listening as the process aspect, she does not take for granted the limitations of a traditional understanding of literacy and its application in L2 programs. This was well reflected in her perceptions of the ways in which L2 development is conceptualized in the broader context, i.e., a constant reference to the image of a “native speaker”, which shapes the choice of textbooks and the content of instruction including, pictures and written and audio texts:

Nina: I don’t know why we are reading a lot about *John Brown*, [laughs]. There is no focus on the learner and I don’t understand why we don’t use texts from other cultures, that for example, are translated into English or that have some components that are English and some components that are like in Arabic or any other culture; I know that they exist; I don’t know if this a program thing or a cost thing or a policy thing; I am not

sure, but I feel it is very stereotypical and I am wondering [pause] maybe if they do it [pause] since people are coming here and they'd think "oh, that is not American" probably; I don't know, I don't really find a lot of textbooks represent our the language learner and I don't know why.

As demonstrated by the excerpt, Nina is critical of using certain images as the basis for teaching English, because they ignore L2 learners, and what they have, as well as stereotype people with English as a first language (EL1): "I don't know why we are reading a lot about *John Brown*". She does not believe that this is just a random oversight, but relates to the broader policy and programming decision making: "I know that they [texts which include more than "John Brown"] exist; I don't know if this a program thing or a cost thing or a policy thing". Masny (2009) posits that to read intensively is "to read differently and think differently" (p. 3). Can Nina's readings of the image of the "native speaker" be an instance of thinking and reading differently, in contact with what is outside the book to ask "Does it work, or how does it work" (Deleuze, 1990, p. 8)?

Nina: There are some units that I try to skip because I find them completely not relevant, like I don't even know what they are looking at, they are more Canadian. For example, I find a lot of textbooks that they have scenarios where people are eating in a restaurant and they have ordered a hamburger but it is like too "white". I don't, I don't know, or it is always very stereotypical and I feel like or what don't they have like Arab students ordering a hamburger instead of a "white person". Even those which are not Canadian are

the same, like American textbooks are not representing what is happening and the student says “where am I in this picture?” So obviously they are gonna go to restaurants in Ottawa and order food but why can’t we include that in some of the materials that we are using. So that is why I try to bring in my own work into class, for example a Chinese student ordering in a restaurant; I still cover the theme maybe but I don’t think it is a good representation of what is really happening so; and then the ones that aren’t relevant like ... I have to think about it; there are a couple of units that I am like “why are we doing this”, I can’t really remember now.

In the above excerpt, Nina is obviously concerned with whether the textbooks and what they offer work. She struggles to deliver the necessary content -- which affords the students equal opportunities to learn the skills required of them outside the sheltered programs – while at the same time valuing students’ personal, home and community literacies: “So that is why I try to bring in my own work into class, for example a Chinese student ordering in a restaurant; I still cover the theme”. It is in this struggle that Nina engages in a kind of practice which included the content and pedagogy that focuses on the cultural and historical context of students: “a culturally relevant curriculum that celebrates the lives of the students as much as the lives of the people studied” (Routrigez, 1998).

This more inclusive reading of L2 listening, i.e., both as a skill and a form of literacy was also evident in the way Sarah, who spoke English as a Second Language, described the notion of literacy and its relation to listening. Having worked for two years in the program, this is what she told me about literacy and its relation to listening:

Sarah: To me, it can be both [a skill and a form of literacy]

I: How so?

Sarah: I, I mean, in all of my [graduate] courses, we have always talked about it [L2 listening] in terms of an autonomous skill, but to me it can be both, but still more of a skill, because you really need to have certain skills to be able to, for example, understand the *gist* of the text; so it is different from the form of literacy which you require to have in your first language; so when you teach a second/foreign language you have to teach those skills and strategies; it's like working on other skills, like, for example, second language reading, and the things that you need for that skill, which is skimming and scanning; so there are some sub-skills or strategies, which if you have, can be very helpful in communicating and comprehending information.

Although it is not really surprising that Sarah believed the processes involved in L2 listening were different from those of first language listening, what is intriguing is the idea that listening in an L1 is a form of literacy, while in a second language is both a skill and a form of literacy. When asked for further elaboration, she responded:

I: So you told me it can also be a form of literacy. Can you elaborate on that, maybe with an example:

Sarah: The difference is that for second language listening, unlike your first language listening that things happen unconsciously, there are some important factors, like attention, noticing and other things that are very important for successful listening in a second language, especially when they [students] are preparing for the TOEFL or

CanTEST. So in this way, I believe it is a form of skill, because it has a technical component to it; the difference is like driving for the first time and you have to focus on the gear, the breaks, as opposed to be a champion driver.

I: [laughs].

Sarah: But it is also a form of literacy too, especially when students become more comfortable with their English language [pause] in general and that is why, for example, I do a lot of different things, ah, [pause] I take them on outings, so they see the community. I ask them to prepare presentations, for example, PowerPoint presentations to introduce the cities they come from or the food they like best or their future plans and make the rest of the class listen to them.

I: And you think, these are important?

Sarah: Yes, of course, it is important. It is important to go out to a museum, for example, and not to be afraid of asking questions or talking or listening to native speakers [of English].

On the one hand, Sarah presents the relevance of the technical aspects of L2 listening development (memory, note-taking, etc.), which has led to her adopting a skills-oriented approach to the teaching of L2 listening. These components, according to Sarah, are critical in helping students succeed on the high-stakes tests. On the other hand, she is aware that a mere focus on the technical aspect of L2 listening does not necessarily lead to her students 'championship' in L2 listening. By providing activities through which the students could invest in multiple forms of literacy (e.g., investment in the community, using technology, sharing personal experience, etc.), Sarah struggles to balance between the performance and process dimensions of L2 listening development. What is important, however, is that these struggles

stand in contrast to the straightforward understanding of literacy/listening assumed in the EIP program policy and guidelines. As reviewed in the previous section, the EIP program policy and practice guidelines appear to be mainly focused on the performance dimension of listening, narrowly defined in terms of comprehension on the basis of the linguistic component of language development and in relation to the identity of an imaginary “native speaker”. What remains absent from the practice guidelines are the ways in which other factors can influence performance (as reviewed in Phase I), the role that the process dimension should play in the teaching and learning of listening, as well as the ways in which leaders could possibly go about balancing the place of these two equally important dimensions in their practice.

5.2.3 - Discussion

Stopping Point 2 of the second phase of the study focused on two questions: 1) How do EIP policy and practice guidelines view L2 listeners and the development of L2 listening? 2) How do EIP leaders, i.e., program teachers and coordinator, view and value different orientations towards literacy and their relation to the teaching of L2 listening? In order to answer the first question, I first reviewed the EIP policy and practice guidelines. This was necessary for understanding the policymaker’s assumptions regarding the notion of literacy and its relation to L2 listening development as well as the possibilities and limitations of these assumptions. The review demonstrated that the policy and practice guidelines presented listening as a measurable skill as understood within the scientific orientation towards literacy and language development. More specifically, the program policy and guidelines mainly focused on the product of listening, i.e., listening comprehension and portrayed L2 listeners as acquirers of language skills, who go

through a linear system of equivalent points, and described L2 listeners around what they lack rather than what they have. These assumptions took me to the second question which examined the ways in which the EIP leaders viewed and valued different literacy notions and their relation to their teaching of L2 listening. Understanding program leaders' views were believed to be important as they would help to reveal not only (a) specific dimension/s of listening (performance versus process) which is/are the focus of instruction, but also the reasons for such a focus, and therefore, serve to reconceptualize listening in light of that which is most relevant to teachers' practices. Interviews with the leaders, including the teachers and program coordinator, demonstrated that leaders' understanding of literacy reflected the complex nature of the notion of literacy itself and their perceptions were not simple translations of the policy-maker's assumptions, but complex decisions which reflected the relations among the many aspects of pedagogy. In addition, due the EIP learners' immediate needs, such as getting a job or succeeding in proficiency high-stakes tests, leaders' perceptions of literacy and listening emphasized the importance of the performance dimension of listening. Yet, these perceptions also valued the literacy and process dimensions of listening, and recognized that practices should be shaped by the two dimensions. As such, a conceptualization of L2 listening, which can be inclusive of both performance and process dimensions of listening, appeared to be most relevant to leaders' practices and perceptions. This stood in contrast with the assumptions of the program policy and guidelines, which did not appear to reflect this inclusiveness. More specifically, contrary to the policies which mainly focused on the product of listening, i.e., comprehension based on the mastery of linguistic factors, the EIP leaders' focus was more inclusive, encompassing the how and why of L2 listening development, its relation to what is waiting for

the EIP participants beyond the EIP, and its relevance to what the EIP participants bring to the program as they participate in L2 listening activities.

These discrepancies between the policymaker's literacy assumptions and those of the leaders' lead to another relevant issue which concerns the degree to which the policies are reflective of listeners' sense-making processes. This issue will be addressed in detail at Stopping Point 3 of the second phase of this mixed methods study. Stopping Point 3 will feature three vignettes from my observation of L2 listening activities in the EIP. These vignettes will present the unique ways in which the learners participate in L2 listening/literacy activities and the sense-making processes which they experience. This stopping point will also examine whether these experiences are captured by the EIP policies and, if not, what are the consequences.

5.3. - Stopping Point 3

At stopping point 3 (Figure 5.3), data analysis included interactions among qualitative data, including class observations, interviews with the EIP participants and documents reviews, for the purpose of answering the following question:

3. What are the sense-making processes experienced by EIP learners in listening/literacy activities and are these processes captured by the policymaker's assumption of literacy?

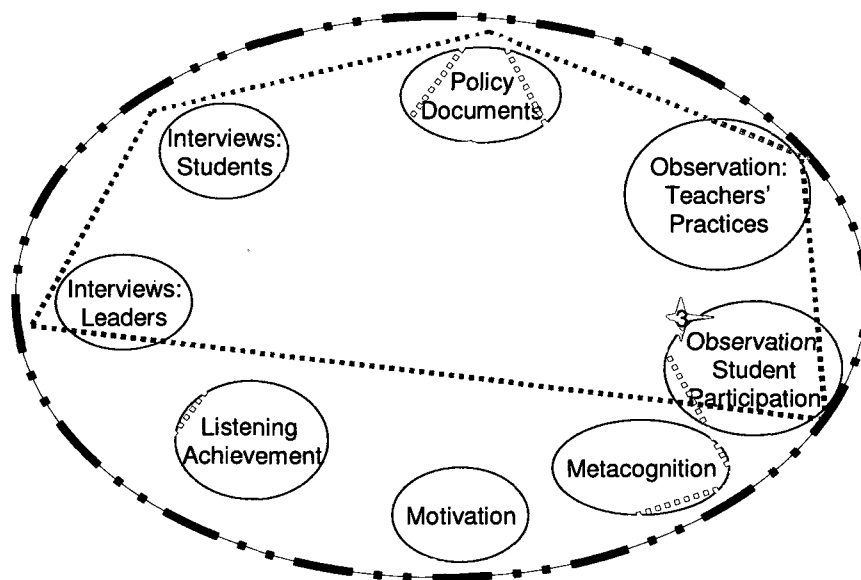


Figure 5.3: Stopping Point 3: interaction among qualitative data sets: classroom observations, learner interviews and document reviews

The results of Stopping Point3 will be described in the following order: 1) three listening/literacy events and, 2) interviews with some program participants. The three literacy events will focus on the EIP learners' sense-making processes while participating in L2 listening activities and events. These sense-making events are particularly important in that they can demonstrate the importance of conceptualizing listening in ways such that it includes not only the skills and performance dimension, but also the literacies and process dimension. These sense-making events together with interviews with the program participants will help to demonstrate the possibilities and restrictions of the EIP program policy and practice guidelines, particularly the listening descriptors, in capturing the sense-making processes experienced by the learners.

5.3.1 - Three Listening/Literacy Events: Synopsis

This section will focus on the question which opened up Stopping Point 3 of the second phase of this mixed-methods research: What are the sense-making-processes experienced by EIP learners? The section will report on three listening/literacy events: the Biodegradable Chewing-Gum, the Origin of Money, and the Royal Canadian Mint. The Biodegradable-Chewing-Gum event is the description of a problematic exchange between an EIP teacher and her student over the meaning of the word ‘bad’ in a listening text, and the ‘correct’ answer to the listening comprehension questions that follow the text. Ali, a thirty-five year old male student, who believes the word ‘bad’ in the text is different from the word ‘bad’ in the questions, demonstrates that his engagement in the listening event is more complex than a clear connection between form and meaning. In order to find a solution and move on to the rest of lesson, Ali’s teacher offers to repeat the text for a second time (as recommended in the descriptors). Ali disagrees that he requires repetition, and they move on.

The Origin-of-Money event portrays an engaging listening activity at an advanced EIP level, which encourages and values investments in multiple forms of literacies (using multiple texts and modes of sense-making, including map reading, drawing, listening, note taking, etc.), while at the same time offering opportunities for practicing comprehension questions on the oral text. An important aspect of the Origin-of-Money event is the inclusion of the content and activities which center on the cultural and historical context of the participating learners. Bardia and Seif, one Iranian and the other Turkish, take this opportunity above and beyond the EIP to an ancient region, once known as the greater Persia. Bardia’s notes reveal the ways in which he engages with reading the *word*, the *world*, and the *self* through the quality characteristics of

ancient Persia as perceived by him as an Iranian. His sense-making processes go beyond a simple recognition and comprehension, as is assumed by the level descriptors.

The Royal-Canadian-Mint event describes how literacies are produced through the experiences of life that come together. On a tour of the Royal Canadian Mint, Jean, a French Lebanese-Canadian student, surprises the tour guide by the ways in which he connects the history of Canadian coins to the current French Canadian minority situation. The tour guide, who does not expect this, advises Jean not to go that far. Yet, the question remains: To what extent do the program policy and practice guidelines (and the literacy conception, on the basis of which they are developed) reflect the critical ways in which listeners engage with the oral text? The Multiple Literacies Theory (Masny, 2005/06) lens that I have adopted to understand these events will help to address this and some other relevant questions in the following section. More specifically, through these events, I will show that listeners' participation in literacy/literacy events are always more than a dyadic process, i.e., a straightforward line between a transparent text and a fixed meaning, as assumed in a comprehension approach to meaning making. Rather, they are relational and triadic sign-making processes -- which involve unceasing interactions between the spoken word (sign vehicle), what it refers to (object) and the sign user -- in which signs constantly move from one to another. In addition, a mere focus on the comprehension and skill dimension of listening, as reflected in the program policy and practice guidelines, risks missing out on these critical processes.

As mentioned Chapter 3, the three events have not been selected to demonstrate that listeners and learners move from point A to point B, as in the passage from non-knowledge to knowledge. Rather they are moments that have been perceived and selected according to the

differences they might make in learners lives, i.e., differences that allow creativity to take off (Masny, 2009). I would also like to mention that in the presentation of these events, I am not trying to demonstrate what they mean, rather to show what uses they can have for learners and teachers.

5.3.1.1 - Event1 (The Biodegradable Chewing Gum Problem): An Encounter

Researcher's Memo: Event 1

I visited this Mid Advanced EIP course on November 26, 2006. The class was to start at 1:00 pm but I arrived half hour earlier to locate the site and to make sure that everything was okay. The class started with only 6 students, but the five other students showed up within the first twenty minutes of the class. It seemed, at least to this observer, that the students were not particularly enthusiastic about the activity. I could describe the teacher's presence as neither authoritative nor engaging. The desks were arranged in rows and I noticed that a couple of students were not listening to the audio text at all; one of the students did not even look at the comprehension questions and another one was playing with his cell phone. The teacher did not appear to be making any efforts to catch the attention of the students.

The listening activity was performed quite traditionally and did not include any collaborative components. The activity modeled the structure of the listening section of traditional high-stakes tests. The audio text was delivered at normal speed.

The activity started with a very brief warm-up and ended quite abruptly.

Figure 5.3: Researcher's memo; Biodegradable-Chewing-Gum event

It was halfway through a lesson in a Mid Advanced EIP course when the teacher, a twenty-something female with English as a first language, started the listening activity. She

explained to the students that first they were about to listen to a text about “chewing-gum”. Next, they would have 30 seconds to look at the 10 multiple-choice questions before listening to the text for a second time. The teacher emphasized that the students should listen carefully in order to be able to correctly respond to the questions. The participants of this EIP course were adult learners from Asia, the Middle East and Africa, many of whom planned on enrolling at the university where the EIP took place. These students have to meet the language requirements of this university before finding their way to the regular academic programs. Therefore, listening activities of this nature would be relevant to the learners for their similarity to the listening section of many second language high-stakes tests.

The oral text, which took about 7 minutes to finish and was delivered at normal speed, was an interview about ‘different methods of gum clean-up’, ‘strategies for discouraging bad habits’ as well as ‘alternative gum production methods’. It was only 5 minutes after the second listening that the teacher collected the answer sheets. Only then did the students and the teacher discuss the ‘correct’ answers to the questions.

The following is an excerpt from a discourse moment between the teacher and a thirty five-year-old Iranian male student Ali. He seemed to be having problems with the logic of the questions and responses and often disagreed with the ways the multiple-choice items were developed. The question under discussion was number 10:

10. What is the problem with biodegradable gum?

- a) It has a bad flavor
- b) The texture is unpleasant
- c) It still sticks to sidewalks
- d) It costs too much to make.

Teacher: Ok, what is the correct answer?

Ss: [some students] It is bad?

Teacher: Yes, it is 'a'. It has a bad flavor

Ali: Is it?

Teacher: yes.

Ali: But biodegradable gum does not taste bad. It has a strange taste.

Teacher: Maybe, but the text says "it tastes bad". Do you want to listen to the text again?

Ali: No, it is OK. [pause] but it is just an opinion. It is not *bad*. We are not familiar with it.

Teacher: No, 'a' is the *right* answer, because we have to choose what is in the text even if we disagree with it.

Ali: But the questions are not logical.

Teacher: [Addressing Ali] OK, we can talk about this later. [Addressing Everyone] You were supposed to ...

According to Rose (1999) and Honan (2004), policies are constructed as a solution to a certain problem. Let us take a moment and see what solution the guidelines would offer to the teacher and Ali's problematic moment. The purpose, however, is not to present a simplex relation between pedagogical practices and policy texts, for this would be less than useful because it overlooks the many ways in which teachers translate policies into their work (Honan, 2004). Rather, I will try to demonstrate how an absolute focus on skills-development might fall short of understanding learners' critical engagement in sense-making processes and risk confusing learners' critical engagement with oral texts as lack of comprehension.

8. Mid Advanced. (4.5/5-): Has a wide range of vocabulary and structures. Is very comfortable in all one-on-one and group interactions. ... Background noise or most regional accents may very infrequently interfere with comprehension. May sometimes miss some details or signals and be temporarily lost; occasionally requiring repetition.

Based on the descriptor— Mid Advanced (4.5/5-)— Ali's failure to find the correct answer could be the result of missing some details in the oral text; he was, therefore, temporarily lost and required repetition. Assumed in this descriptor is that meaning of the text is fixed and static-- a pre-determined right answer, i.e., "a universal cogito" (Colebrook, 2006, p. 93)-- and that repetition would give the ESL listener the chance to grasp the minutiae that was critical to comprehending the fixed text. As such, one of the means of solving this problem is through replaying the recording. However, as presented by the excerpts, Ali did not agree that he had missed any details; rather, he was questioning the 'logic' of the item.

A Triadic Sign Making Process: An Encounter with 'Bad'

To better understand the bio-degradable chewing gum discourse moment, I have selected an excerpt from a later interview with Ali, which captures the systems of meaning within which this literacy event took place. When asked about the 'biodegradable chewing gums' event, Ali took a few seconds before responding:

Ali: Oh, today. Well, I actually thought about it. I think she [the teacher] was right.

I: Oh, yeah?

Ali: But I was telling her, it [the taste of biodegradable chewing-gum] is not *bad*; it is just we don't know it; you know it is *strange*, but it is not *bad*. But she is right: in the text it says it's bad.

I: So, don't you think she should have tried to listen to you?

Ali: Well, but you know, I am like that in Persian too. I use two words and put them together, sometimes from English and Persian or sometimes from French and Persian, and make something funny.

I: [puzzled] Oh, it is interesting!

Ali: [pause]....

I: Can you give me an example?

Ali: For example, when I talk to my wife in Persian, for example, I say "Komon-talevooton chetore" [how is your 'comment-t-allez vous?'] ya [or] "how-are you toon chetore" [how is your 'how are you?'], [laughs].

I: [laughs]

Ali: And it is fun but my wife thinks it is crazy; and maybe it *is* crazy. So you see I do this in Persian too. So today I was almost doing this. I was trying to say ‘bad’ is not just ‘bad’ or it is not just ‘not good’, because it [the taste of biodegradable chewing gum] is not really about bad or good; it is just different. It is [a] strange taste. But she [the teacher] was right too. She said, “no, in the text it says bad”.

The vignette and the interview with Ali demonstrated that Ali and the teacher were involved in two different processes: dyadic and triadic. Perhaps what is most interesting in this analysis is Ali’s awareness of these differences. By acknowledging that the teacher “is right: in the text it says it’s bad”, Ali pointed to the dyadic process--i.e., a straightforward relation between fixed and static text and meaning—which the teacher is trying to apply and to encourage him to use.

Conversely, he was involved in a triadic sign making process (Figure 5.4): “I was trying to say ‘bad’ is not just ‘bad’ or it is not just ‘not good’, because it [the taste of biodegradable chewing gum] is not really about bad or good; it is just different. It is [a] strange taste”. For Ali, the sense of the word ‘bad’ was not necessarily contained within itself; rather, it pointed to something beyond itself: the novelty of a specific taste. As such, ‘bad’ as used in ‘item 10’ was not acceptable, for it signaled a value judgment (bad versus good). Yet, this value judgment was also read as a sign of ‘illogicality’ of the item. To this end, the relations were all triadic and semiotic rather than linguistic.

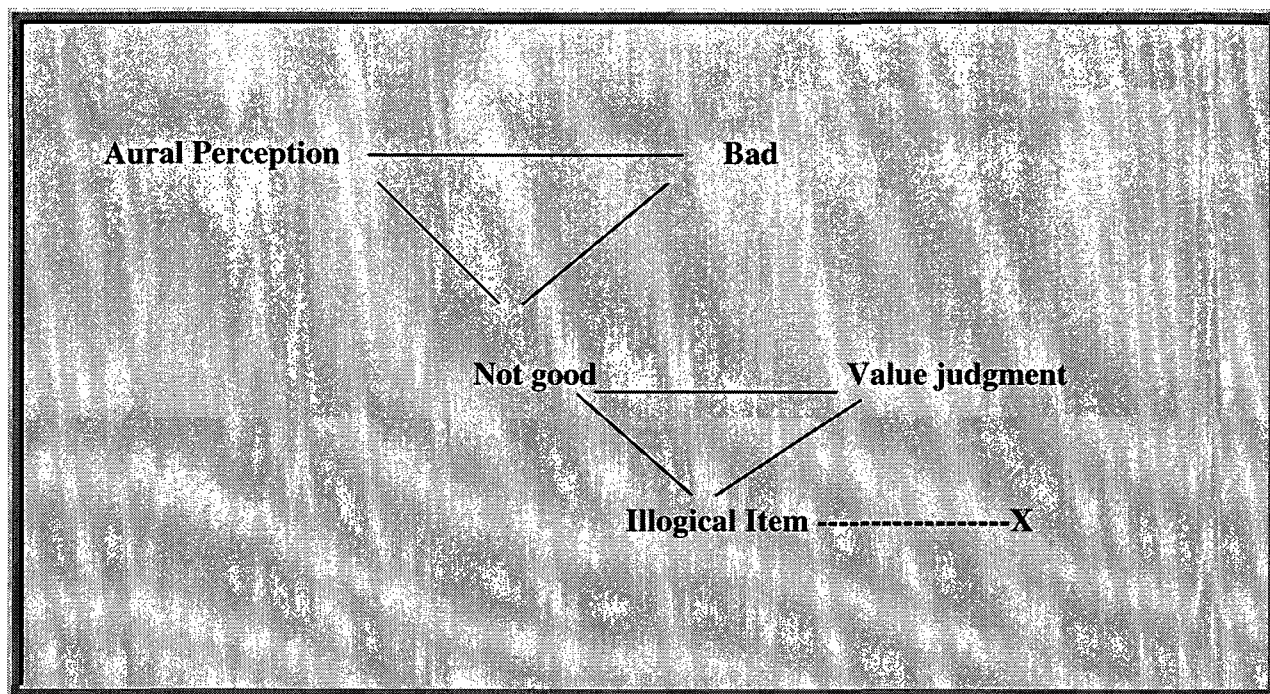


Figure 5.4: Triadic sign-making processes; Biodegradable-Chewing-Gum event

In addition, by questioning the logic of the multiple-choice comprehension questions, not only did Ali challenge his teacher's 'common sense' approach, but also demonstrated that something 'troubling' in the oral text had made him think; "this something is an object not of recognition but of a fundamental encounter" (Deleuze, 1994, 139), from which literacies emerge (Masny, 2005).

How could the teacher's conception of literacy and its relation to L2 listening education change such that her practice not only reflected a focus on recognition (i.e., the right answer: the listening product), but also encouraged critical engagements with the oral text (i.e., listening processes)? What role should the program policies (the guidelines and descriptors) play to provide the context for such a change? The next event, Origin of Money, will focus on a

listening activity in a high advanced EIP course. The event further demonstrates the triadic and relational sense-making processes involved in listening events. An important aspect of this event is the activity itself, which takes advantage of multiple text types and sense-making modes, and builds on learners' historical and personal contexts.

5.3.1.2 - Event 2 (*The Origin of Money*): *Reading the Word, the World & Self*

Researcher's Memo 2

I visited this high advanced EIP course on November 8, 2006. The lesson, which was held in a multi-media classroom, started at 1:00 pm but I arrived about half hour before the students and the teacher gradually showed up.

The teacher, a middle-aged white female, was very friendly and her classroom presence revealed a very calm, yet engaging approach to instruction. I could describe her class as a group of charming and laid-back students. The students were sitting in a circle and had enough space for pair and group work. The class included 5 female and 11 male students. The students were from the Middle East, Asia, Europe and Canada. Although two female students were very quiet, I still could describe them as full participants in group activities. The listening activity, which included whole class, group, pair and individual work, was very engaging. The listening text, which took about 10 minutes, was about 'the origins of money'. Although the text was long, none of the students seemed to be bored or lost.

I found the text to be broadly relevant to all the students, for many of the students could find out about the role of their home countries in the development of human civilization.

When asked whether they liked the activity, all the students said yes!

I found some pair and group discussions very interesting. After the lesson the teacher informed the students about their visit to the Royal Canadian Mint the next day and invited me to join them.

Figure 5.5: Researcher's memo; Origin-of-Money event

The lesson started with a brief introduction by the teacher who told the students they were about to listen to a lecture on 'The Development of Money'. She told everyone that they would need to have some basic background knowledge about the ancient world to be able to understand the lecture. The background activity included pair work on a map, which showed the location of places in the Mediterranean and parts of the Middle East in ancient times. The students were to share their knowledge about these places or to make guesses if they knew nothing about them.

The following is a scanned version of the notes taken on the map activity by two male students: Seif from Turkey and Bardia from Iran; both students had conditional admission to the graduate school in the (parent) university:

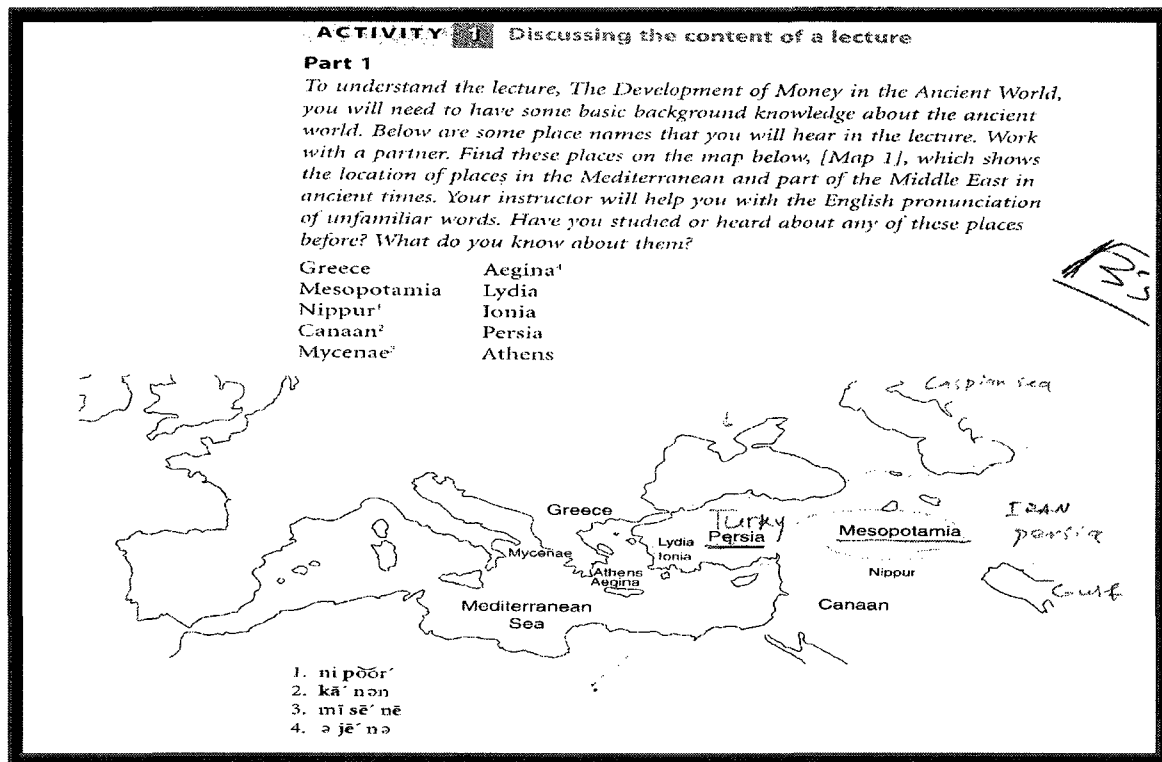


Figure 5.6: Bardia & Seif's notes; Origin-of-Money activity; pair work

It seemed to me that the students of this class, particularly the male students, had a very good sense of humor and felt free to enjoy it. Similar to other students, Bardia and Seif were fully engaged in the map activity while at the same time teasing each other about their home countries. The first place they noticed on the map was Greece. Immediately afterwards, Bardia located Persia on the map while showing great enthusiasm about it. Taking this as a great opportunity, Seif reminded Bardia of how Persians felt good about themselves all the time. Bardia agreed and continued that it was because people from Turkey were jealous of the Persians. Seif responded by writing Turkey above Persia on the map. Bardia reminded his peer

with a sarcastic tone that there was no Turkey at the time and the whole territory at the time was known as Persia. He underlined the word Persia on the map and then continued by showing the location of modern Iran and the Persian Gulf (see the right-hand corner of the scanned map) while emphasizing that the entire area was called Persia at the time.

I found the exchange between these two students very intriguing, so I decided to pay more attention to their work for the rest of the lesson. The lesson continued with a group activity on 'The Human Civilization Timeline', where the students were to discuss the order in which they thought trade, money and accounting had been developed throughout history as well as the implications of the invention of money for human society. Next, the students moved on to listening to the lecture, while taking notes. The following is a scanned version of Bardia's notes:

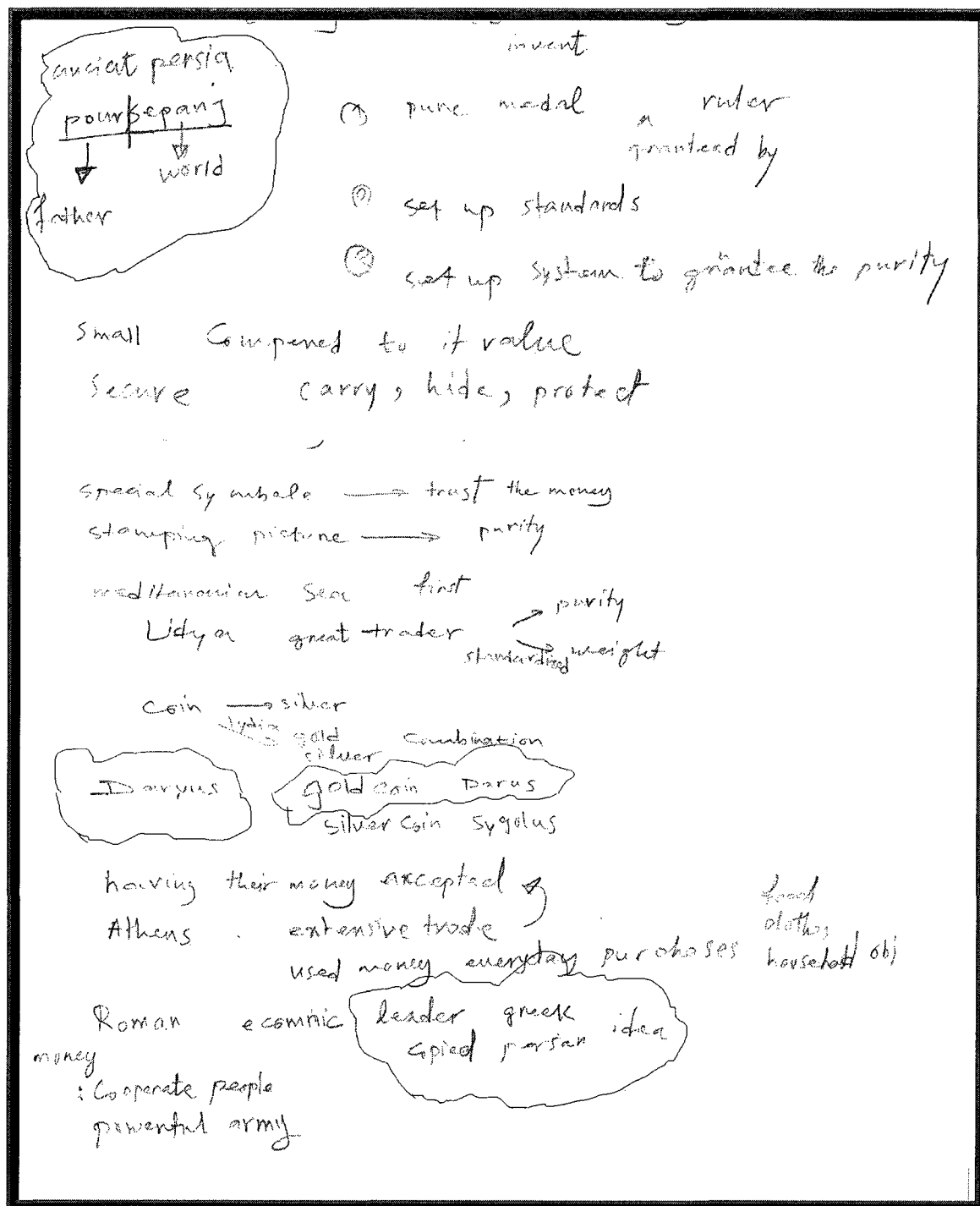


Figure 5.7: Bardia's notes; Origin-of-Money activity; individual work

It is important to note that I would not have noticed the significance of the students' notes in my analyses had Bardia and Seif not provided me with the 'keys' in the map activity. As can be seen in these notes, Bardia appears to be applying some etymological method (pour = father; sepanj = world) to show the significance of the central role of Persia as the father of the ancient world (the upper left-hand corner of the scanned paper). Further down in the mid section, there is a reference to Darius the Great (spelled as Daryus and Drus by Bardia), the Persian Emperor who extended the Persian Empire to its farthest reaches. Yet, what really caught my attention in his notes was a quick reference to the point that the Romans and the Greek had copied the Persian ideas (at the bottom of the scanned paper). I compared Bardia's notes with those of other students' and found no reference to any of these ideas in their notes. In fact, what stuck me was all the unique ways in which each student had made sense of the development-of-money lecture.

To further show the uniqueness in each student's notes, first I will briefly compare Bardia's notes with those of Mikie (a Chinese female student) and Musa's (a Saudi Arabian male student) in the next section. I will then move on to focus on the details of Bardia's notes and try to examine what his reading of the-development-of-money lecture were condensed to and expressed in.

- wealthy empire

- less sea power

Mediterranean & Middle East

- trade older than money

- first changing of goods / China + Africa

- account older than money

- economic needs to invent money:

- Valuable goods to move them
- Security
- preserve and value transaction

- Metal First (Copper, Bronze, Silver, Gold)

- no standardization.
- maybe not pure (purity).

5 - solution:

- * inherent mix
- * coin no weight
- * standard weight
- * system to prove it's pure with is weight
- * small - safe - hide - protect

6 - states such as symbols

- guarantee by state and symbolize the state
- Mediterranean sea first to make money and use
- Agencia trade by state sale
- most were made with silver
- gold - silver

7 - After invention:

- accepted more widely
- discovery in value trade and purity
- system
- weight different
- every day purposes
- Domus become international

8 - Common money

9 - Powerful almost everywhere

10 - more valuable goods

11 - security, hard to forge

12 - preservation of transaction

13 - almost

Figure 5.8: Musa's notes; Origin-of-Money activity; individual work

Money how develop
 all trade long dis increase
 creation o.o.p.
 → 1255 → 3000
 anc med middle east
needs reason
 step med.

trade older than money.

* good ↔ good.

{ group
 outsiders

= ancient world
 food → minerals
 grain

shell (China / Africa)

account < older than money
 2 houses ... property

Money needs → reason

• move value of long distance
 trade difficult over

• recultry through coin

• preserve value

among
 trust commodity

trade metal step in mycena

Canaan use metal as money

goods 1000 BCE, use commodity

→ prob ← no standard w/ standardization

Figure 5.9: Mikie's notes; Origin-of-Money activity; individual work

When I briefly compared Mikie and Musa's notes (Figures 5.8 & 5.9) to those of Bardia's (Figure 5.7), I noticed that Mikie had circled 'China' in the mid-section of the page. She had also underlined the words 'empire' and 'Middle East' in the upper part of the page; however, she had made no reference to any particular empire or area in the Middle East region. In Musa's notes, I found that 'Middle East' (circled by the researcher) had been ticked for its importance by the note taker. 'China' had been noted too; however, it had not been highlighted in any particular ways.

As can be seen by this brief comparison, the three students' notes are very different from each other. Bardia's notes are revealing in that they point to the ways in which the Development-of-Money lecture was made sense of through the quality characteristics (i.e., intensities) of 'ancient Persia' (e.g., the father of the world, Darius the Great; Persian's originality of ideas) as perceived by him as an Iranian (Figure 5.10). Following Masny and Cole (2008), now the question is: "Is this also an instance of reading the *word*, the *world* and *self*, in terms of flow of experiences?" (p. 13). In other words, is it possible to say that Bardia's sense-making processes in this listening activity involved the qualities which he semiotically read in a triadic fashion: the place/s mentioned in the oral text (Persia; i.e., reading the *word*), his knowledge of human civilization (i.e., Persia being among ancient civilizations; reading the *world*) and himself as an Iranian (Modern Iran as a part of ancient Persia; reading the *self*).

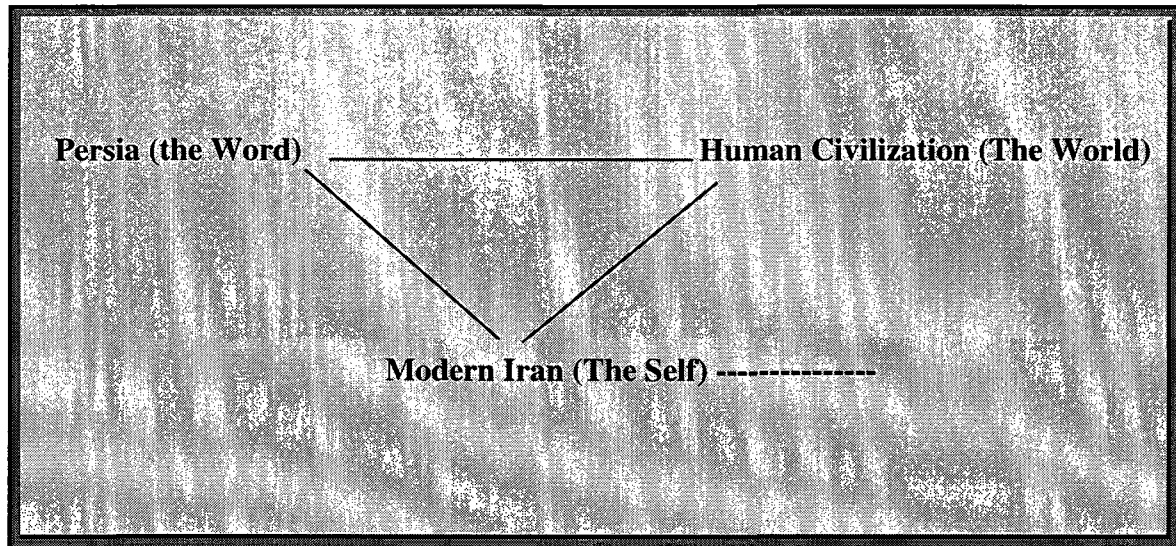


Figure 5.10: Triadic sign-making processes; Origin-of-Money event

After the students shared their notes, they listened to the text for a second time and answered some open ended questions about different themes covered in the lecture. Then the teacher told the students that the next day they would visit the Royal Canadian Mint to continue their adventure with the origin of money. I, too, decided to join the group on their visit to the Royal Canadian Mint. I will report a glimpse of this interesting outing in the next section.

5.3.1.3 - Event 3 (*The Royal Canadian Mint*): *How Far is Too Far?*

Researcher's Memo 3

On November 9, 2006, I joined the High Advanced students at the building where the EIP courses were held at around 1:00 pm and we all headed to the Royal Canadian Mint. When we got to the premises, we were all impressed by the beautiful castle-like building which was standing behind a fence. A few minutes after informing the information desk of our arrival, our tour guide came to welcome us. As a previous teaching assistant in the EIP, I had already been on the Royal Canadian Mint tour a couple of times and I was well aware that its success very much depended on the tour guides, so I was hoping that we would get an enthusiastic person.

I had also decided to video tape the whole tour. To my disappointment, however, the battery of the camera died after 45 minutes.

Figure 5.11: Researcher's memo; Royal-Canadian-Mint event

The tour guide, a French-English bilingual white male, seemed to enjoy explaining things to the EIP students, and in fact he made a conscious effort to ensure that all the students could follow his explanations. While we were listening to the tour guide, I tried to pay attention to how these high advanced students participated in this listening activity. I was also interested in the kind of things which brought up questions and answers, as well as the kind of objects in the museum which caught the students' attention. I noticed that the first section of the museum, which was a display of some early forms of money in the ancient world, was particularly

interesting for the Chinese students. For example, Mikie, the Chinese girl who generally appeared to be quiet in class, was trying to translate some Chinese writing on an ancient form of Chinese money in the display for some other students. The inscription, according to Mikie, said “everything power”. The translation, however, did not seem to make much sense to the students who were listening to her.

I felt this was an ideal tour: We had a friendly tour guide, who enjoyed what he was doing; the students were able to identify coins or other objects that related to their home countries; and there were many instances of spontaneous interaction among the students and the tour guide. However, what particularly caught my attention in these interactions was the ways in which Jean, a Lebanese-French Canadian student, was participating in the listening event. Whenever the guide told a story, Jean read it in ways which did not make sense to other people around him, including myself. The following is an excerpt of what I wrote about Jean’s participation in the tour in my journal:

Our tour guide was showing a coin-specific display to us. Pointing to an old pouch, he told us that the word 'pocket' means 'a small bag-like-attachment'. The reason for this was that in early times the pocket was not sewn into clothes like today and rather, the first pockets were actually small pouches, hanging from the belt, where people kept their coins or other valuable things. Since the pouch was on the outside of the clothes, it was not safe for people to keep their money in it. So, more cautious people kept their pouches inside their clothes. The problem with this method was that it was very difficult for people to get their money out of their pouches if they needed to buy something in a public place.

When our guide finished this story, he looked at us and asked “what do you think could happen if you had to buy an apple in the market?” None of the students, who seemed to be quite into the story, dared to respond as if they were not quite sure whether they should say out loud what they were thinking. So the guide continued with a smile, “well, then you had to drop your trousers”. This made some of the students laugh while some showed their agreement by shaking their heads. Our tour guide then added “So, the pocket, as you see it today, is really a recent invention!”

Jean, who, up to that moment, was standing a little farther away from the rest of group and seemed to be looking at something else, suddenly looked at the tour guide and said “maybe that is why there are more bourgeoisies today!” I am not sure whether the guide or the rest of group, including myself, could find any connection between the bourgeoisies comment and the pocket story. I immediately wrote this down in my notebook to check the word bourgeoisie for some other meaning than ‘middle class’. Our tour guide stared at Jean for a few seconds perhaps searching for a response to this comment but only said “Ok, let’s move on to the next section”.

The word ‘bourgeoisie’, according to the Oxford Dictionary means “the middle class”, “in Marxist theory, the social class opposed to the proletariat in the class struggle”; or “mediocre taste or to the flashy display of wealth by the nouveau riche”. According to the Social Science Dictionary (2009), “bourgeoisie is also used as a word for attitudes that some people believe to be typical of the bourgeoisie. If someone calls you bourgeois, they probably do not mean that you make your money from capital, or that you live in a town. They probably do mean that you are conventional, humdrum, unimaginative or selfish and materialistic”. Whichever of these (if not something quite different) Jean had in mind could be subject to hours of discussion; however,

one thing is quite clear: Jean's reading of the 'pocket story' was far from an engagement in a linear linguistic relationship, i.e., dyadic relationship between transparent form (i.e., oral text) and meaning. Rather, it was a sign-reading process involving a riddle pointing beyond itself (i.e., the pocket story) to something hidden (i.e., bourgeoisie problem).

We continued our very interesting tour in the Royal Canadian Mint. The students were still fully engaged. Whenever they did not know the meaning or spelling of a word, they asked both the guide and their teacher. Interestingly, some of the students who were generally quiet in class also seemed to feel quite comfortable with asking very detailed questions. Others, including Jean, were brave enough to ask questions or give answers which could make our tour guide, and perhaps the rest of us, a little uncomfortable. The following scenario, which happened in a section of the museum on the earlier coins used in Nouvelle France, are from the notes that I immediately took after we got back from our tour to the Royal Canadian Mint:

In the French coins section, we were told that all the French coins of the time were minted in Paris and then sent overseas to places such as Nouvelle France. In addition, while none of these coins were minted exclusively for circulation in Nouvelle France or Louisiana, after the French took over Nouvelle France, the King of France ordered that only French coins be used. Not surprisingly interested in the history of French coins, Jean suddenly commented, "And maybe that is why we are a minority now". Our tour guide, who seemed to be quite irritated by this out of place comment, responded, "I wouldn't go that far".

Whether or not we agree with Jean, it might be fair to assume that he was possibly the only person in that group who could connect the order of the King of France several hundred years ago to the present minority situation of the francophones in Canada. Read within the Multiple Literacies Theory (Masny, 2005/06), the issue is no more whether or not Jean should go that far; rather, the question is how much farther Jean would go given an opportunity? And “What creativity could unfold?” (Masny & Cole, 2008, 13). Moreover, if Jean’s making sense of the French King’s order was dyadic (a relationship between transparent text and a static meaning), he would not be able to go any farther than the reason why only French coins were used in Nouvelle France at the time— a reading which would perhaps be more welcomed by our tour guide. However, how can we expect him not to go that far when “all learning proceeds via reading signs” (Deleuze, 2000, p.4) which constantly move from one to another while growing and producing other signs, “contributing in their growth to human development and becoming” (Semetsky, 2006, p. 31)?

Similar to the bourgeoisie event, Jean’s making sense of the order of the King of France points to the discrepancies between universal assumptions about what to expect from L2 listeners (as described by the descriptors) and the complex of relations from which second language listeners’ sense-making processes are produced. These analyses demonstrate how each learner’s participation in L2 listening activities is a unique literacy event. Given this insight, then it is important to ask how we have come to think that some generic L2 listening descriptors (e.g., High Advanced, Mid Intermediate, etc.) can represent all L2 listeners. According to Colebrook (2002), our perception of a person and her/his individuality is a composition of their intensities which are not personal:

A character is something that is multiple and becomes, through time, a collection or multiplicity of not things but of intensities such as styles, gestures, tastes and quirks ... We experience Heathcliffe in *Wuthering Heights* through the darkness of his physical features, the coarseness of his speech, his wandering across the moors and the marks of labor scarring his body. Many US presidents have become 'presidential' by drawing upon the gestures or mannerism of their predecessors. Bill Clinton did not repeat the beliefs of John F. Kennedy, but his speeches used Kennedy's rhythms, pauses and cadences" (Colebrook, 2002, pp. 87-88).

In order to see whether this is the case for L2 listening descriptors, I will go back to the Mid Advanced descriptor one more time:

8. Mid Advanced. (4.5/5-): Has a wide range of vocabulary and structures. Is very comfortable in all one-on-one and group interactions. ... Background noise or most regional accents may very infrequently interfere with comprehension. May sometimes miss some details or signals and be temporarily lost; occasionally requiring repetition.

In the above descriptor, some of the representative behaviors for the Mid Advanced learner are "sometimes temporarily lost", "requiring repetition", "missing some details". One

way to understand how these representative behaviors are contracted from all the different ways in which L2 listeners participate in and make sense of L2 listening events, is to explore the qualities or intensities from which behaviors might have been produced. Colebrook (2002) posits that “an *intensity* is not a differentiated thing or object, which then possesses qualities [Rather] it is an experience, feeling, perception or event” (p. 87). As such, we can say that the descriptors are the product of a collection of L2 listening intensities, i.e., feelings, perceptions, experiences and events. This idea will be further developed later.

In brief, the Biodegradable-Chewing-Gum event, which focused on Ali and his teacher’s disagreement over the ‘correct’ response to a comprehension question, was an instance of the worldviews that collide (Masny & Cole, 2008). The Origin-of-Money event, which portrayed Bardia’s readings of an academic lecture through the quality characteristics of ancient Persia--uniquely understood by him as an Iranian--, was an example of production of literacies through life experiences that flow through listeners and “constitute memories, desires, and the mind” (Masny and Cole, 2008, p. 4). The Royal-Canadian-Mint event, which was a story of connecting history to present, described the ways in which literacies “go beyond already constituted forms” (Masny & Cole, 2008, p. 14) and become *other* than.

These three events took me back to an important issue which opened up Stopping Point 3 of the second phase of this study: Are these sense-making processes captured by the EIP policy and practice guidelines? In other words, what are the possibilities and restrictions of a purely skills-orientated notion --based on which level descriptors and other standards are developed--in capturing the sense-making processes involved in these listening activities? According to Sadler (1978), when level descriptors, or any other standards, are written experts are making their

personal knowledge more explicit, their assumptions about literacy, language development, and language learners being no exception. Therefore, what are the policymaker's assumptions underlying the EIP policies; how do these assumptions reflect the EIP participants' L2 listening experiences in the three scenarios? That said, however, the idea is not to discard the standards and policies altogether, but rather to apply them to practice in light of the ways in which they support or restrict the teaching and learning of L2 listening.

Now in order to understand the possibilities and restrictions of policies in capturing learners' L2 listening processes, the next section will explore the feelings and experiences two EIP students expressed about their L2 listening experiences. I will particularly focus on what the "representative behavior" 'asking for repetition', an aspect of performance described in the level descriptors, can (or cannot) capture. This "representative behavior" is particularly interesting, for it is a consistent component of all the nine descriptors. In other words, the level descriptors assume that the degree and quality of 'asking for repetition' is an indicator of the proficiency level to which an L2 listener belongs.

5.3.2 - From Collections of Feelings & Perceptions to Representative Behaviors

The review of the L2 listening level descriptors, which was described earlier in the chapter, revealed that the listening benchmarks are developed based on a skills orientation towards literacy. As mentioned before, level descriptors are instrumental in the design, development, implementation of programs and are often used to inform students about what they need to do in order to succeed (Greatest, 2003). The three L2 listening events, which were discussed in the previous section, provided the basis for the argument that the L2 listening

descriptors in the EIP do not take account of sense-making processes that L2 listeners experience. The problem with this, as mentioned in the analyses of the events, is that solely relying on the representative behaviors described in the descriptors risks confusing listeners' critical engagement and negotiations with the oral text as lack of comprehension. An important issue, however, is that if each listener makes sense of the oral text in unpredictable and unique ways, then how have we come up with some seemingly stable behaviors in the descriptors, which represent L2 listeners at different stages of ESL proficiency. As mentioned before, following Colebrook's (2002) reading of Deleuze's (1994) systems of meaning, it is possible to argue that representative behaviors, as different aspects of performance, are abstracted from a collection of qualities, feelings and perceptions (or in Deleuze's terms intensities). In order to understand whether this holds for the EIP level descriptors, I will share and discuss the perceptions of two EIP participants, Angelica and Amir, regarding their L2 listening experiences up to the time of their interviews. Certain aspects of these perceptions relate to the participants' experiences of learning L2 listening in the EIP and other aspects are the interrelations among experiences which are not necessarily related to the program. Because I was interested in the feelings that pervaded their L2 listening events, I asked these two participants to describe how they felt about their English listening ability. By providing them with opportunities to describe their perceptions, they conceptualized some of the qualities that contributed to their 'asking for repetition'. They illustrated in a word or a short sentence how their perceptions were based on certain experiences and within particular contexts. I should emphasize that these perceptions were not stable and fixed, but rather fluid and fluctuating. It is worth noting that the two participants ascribed value to their L2 listening ability as an important component of their L2

development and appreciated the diverse listening activities which were taking place inside and outside the EIP.

5.3.2.1 - Angelica's Story: From Fear to Repetition

Angelica, a 27-year-old Mexican female, was a psychology graduate from a university in Mexico. Prior to moving to Canada, she had worked in different administrative positions for several corporations. However, the importance of her English listening ability had become clear to her upon starting a new job with an international company in Mexico, where she had to interact with clients from the English speaking world on an everyday basis. Although she had always dreamed of leaving Mexico for another country, she felt that her challenges at work were the main reason for her decision to sign up for an English intensive program in Canada. At the time of our interview, she told me she was still not sure whether she would stay in Canada or not, but she was planning on taking a second language proficiency test so that she would have the option to start a graduate degree at the (parent) university where the EIP was taking place.

As Angelica contemplated her perceptions of her listening ability in English, she told me that she viewed her L2 listening experiences in many ways. Upon arrival, her English listening ability made her feel she was dependent on her friends. She recalled this to be a very frustrating experience, because in Mexico she had “an independent life completely”. To start a new life in Canada, she felt she had to depend on her friends even for the seemingly simplest everyday life activities such as buying a coke at a grocery store.

Anglica: When I arrived here I felt I was completely dependent upon my friends. And it was difficult because I am adult and in Mexico I had an independent life completely and

to start in another country means that you need another person to help you including minimum things like going to a shop and maybe they tell you want a soda.

Although later on she was able to force herself to become more and more independent, the fear of “not having the language” had since pervaded her listening experiences. She believed that she always needed to ask others to repeat in order to make sure that she understood people. In addition, she felt that her fear always kept her from showing her true listening ability:

Angelica: I have to be honest here. But when you don't have the language I say 'oh my God'. I have fear that I don't understand someone and then I ask two times [so] that I understand better. So that could be limiting and that I can't show my ability because I have fear about it.

In the above excerpts, Angelica demonstrates that ‘asking for repetition’ is not just a linguistic and/or a comprehension issue, as assumed in the EIP guidelines. Rather, ‘asking for repetition’ appears to be an articulation of Angelica’s experience of particular kinds of relations among the elements which are involved in a listening event in the grocery store: the oral text, the speaker, her own self-assessment of her listening ability, her fear of not understanding, etc. I borrow from Masny (2009) to call this coming together of elements as an instance of literacies that are produced, and the sense that is made in a relational fashion: “A particular assemblage of forces come together, ..., to produce sense as an event” (p. 8). When an element in these relations changes, a different sense is made:

Angelica: For example, in the bus. That is difficult. Everyday you need to use it [listening ability]. Sometimes believe me I feel I can't understand the person, the [pause]

Me: The driver?

Angelica: The driver and I have fear of that asking them two or three times and they are like "oh my God. Don't you understand" so the people can be rude with me.... I think people are not conscious. But they know if I understand, it is great.

In the above excerpt, Angelica describes her listening experiences when she is on the bus. She speaks of the relations among the oral text, the bus driver, the bus driver's reaction, her own self-assessment of her ability, etc. As can be seen, some of the elements involved in this event are different from those of the grocery-store event. Therefore, Angelica's experience of the relations among these elements changes. And so does her performance: She finds it difficult to ask for repetition and, perhaps, she even stops asking for repetition.

This coming together of different elements, from which sense of a particular kind emerges, is also evident in Angelica's description of her listening ability inside and outside the EIP:

Angelica: Outside, they [people] only know that if I understand it would be good. If not, "oh my God" I need to be patient with this person. I need to spend more time with this person. I need to explain many times the situation. But it is different at the university [the EIP program] because the teacher knows that you don't know. But outside people think that you know. So it is difficult [to ask for repetition].

Here, Anglica, once again, describes how her perceptions of her teacher's, as compared to other people's, reaction to her listening ability (in relation to other elements, e.g., her self-assessment of her own ability, the oral text, etc.) determines whether she should ask for repetition or not. Could this be an instance of an aspect of performance (a seemingly static behavior, i.e., asking for repetition) being contracted from a collection of feelings, perceptions and experiences (Colebrook, 2002)?

5.3.2.2 – Amir's Story: From Anxiety to Repetition

Amir was a 25-year-old Iranian male, who had come to Canada 3 months prior (to his interview). He had a conditional admission to the Masters of Mechanical Engineering at the (parent) university where the EIP took place. He told me that he had already taken the TOEFL exam and had been able to meet the listening and reading requirements of the (parent) university. He had decided to participate in the EIP particularly to improve his writing skill. However, since moving to Canada, he had realized that his English listening ability was not sufficient for living in a country where English was the official language. Amir told me improving his English listening ability was "very important" to him, particularly because he enjoyed watching movies in English and making friends in Canada: "good movies are in English, not all of them but many ... I also want to live here and I want to make friends; if I don't understand them, they don't want to talk". He also expressed concerns over fully understanding the lectures in his future program, which were all to be delivered in English.

When asked about his perceptions of his English listening ability, Amir acknowledged that he felt his recent listening experiences were less challenging than those of his earlier days in

Canada. He also mentioned that he experienced varying degrees of anxiety in almost any listening event, except for when he communicated with his peers in his EIP course: “We are the same; we know we have to learn so we talk and listen”.

Amir: Well, at first it was very difficult, but now it is much better. But it depends too.

Amir admitted that his listening experiences were complicated by the relations between his own self-assessment of his listening ability and his anticipations of his English as a first language (EL1) interlocutors’ possible reactions to his ability. He understood that, on the one hand, the situations, which to him were anxiety provoking, reflected his own assumptions about how EL1 speakers perceived of him as a “not-advanced” listener. On the other hand, these assumptions were related to the ways in which he perceived his EL1 interlocutors as non-accommodating. These relations created tensions even in his least challenging encounters with EL1 speakers:

Amir: For example, today I went to get a coffee and I can’t [couldn’t] understand the person because of two reasons.

I: What?

Amir: I feel nervous because I have a presumption [assumption?] about native speakers in my mind. They think of us in a way that we are not advanced and well adjusted. Therefore, every time I want to speak to them I do not feel free and the anxiety [non-audible] my performance so I cannot concentrate on what they say and I miss most of their words and I have to ask them, *what?*

I: Oh, okay, so you feel nervous and anxious?

Amir: Yeah, and I think they do not bother themselves to speak slowly so I can understand.

I: Oh okay.

Amir: So it makes me really nervous and I lose my confidence

Similar to Angelica's, what appears to be a static representative behavior, i.e., 'asking for repetition' seems to be an articulation of Amir's experience of the particular systems of relations among different elements involved in this coffee-shop event: the coffee shop, Amir's own assumptions of the EL1 speakers, his anxiety over the EL1 speakers' reaction to his being an L2 listener, his fear of not understanding, etc. As such, it can be argued that Amir's performance in this context also is abstracted from a collection of feelings, perceptions, and qualities (Colebrook, 2002). It is also from such collections that his sense of the listening event emerges.

These systems of relations are also evident in Amir's descriptions of his efforts to go out and make friends:

Amir: My teacher always say[s] that we have to go out and talk to people. But when you are in a bar, the [EL1] Canadian girls don't want to talk or make friends. They just think we don't understand. But if I don't talk to [EL1] Canadians, I can't improve my English. So that is the problem.

In the above excerpt, Amir describes the coming together of the different elements involved in a bar as a social context, where he finds making friends and meeting people as a

challenging experience. Amir discusses the relations among the society expectations, judgement and reactions, teachers' expectations and advice, the location selected for meeting people. What kind of performance is abstracted from these relations?

In sum, Angelica and Amir's perceptions of their listening performance, particularly their need for 'asking for repetition', demonstrates that what are commonly described as L2 listening "representative behaviors", which form the basis of level descriptors, are not all the very same phenomenon, e.g., a break-down in comprehension, which equally experienced by all L2 learner/listeners. Rather, these 'representative behaviors' (as different aspects of performance) are reduced from a system of relations that are involved in different listening events.

5.4 - Summary

The second phase of this mixed methods study focused on the literacy dimension of L2 listening, and the evaluation of the literacy orientation that informed the EIP program policy and practice guidelines in the area of the teaching and learning of L2 listening. This phase of the study, in two Stopping Points, focused on the ways in which the EIP program policy and practice guidelines viewed L2 listening ability and L2 listeners, the ways in which the EIP leaders viewed and valued different understandings of literacy and the relation of these orientations to the teaching of L2 listening, the sense-making processes experienced by EIP learners in listening/literacy activities, as well as the degree to which these processes were captured by the program policies.

5.4.1 - Policy Texts, L2 Listening and L2 Listeners

An important question answered in Stopping Point 2 was: How do policies view L2 listeners and the development of L2 listening? In order to answer this question the EIP policy and practice guidelines were closely reviewed. The review showed that the policy texts were constituted by notions such as ‘comprehension’, ‘correction’, etc., which are commonly associated with a skills-orientation towards literacy. This understanding of literacy holds that L2 ability, including L2 listening, is a set of autonomous skills which can be acquired independent of the contexts and the personal meanings and experiences of the participating learners. More specifically, a review of the EIP listening level descriptors showed that the descriptors described L2 listeners in relation to a pre-determined and fixed identity (i.e., English native speaker or the listeners of higher and lower EIP levels). This kind of description assumes that there exists an ideal native listener/speaker (with a fixed identity) from whom the ESL listeners deviate, and as such are based on what learners lack, rather than what they have. It also describes listening development as progressing through a linear system. Moreover, the descriptors divide, cut-up, and organize ESL listeners according to the static and fixed representative behaviors such as ‘requiring repetition’ and ‘showing uneven comprehension’. An examination of these level descriptors also showed that while the descriptions aim at providing fixed and stable standards, they reduce the different and fluid qualities of listeners at different EIP stages to some representative behaviors.

5.4.2 - Leaders’ Orientation towards Literacy: Micropolitics of Pedagogy

Another important question which was answered at Stopping Point 2 was: How do EIP leaders, i.e., program teachers and coordinator, view and value different orientations towards

literacy and their relation to the teaching of second language listening? Interviews with program leaders helped to gain access to the relevance of different notions of literacy to their decision-making processes regarding the teaching of L2 listening. An analysis of the interviews showed that the leaders' readings of the notion of 'literacy' were multiple, contested and paradoxical. These readings ranged from literacy strictly as reading and writing to literacy as understood by more critical conceptualizations. While it was very difficult to determine what single notion of literacy informed the leaders' practices, an examination of their perceptions of literacy and L2 listening made it clear that their practices were reflective of systems of relations (as opposed to a single definition), from which both their curriculum and pedagogy were informed and formed: the how and why of L2 listening development; its relation to what is waiting for the EIP participants beyond the EIP program; and its relevance to what the EIP participants bring to the program as they participate in L2 listening activities. Compared to the policies, which were mainly focused on the development of skills, the leaders' view of literacy and L2 listening was more inclusive and more flexible and fluid; that even when focused on performance and skills-development, these perceptions were not simple translations of practice guidelines. Insights gained from these decision-making processes helped to argue that any conceptualization of listening should be inclusive of both performance and literacy process dimensions of listening.

5.4.3 - EIP Participants' Sense-Making Process

Stopping Point 3 focused on the final question of the second phase of the study: What are the sense-making processes experienced by EIP learners in listening/literacy activities and are these processes captured by the policymaker's notion of literacy? Answering this question was

important to reconceptualize listening in light of the literacy processes experienced by learners and to suggest areas of improvement in the EIP policies. Classroom (and out of classroom) observations and interviews with EIP participants helped to answer this important question. Three listening/literacy scenarios provided the space for the argument that the sense-making processes experienced by the listeners are triadic (as opposed to dyadic) sign making events, which involve nonceasing interactions between the spoken word (sign vehicle), what it refers to (object) and the sign user. The Biodegradable-Chewing-Gum event described a problematic exchange between an EIP teacher and her student over the meaning of the word 'bad' in a listening text, and the 'correct' answer to the listening comprehension questions that follow the text. Ali, a thirty-five year old male student, who believed the word 'bad' in the text was different from the word 'bad' in the questions, demonstrated that his engagement in the listening event was more complex than a clear connection between the spoken word (form) and what it referred to (meaning). The Origin-of-Money event showed how Bardia, an Iranian student, made sense of an academic lecture through the quality characteristics of ancient Persia--uniquely understood by him as an Iranian. This event, which was an example of production of literacies through life experiences that constitute listeners' memories, desires, and the mind, also demonstrated the triadic nature of Bardia's experiences with the lecture. The Royal-Canadian-Mint event described how Jean, a French Lebanese-Canadian student, surprised us by going far beyond a guided tour to the Royal Canadian Mint (in a triadic fashion) to connect the history of Canadian coins to the current French Canadian minority situation in Canada.

These three scenarios also pointed to the restrictions of the program policy texts, particularly the level descriptors, in capturing the sense-making processes involved in

listening/literacy events. These limitations were further explored by an examination of the interviews with two EIP learners. In the analysis of these interviews particular attention was paid to the representative behavior 'asking for repetition', because it appeared to be a consistent component of the listening standards for all the nine EIP levels. Angelica and Amir's experiences as L2 listeners revealed the ways in which an aspect of performance and a seemingly static representative behavior, such as 'asking for repetition', are reduced from fluid and everchanging collections of feelings, perceptions and qualities.

I suggested that the point is not to discard these standards altogether. Rather, it is important to understand and apply these standards in light of their limitations and possibilities. I also argued that this can be achieved if program broader goals and objectives shift from a narrow focus on skills development to a more inclusive vision which facilitates L2 listening development in terms of both language processes and performance.

I now turn to the final chapter, which will present some final discussions regarding the two phases of the study, the implications of the study and recommendations for improving policy and practice with regards to L2 listening in the EIP.

CHAPTER VI: DISCUSSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 - Introduction

This chapter will summarize the discussions and implications of the two phases of this mixed-methods study. The chapter will also present some recommendations based on the findings and will end with some reflections regarding the study and potential areas for future research.

This study aimed to examine L2 listening both as a skill and a component of multiple literacies, and evaluate the program policies and practices of an English Intensive Program (EIP), in the area of L2 listening, along two of the dimensions of Cadiero-Kaplan (2004) Language Policy and Programming Conceptual Framework: performance expectations for learners and literacy orientations. The study addressed the following research questions and sub-questions in two phases:

Phase1: Quantitative Questions and Sub-questions

1. What is the role of reported strategy use and learner motivation (i.e., metacognitive listening strategies and motivation orientations) in the EIP participants' L2 listening performance?
 - a. What metacognitive listening strategies do EIP participants report using?
 - b. What motivation orientations do the EIP learners report using?
 - c. What linear combination of reported metacognitive strategies and motivation orientations best predicts listening performance?

2. To what degree do performance expectations for learners regarding L2 listening development, as stated in the EIP policy and practice guidelines, reflect strategy use and learner motivation (i.e., metacognitive listening strategies and motivation orientations)?

Phase2: Qualitative Questions

3. How do EIP policy and practice guidelines view L2 listeners and the development of L2 listening?

4. How do EIP leaders, i.e., program teachers and coordinator, view and value different orientations towards literacy and their relation to the teaching of L2 listening?

5. What are the sense-making processes experienced by EIP learners in listening/literacy activities and are these processes captured by the policymaker's assumption of literacy?

6.1.1 - Phase I: Listening as a Measurable Skill and Performance Expectations for Learners

In the first phase of the study (Stopping Point 1), EIP learners' perceptions of metacognitive listening strategy use and motivation orientations (non-linguistic factors) were explored to determine learners' patterns of strategy use and learner motivation. These perceptions were then examined for the ways in which they related to each other and L2 listening performance in order to determine the linear combination of metacognitive and motivation scales, which best predicted the participants' listening performance. Next, a multi-dimensional

model was generated to demonstrate that L2 listening ability was the effect of the interaction between linguistic, cognitive (L2 listening metacognitive strategies) and affective factors (learner motivation orientation). Finally, the results of this multi-dimensional model were juxtaposed with the EIP policies and practice guidelines in the area of listening development, particularly the listening level descriptors, in order to examine the degree to which these factors were reflected in the policy texts and policymaker's assumptions regarding L2 listening development.

6.1.2 - Phase 2: Listening as a Component of Multiple Literacies and Literacy

Orientations

In the second phase, the EIP policy and practice guidelines were examined once more in light of Masny's Multiple Literacies Theory (2005/06). In addition, this examination also focused on the ways in which program leaders (EIP teachers and coordinator) viewed different orientations towards literacy and their relation to the teaching of L2 listening (Stopping Point 2). The study then explored the sense-making processes experienced by EIP learners in listening/literacy activities, as well as on the potentials and limitations of the EIP listening policies and practice guidelines in capturing these sense-making processes (Stopping Point 3).

6.1.3 – Summary of Discussions

6.1.3.1 - Phase I: Listening as a Skill and Performance Expectations for Learners

An examination of the EIP learners' patterns of strategies showed that the learners were generally goal-oriented and reported desirable levels of strategy use in the domain of Problem-Solving and Mental Translation. However, the reported patterns of strategy use in the domains of

Planning and Evaluation, Directed Attention and Person Knowledge were not desirable. In addition, the results of the learners' motivation orientations suggested that the EIP participants were on average motivated; and that their motivation for developing their L2 listening was controlled by some external outcome. As discussed in chapter 5, while extrinsic motivation is advantageous, it is important that the learners identify and regulate their extrinsically motivated behavior (while participating in listening activities in this case) such that they will continue to use them in the absence of the external forces. Therefore, while driving external outcomes such as succeeding in high-stakes proficiency tests are relevant to the teaching and learning of listening, program policy and practice guidelines should aim to promote internalization and integration (as opposed to introjection) of learners' extrinsically motivated behavior.

In addition, an examination of the relationships among L2 listening performance, strategy use and motivation showed that L2 listening correlated significantly with strategies in the domains of metacognition (Planning and Evaluation and Problem-Solving) as well as motivation (Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Orientations); and that a linear combination of Planning and Evaluation, Problem-Solving, Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Orientations accounted for 34% of the variability in L2 listening of the EIP program participants. These results are generally in line with the findings of similar studies on the relevance of metacognitive strategies and motivation orientations to L2 listening (e.g., Tafaghodtari & Vandergrift, 2008). Lack of observed predictive power of the two metacognitive domains in the linear equation, however, led to the construction of a multidimensional model of L2 listening, in which metacognition was hypothesized to relate only indirectly to L2 listening through its interaction with motivation orientation, while motivation was hypothesized to relate directly to L2 listening. A further

examination of this hypothesized model through Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) showed that metacognition played both a direct and indirect role in L2 listening performance and that when linguistic, cognitive and affective factors are considered in the equation, they could explain more than 65 percent of variability in L2 listening ability. Based on these findings, it was argued that interactivity was a crucial explanation for the ways in which linguistic, cognitive and affective factors influence success in L2 listening performance. As such, an exclusive focus on any of these three variables does not necessarily result in desired and enduring change in listening outcomes. These results also support theories of self-regulated learning, which describe learning as guided by both metacognition and motivation (Winne & Perry, 2000; Zimmerman, 2008).

As for the place of strategy use and motivation orientations in the EIP policies and practice guidelines, a review of the guidelines for teachers and teaching assistants and the level descriptors showed that the program mainly focused on the linguistic dimension of L2 listening development. The overall purpose of the EIP, as reflected in the program policies and posted on the EIP website, is to provide learning opportunities for the EIP participants to reach parity with their future English-as-a-first-language (EL1) peers in academic settings such as the regular programs in the parent university. The EIP specifically focuses on the development of communicative, socio-linguistic and socio-cultural competencies through a variety of in- and outside-class activities. However, in order to achieve its objectives, the program appears to rely mainly on a comprehension-oriented approach towards second language learning. While this is important, due to the fact that the program prepares a majority of its participants for L2 high-stakes tests (i.e., the TOEFL and CanTEST), other aspects of L2 development also deserve

attention. For example, the Syllabus Guidelines for Teachers and Teaching Assistants should also pay attention to the ways in which important cognitive and affective factors can be identified, specified and utilized for instruction. In fact, consideration of metacognitive strategies and motivation orientations in program policies has received more attention in recent years. For example, through illustrative descriptive scales, the Common European Framework (COE, 2009) provides a good example in the application of learning strategies in policies and guidelines. In addition, in the broad goals set for the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL, 1997; 2008), the guidelines explicitly encourage using learning strategies for extending communicative skills and competencies, socio-linguistic and socio-cultural competencies as well as constructing and applying academic knowledge. Figures 6.1 and 6.2 demonstrate excerpts from TESOL ESL standards for pre-K-12 students: Levels 9-12, which exemplify how strategy-supportive instruction can be encouraged in program policy and guidelines:

Goal 1, Standard 2

To use English to communicate in social settings: Students will interact in, through, and with spoken and written English for personal expression and enjoyment.

Descriptors

- a. Describing, reading about, and participating in a favorite activity;
- b. Expressing personal needs, feelings and ideas
- c. Participating in popular culture

Sample Progress Indicators

- a. Describe, listen to, read and write about a personal hero
- b. Listen to, read, watch, and respond to plays, films, stories, songs, poems
- c. Express enjoyment while playing a game

**Figure 6.1: Level descriptors and progress indicators;
(adapted from TESOL, 2008)**

Goal 2, Standard 2

To use English to achieve academically in all content areas: Students will use English to obtain, process, construct, and provide subject matter information in spoken and written form.

Descriptors

- d. Hypothesizing and predicting
- e. Comparing and contrasting information
- f. Persuading, arguing, negotiating, evaluating and justifying

Sample Progress Indicators

- d. Making notes in preparation for a meeting or an interview
- e. Ask someone the meaning of a word
- f. Tell someone in their first language that a direction given in English was not understood

**Figure 6.2: Level descriptors and progress indicators;
(adapted from TESOL, 2008)**

As can be seen in Figures 6.1 and 6.2, the descriptors and sample indicators are focused on learning strategies (i.e., evaluate, etc.) and learner motivation (i.e., express enjoyment, etc.) through different language functions.

6.1.3.2 - Phase II: Listening as a Component of Multiple Literacies and Literacy Orientations

While the first phase of the study focused on the performance and skill dimension of L2 listening development, and evaluated policy and practice guidelines in the area of L2 listening along Cadiero-Kaplan's performance expectations for learners, the second phase explored listening as a component of multiple literacies with a focus on the sense-making processes involved in L2 listening. Listening as a component of multiple literacies also provided the context for evaluation of the EIP policies and practice guidelines. In this second phase of the study, the program policy documents and practice guidelines were once more reviewed for the ways in which they viewed L2 listeners and L2 listening development. Overall, the policy texts appear to be shaped by a skills-orientation towards literacy and second language development: an understanding which assumes that L2 listening (similar to other aspects of L2 development) is an autonomous skill (that can be learned and taught in an integrated fashion with other language skills), which progresses from one EIP level to another according to sets of representative behaviors. While, at times, the texts used a parallel sets of assumptions informed by notions such as 'everyday meanings and uses' and 'cultural context', the overriding scientific narrative presented a linear picture of L2 listening development. The review also showed that the descriptors divide, cut-up, and organize ESL listeners based on an external structure (i.e., native speaker/listener) and according to some static and fixed "representative behaviors" such as

‘requiring repetition’ and ‘showing uneven comprehension’. These “representative behaviors” were demonstrated to fail to capture the fluid qualities of listeners at different EIP stages.

Another aspect of the evaluation of the literacy orientation included the ways in which EIP leaders viewed and valued the notion of literacy and its relation to the teaching and learning of L2 listening. The analyses of the interviews with the leaders showed that the leaders’ views of literacy and its relation to teaching listening were informed by diverse and competing notions of literacy (ranging from literacy as an autonomous skill to literacy as multiple and critical). However, these perceptions were not simple articulations of the policy texts and practice guidelines; rather, they were reflections of the leaders’ intensive readings of different aspects of practice, i.e., complex decision making processes, which are shaped by a system of relations that connect practice to the broader context in which it takes place. While the program leaders read the notion of literacy in contested ways, their perceptions of the relevance of literacy to their teaching of L2 listening were often restricted by interrelations with issues such as the international students’ expectations and perceptions of academic instruction, and the relevance of high-stakes second language tests to learners’ immediate needs. These interrelations also point to the importance of a balanced focus on listening performance and process, and as such, highlight the limitations of narrowly defining the teaching and learning of listening around a measurable skill. The findings, therefore, stress the need for more inclusive program policy and practice guidelines, which include and advance critical understandings of literacy and second language development, and are more reflective of teachers’ practices and needs.

Another aspect of the evaluation of literacy orientation in the EIP included the sense-making processes experienced by the EIP learners while participating in listening/literacy

activities. As mentioned before, the review of the listening level descriptors suggested that the standards present a linear relationship between text (i.e., form) and the meaning, and therefore, assume that 1) texts are fixed and stable; 2) there is a dyadic relationship between form and meaning in stable texts; and 3) ESL listeners (at different EIP levels) have fixed experiences (reflected by discrete, and representative behaviors). Contrary to these assumptions, the analyses of the EIP learners' participation in listening/literacy activities (both inside and outside the classroom) showed that learners' engagement in sense-making processes are always triadic and critical; that each learner uniquely participates in making sense of the oral text; and that literacies are produced through constant participation, evaluation and anticipation.

An important issue which was of relevance was whether listeners' sense-making processes are captured by the policymaker's notion of literacy. Addressing this question was believed to be important, particularly because the insights gained could help educators use practice guidelines in view of the possibilities and limitations that these descriptors have. Multiple Literacies Theory (Masny 2005/06) provided the context for the argument that although L2 listeners' experiences are unique and unstable, they still have fluid qualities from which our perceptions of representative behaviors -- commonly associated with different degrees of ESLness -- are formed (Colebrook, 2002). These qualities, as Colebrook (2002) writes, are perceptions and feelings from which we can produce some human nature. For example, man is a collection of qualities [such as maleness, whiteness] "that has now been taken as 'exemplary' of the human" (Colebrook, 2002, p. 88). In the context of L2 listeners, therefore, the qualities and feelings are equally important for understanding the restrictions and possibilities of guidelines and benchmarks. Through interviews with two EIP students, it became evident that EIP

participants at different levels do indeed ‘ask for repetition’ as noted in the level descriptors; however, ‘asking for repetition’ was not just necessarily because of a gap in the relevant linguistic input (i.e., vocabulary and grammar) as assumed in the benchmarks. Rather, it was a product of a collection of qualities and feelings, such as fear, anxiety, reassurance (as in the case of Angelica) and conflicting feelings (as in the case of Amir) relevant to the specific listening event. These findings show that policy and practice guidelines need to pay attention not only to learner performance (with a focus on representative behaviors such as ‘asking for repetition’) but also to the fears, desires and perceptions, from which specific aspects of performance (such as ‘asking for repetition’) emerge. Building on Masny and Cole’s (2008) reflections on the controversies regarding boys and literacy, I believe that understanding these qualities can also help to “bring these random forces that are in play in the system into the center” (p. 5) in ways that they can enhance, rather than hinder, listeners’ performance and literacy processes. For example, practice can take advantage of learners’ feelings, perceptions, fears and desires to use them as an entry point for acting--if positive such as joy and enthusiasm-- and/or acting otherwise--if negative such as anxiety and fear-- (Doecke & McClenaghan, 2004; Masny & Cole, 2008). Figure 6.3 presents an excerpt from TESOL ESL standards for pre-k-12 students: Grade 9-12, which shows some efforts, although in an implicit way, in the domain of policy and programming for taking advantage of such forces:

Goal 1, Standard 1 To use English to communicate in social settings: Students will use English to participate in social interactions
Descriptors g. Expressing needs, feelings and ideas h. Getting personal needs met i. Conducting transactions
Sample Progress Indicators g. Express feelings through drama, poetry, or song h. Defend and argue a position i. Ask peers for their opinion, preferences and desires

**Figure 6.3: Level descriptors and progress indicators
(adapted from TESOL, 2008)**

As can be seen, the descriptors and sample progress indicators focus on engaging learners' feelings, perceptions, and desires (i.e., expressing feelings, etc.), which highlight the relevance of these qualities in L2 teaching and learning. In sum, the examination of the program policy and practice guidelines -- through the juxtaposition of the ways in which policymakers

view literacy, L2 listening development and L2 listeners, with leaders' perceptions and learners' sense-making processes -- point to the need for consistent evaluation of the ways in which program policies and guidelines support or restrict teachers' practices and students' learning, i.e., the work leaders are expected to do, and the learning outcomes that participants are expected to achieve.

Now that a summary of the discussions of the two phases has been provided, it is important to discuss the areas where the two phases met as well as the areas where they differed. As such, the next section focuses on the areas of convergence and divergence between the two phases.

6.1.4 - Bringing the Two Phases Together

A dialectic stance on mixed methods research posits that “paradigm differences should be respectfully and intentionally used together to engage meaningfully with difference and, through the tensions created by juxtaposing different paradigms, to achieve dialectical discovery of enhanced, reframed, and new understanding” (Greene, p. 69). The results of the performance and process dimensions of L2 listening as examined in the first and second phases of this study together provided empirical evidence for reframing understanding of L2 listening and our vision of policy and programming to acknowledge not only the relevance of the cognitive processes involved in perceiving and producing different types of texts, but also the importance of the literacy processes involved in the perception and production of such texts (e.g., creative thinking, and critical engagement with the world, word and the self). This is an important conceptualization, particularly in that a narrow focus on performance risks focusing on the

product of language development, at the expense of the critical sense-making processes involved in L2 learning. The two phases of this mixed methods study also provided the context for a meaningful engagement with the assumptions underlying the performance and process dimensions of listening. This engagement is presented in relation to the areas of convergence and divergence between the results of the two phases.

6.1.4.1 - Areas of Convergence

Comprehension as the focus of EIP policies and practice guidelines: This study, in its both phases, demonstrated that program policies and practice guidelines of the EIP were developed based on a skills-orientation towards literacy and language development and that these texts encouraged an exclusive focus on listening comprehension and performance. More specifically, the review of policy and practice guidelines in both phases showed that while comprehension was presented as the focus of learning and teaching listening, the program policies and practice guidelines did not state what learners are supposed to do in order to be able to successfully engage in comprehending texts (i.e., self-regulating, monitoring, evaluating, etc. as in the first phase); neither did they take account of what learners are supposed to do with the texts they comprehend (i.e., criticize, doubt, question, etc. as in the second phase). In other words, the program policies and guidelines were merely focused on the linguistic factors involved in listening comprehension, and did not adequately take account of non-linguistic factors, such as learning strategies and motivation orientations, and/or the critical literacy processes.

The relevance of the performance dimension: Phase I of this study focused on listening as a skill and the performance dimension of listening. The importance of the performance dimension of L2 listening became further evident by the results of the leaders' perceptions of the notion of literacy and its relation to the teaching of listening at Stopping Point 2 of the second phase of the study. As mentioned earlier, leaders' views of literacy and its relation to the teaching of listening were shaped by systems of relations between different aspects of pedagogy, among which performance on high-stakes proficiency tests appeared to be of great importance. This once more highlights the relevance of the performance dimension of listening, as well as the factors which influence successful performance. This is in line with Morgan and Ramanathan's (2005) proposition that any critical understanding of literacy should "invigorate, rather than replace, conventional academic skill sets" (p. 152).

Going beyond what learners lack; metacognitive and affective factors in descriptors: The results of the second phase of the study showed that level descriptors, which were included in the practice guidelines, limited the learning of listening to fixed starting and end points, progressing in a linear fashion. In addition, the descriptors defined different listening stages based on sets of "representative behaviors", experienced equally by all listeners at each stage. Moreover, these descriptions were shown to describe learners/listeners based on what they lack (e.g., the way "native speakers" comprehend texts), rather than what they have. These limitations were further demonstrated in leaders' perceptions of the role of "*the native speaker*" in policy and programming, textbooks and activities. One way to address these limitations is to develop descriptors based on the non-linguistic factors explored in the first phase. For example, the inclusion of learning strategies and motivation orientations in the guidelines and descriptors, as

demonstrated earlier in this chapter, can help to direct teaching and evaluation of L2 listening away from a focus on an external structure model (such as a native speaker) towards listeners' own progress and development in each level. The descriptors and progress indicators displayed in Figure 6.4 provide a good example in this regard:

Goal 1, Standard 1 To use English to communicate in social settings: Students will use English to participate in social interactions.
Descriptors j. Sharing and requesting information k. Expressing needs, feelings and ideas l. Getting personal needs met m. Engaging in conversations
Sample Progress Indicators j. Defend and argue a position k. Indicate interest, opinions, or preferences related to class projects

**Figure 6.4: Level descriptors and progress indicators;
grade 9-12 (adapted from TESOL, 2008)**

As can be seen from Figure 6.4, the standard, level descriptors and progress indicators for Grades 9-12 address the issues of learner motivation (indicate interest, opinions and preferences related to class project), and critical engagement with texts (defend and argue a position) through language functions. Neither of these aspects, however, has been described and presented in relation to an external structure (e.g., “native speaker”). For example, learners’ expression of their needs, feelings and ideas does not have to be compared with the ways in which a “native speaker” expresses her/his needs, feelings and ideas. In addition, since all learners, regardless of the stage they are at, have particular interests, opinions, and preferences, the descriptors and progress indicators describe learners in relation to what they have, rather than what they lack.

Program stakeholder input and revision of policies and guidelines: The findings of both phases demonstrated that it is possible and necessary to revise program policies and practices based on input from program stakeholders. As discussed before, the results of both phases pointed to discrepancies between the program policies and practice guidelines, and the EIP leaders and participants’ performance, perceptions, and experiences. In the first phase, while the results of listeners’ performance and perceptions showed that metacognitive strategies and motivation orientations influenced variability in listening performance, the practice guidelines and program policies did not acknowledge and include these variables. In the second phase, while some leaders believed that textbooks and activities should be relevant to learners’ personal and professional history and context, the guidelines focused on learners’ listening development in relation to “a native speaker” performance. These discrepancies showed that it is indeed necessary to revise program policies and practice guidelines based on the input from stakeholders other than those in the decision-making positions. Rather than applying a top-down

approach, a bottom-up approach can provide the context for developing and revising program policies and practices, which are reflective of the program participants and leaders' needs and experiences.

6.1.4.2 - Areas of Divergence and Tension

The application of mixed methods in the first and second phases of this study made it possible to examine two different aspects of L2 listening: listening as a skill and as multiple literacies. The findings of these two phases also create some tensions in relation to the competing assumptions associated with these two aspects. These assumptions include, but are not limited to, the focus on performance versus process, learner and teacher roles, the place and importance of standards, guidelines and policies in practice, and monitoring and evaluation of the listening skill and processes. It is important to note that by explicitly discussing areas of divergence between the two phases, my purpose is not to resolve these tensions, but to create a space for dialogue on the complexities of teaching and learning L2 listening.

Performance or process: The results of the first phase suggested the need for a systematic pedagogical focus on learning strategies (i.e., Planning and Evaluation, Directed Attention and Person Knowledge) and motivation orientations to improve listening performance. The results also highlighted the importance of a simultaneous focus on linguistic, cognitive and affective factors in the teaching and learning of listening. The results of the second phase, on the other hand, showed how a mere focus on performance risks ignoring learners' creative and critical literacy processes. For example, in some cases, what is understood as failed performance is

indeed a more in-depth and critical engagement with oral texts. These results raise some questions with regards to what successful listening performance means and how relevant it is to L2 learners/listeners' personal, academic and professional lives. These questions also concern the tensions and challenges around finding a balance between the roles of performance and process in the teaching and learning of L2 listening. On the one hand, by placing performance in the center of pedagogy and practice, important listening and literacy processes are disregarded. On the other hand, by ignoring performance, we risk denying learners' immediate need of succeeding in high-stakes proficiency tests. Performance (e.g., success in a high-stakes test) can be an entry point, but it should not be an end in itself. In other words, while a focus on performance is rightly relevant, it should not drive the teaching and learning of listening in L2 programs. The achievement of this balance, however, becomes a real struggle in consideration of the fact that L2 programs are expected to be accountable for students' success in L2 high-stakes tests, which include separate listening, reading, writing and sometimes speaking sections. The results of these tests, which are used as a single indicator of successful L2 performance, are used to make important decisions about whether L2 students can attend regular university programs or not. One implication of such proficiency tests for teachers and L2 learners has been the pressure to focus on test preparation, which in turn has resulted in the dominance of a skills-orientation towards teaching second languages. This tension was also reflected in the ways that some EIP leaders viewed the notion of literacy and its relation to the teaching of L2 listening.

Learner and teacher roles: The results of the first phase of this study suggested that the interaction between linguistic, metacognitive and affective factors could explain up to 65% of

variability in listening performance. Therefore, successful listeners differ from inexperienced listeners not just in the knowledge of vocabulary or grammar (the content), but also in the ability to solve problems, focus their attention, and personally endorse and integrate their listening activities, etc. Inexperienced listeners particularly hold novice ideas about how and why they should listen to texts. For example, they often do not know that they should have a mental plan before starting listening (a metacognitive strategy), or they don't know why they should value listening activities beyond participating in the activity itself (as in purely extrinsically motivated behavior). Teachers, who are experienced listeners and are, therefore, experts, must identify the behaviors and beliefs that learners (as novice listeners) should possess in order to perform successfully. Teachers must also provide their learners with knowledge about how they as experts perform listening tasks, solve problems, etc. Effective L2 listening instruction, too, should address and correct learners' ineffective behaviors and beliefs about L2 listening as a skill, as well as about performance on listening tasks. With the right approach to the teaching of listening, therefore, L2 listeners can progress from their relative naiveté to mastery by understanding appropriate strategies and degrees of integration, as well as when to use each. From this perspective, therefore, learning is a process which has a definite beginning and ending.

The second phase, on the other hand, took account of listening processes by focusing on listening events, from which learners' literacies emerge. In these events, teachers are not experts who can tell learners 'do as we do' (Deleuze, 1994). Rather, both learners and teachers have entry and exit points in literacy/listening events and have equal opportunities for learning. Learning happens when "together" teachers and learners participate in these events in ways such that they can immerse themselves in problems and their systems of relations. From this

perspective, the seemingly set boundaries of teaching and learning (learning listening in this case), and teachers and learners are blurred, because there is as much learning for teachers as there is for L2 listeners at different levels. The results of the second phase highlighted that participation in listening events is not a passage from naiveté to mastery, or from non-knowledge to knowledge, where there are fixed beginnings and endings.

Role of the standards, guidelines and policies: Another area of divergence in the two phases concerned the role that practice guidelines and program policies should play in the L2 programs. The results of the first phase of the study highlighted the importance of the inclusion of learning strategies and motivation orientations in program policy and practice guidelines in the form of standards, descriptors and progress indicators. The results of the second phase, on the other hand, showed that describing listening development in terms of a linear progression according to sets of “representative behaviors” fails to capture the fluidity of listening processes and experiences. This challenge raises questions about whether or not including learning strategies and affective factors in practice guidelines, for example, creates the same kind of problem as identified in the second phase. The problem is when these variables are included in the standards, descriptors and progress indicators, we risk reducing the different and creative ways in which L2 listeners’ participate in literacy/listening activities to success or failure in using a set of strategies or motivation orientations. This is a tension that clearly speaks to the limits of what we know about and what we can do for L2 learners.

Monitoring and L2 listening skills and literacy processes in L2 programs: The challenges regarding the balance between performance and listening/literacy processes in the teaching and learning of L2 listening also relate to the questions around monitoring and evaluation of L2 listening development in L2 programs. Fransman (2006) has already highlighted the difficulties around conceptualizing a monitoring and evaluation framework, which can capture both skills and literacy processes in language and literacy programs. On the one hand, the skill dimension of listening appears to be “the most pragmatic and commonly used methodology for monitoring and evaluation purposes” (Fransman, 2006, p. 30). On the other hand, critical and creative literacy processes can have significant impact on the ways listening is learned within and beyond L2 programs, and used later in life. As shown by the results of the second phase of the study, these are significant processes “that may not be tangible and may not even transpire until much later” (p. 30), and therefore, pose a serious challenge to monitoring and evaluation efforts in L2 programs. However, by acknowledging the relevance of these processes throughout the monitoring and evaluation efforts, “important questions surrounding the different and diverse ways of learning processes; the importance of the content of texts and other learning materials throughout these processes; and the implication of these for the training of facilitators and teachers, for curriculum development and for program organization come to light” (p. 31).

In sum, a mixed methods way of thinking should be generative and open, “seeking richer, deeper, better understanding of important facets of our infinitely complex social world. A mixed methods way of thinking generates questions, alongside answers; it generates results that are both smooth and jagged, full of relative certainties alongside possibilities and even surprises, offering some stories not yet told” (Greene, 2007, p. 20). I believe the two phases of this mixed-

methods study, which examined L2 listening from the competing perspectives of cognitive psychology and Multiple Literacies Theory, provided the space for a mixed methods way of thinking regarding L2 listening, the teaching and learning of L2 listening, and policy and programming in the area of L2 listening. Greene (2005) posits that the full potential of mixed methods inquiry is in its ability to generate “puzzles, and paradoxes, clashes and conflicts that, when pursued, can engender new perspectives and understandings” (p. 24). This study took a step towards this direction.

6.2 – Pedagogical Implications

A simultaneous focus on cognitive and affective factors, as well as critical engagement in the program policies and practice guidelines in the area of L2 listening development is particularly important for L2 listening pedagogy and practice. The importance of considering other aspects than the content area in training programs has been already demonstrated in the literature. For example, a meta-analysis of recent studies on self-regulated learning by Dignath and Buttner (2008) shows that training programs with a focus on combining metacognitive strategies with cognitive strategies appear to be more efficient than training programs which exclusively focus on the content area. In addition, training programs developed based on motivation theories prove to be most effective if they include a focus on metacognitive reflection (Dignath & Buttner, 2008). With respect to pedagogical practices in the area of L2 listening, the relevance of metacognitive strategies in the teaching of L2 listening has been well documented in the L2 listening literature (Goh, 2008; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Macaro, Graham, & Vanderplank, 2007; Vandergrift, 2004). More specifically, strategy-supportive teaching

behavior, including modeling (where teachers show to their learners the mental activities that they engage when making sense of oral text; Chamot, 1995), awareness raising (Buck, 1995), and scaffolding (Vandergrift, 2004; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010), have been demonstrated to help L2 listeners regulate their L2 listening processes, which in turn helps learners perform more successfully. One way to engage metacognitive strategy-supportive teaching behavior is through metacognitive instruction (Goh, 2008; Vandergrift, 2004), which involves a cycle of a series of metacognitive listening strategies. Goh (2002, 2008) and Vandergrift (2006; 2008) argue that metacognitive instruction for L2 listening is crucial in overall L2 listening development, for it elicits and enhances learners' knowledge of learning how to listen. According to Goh (2008), metacognitive instruction in listening is "beneficial in at least three ways: (1) it improves affect in listening, helping learners to be more confident, more motivated and less anxious; (2) it has a positive effect on listening performance; (3) weak listeners potentially benefit the greatest from it" (p. 196). Moreover, metacognitive instruction has the potential to bring change to learners' long-held beliefs such as negative self-concept as L2 listeners (Goh, 2008). However, changing learners' long-held beliefs requires that metacognitive instruction be maintained overtime and learners be explicitly informed about the relevance and usefulness of metacognitive instruction (Veenman, Van Hout-Wolters & Afflerbach, 2006). To achieve this, it is imperative that program policies pay direct and explicit attention to metacognitive strategies along with the linguistic aspect of L2 listening, particularly in setting instructional goals, standards, and performance expectations for learners.

As to the role of different motivation orientations, there is also ample evidence in the literature that pedagogical elements which are motivation-supportive (as opposed to controlling

and amotivating) -- such as motivation-supportive teaching behaviors (e.g., encouraging learners' intrinsic motivation, acknowledging learners' feelings, recognizing learners' interest and disinterest) and a motivation-supportive curriculum -- correlate positively with higher academic achievement, higher perceived competence and self-esteem, greater creativity and higher rates of retention (Amabile, 1985; Cordova & Lepper, 1996; Miserandino, 1996; Reeve, 2004; Reeve & Nix, 1997). This is significant from at least two standpoints: individual and program. From an individual standpoint, different motivation orientations can reveal the degree to which learners are autonomous; whether they are ready to personally endorse the values and goals promoted through L2 listening curricular and pedagogical practices; and whether they can better relate these practices to their past experiences and their future needs. Since for the majority of the EIP participants, learning English as a second language, particularly L2 listening, is primarily extrinsically motivated (e.g., meeting the second language requirements of regular university programs), more intrinsically-oriented L2 listening behaviors can be supported through activities which encourage feelings of relatedness to the community of interest, i.e., EL1 speakers. For example, this can be achieved through the design, development and implementation of a peer/body component. Peer/body systems have been demonstrated to provide second language learners with opportunities to practice their second language in meaningful contexts (Guardado & Ling shi, 2007). On the one hand, EL1 peer bodies can assist EIP students with the language- and community-related issues that interest them. On the other hand, EL1 peers can greatly benefit from what the EIP participants can offer, i.e., their language, cultural, educational and professional backgrounds. This is particularly significant in light of the

fact that EL1 and EIP peers are to share one campus as participants of the regular programs in the parent university.

From a program standpoint, research has demonstrated that specific guidance regarding motivation-supportive pedagogical practices (as opposed to controlling practices) can actually help instructors learn motivation support and adjust their teaching style to the expected benefits of different degrees and kinds of learner motivation (Reeve, 2004). Moreover, since motivation-supportive teaching behaviors lead to a higher learner success rate, they have a clear relevance to program effectiveness. These, however, cannot be achieved solely by advocating motivation-supportive teaching as an important classroom aspiration. Rather, educational programs should provide instructors with specific instructions as to the ways in which they can support students' motivation (Reeve, 2004).

A strategy- and motivation-supportive pedagogy should also focus on the critical and engaged ways in which learners participate in learning activities. This particularly requires a balanced focus on both performance and process, because when practice is dominated by a focus on performance (particularly the structure of high-stakes tests), it can restrict the degree to which students find negotiations with complex texts relevant to their learning. As demonstrated by the findings of the second phase of this study (i.e., the Biodegradable-Chewing-Gum event), even when learners find the courage and/or the space to critically engage with texts (i.e., challenge the logic of comprehension questions in the case of Ali), they might still find it difficult to value their attempts if not explicitly supported by their teachers. In addition, when educators solely focus on learners' performance (e.g., representative behaviors in this case), their access to their learners' engaged sense-making processes is curtailed. In the Biodegradable-Chewing-Gum

event, for instance, Ali's teacher seemed to believe that Ali's disapproval of the *right* answer was because he was lost or he had missed some important details in the text (as assumed, for example, in the reviewed descriptors and benchmarks). Conversely, Ali believed that the sense of the word 'bad' was not literally contained within itself, but was beyond itself in 'the novelty of the taste'. These limitations point to the need for questioning not only the common beliefs about texts as transparent media for the communication of information, but also the common sense beliefs about the teaching and learning of listening. The ability to not only find the best answer to listening comprehension questions, but also to listen to challenge or find value in the oral text and in comprehension questions is what facilitates learners' successful participation in and negotiation of academic literacy tasks later in their regular academic programs and beyond. In addition, the Origin-of-Money event provided a good example for literacies being the productions of connections and relations. In this event, Bardia's sense-making showed how his literacies (e.g., knowledge of history, himself as an Iranian) connected and produced his memories and desires. A significant aspect of this event was the listening activity itself which, by bridging the lecture to students' social and historical experiences, provided the space for these relations and connections to occur. An important implication of these findings is that pedagogy and practice become most relevant when learners' social and historical contexts are brought into the center.

6.3 – Pedagogical Recommendations

In light of the findings and pedagogical implications of this mixed-methods study, the followings are recommended to improve policy and programming in the EIP:

Recommendations for Improving Policies

1. Revision of program policy and practice guidelines to update listening performance expectations for learners (including linguistic, and non-linguistic factors such as cognitive and affective factors) to identify, specify and include specific program goals, and specific course objectives, to be aligned with relevant performance standards, level descriptors and progress indicators.
2. Revision of program policy and practice guidelines to update guidelines for teachers and teaching assistants to include a balanced focus on both listening performance and processes. More specifically, development of explicit standards, level descriptors, and progress indicators, and course objectives in terms of instruction which supports both comprehension skills and critical engagements and negotiations with the oral text through valuing, criticizing and relating to listeners' own experiences. For example, the guidelines should not only state that listeners comprehend texts, but also how to comprehend (learning strategies and motivation orientations), and what to do with these texts that they comprehend (e.g., argue, critique, etc.). As demonstrated earlier in this section, examples of such efforts can be found in the ESL standard prepared by TESOL (2008);
3. Revision and development of level descriptors with a focus on expectations of learners in terms of listeners' own development at each level, rather than "native speakers" or listeners at the lower or higher levels. Due to the tensions around the

notion of “native speaker”, it is imperative that the term “native speaker” be removed from the descriptions.

Recommendations for Supporting Practice

4. Development of an informational booklet with a focus on the following areas:

- i. Different motivational orientations (Reeve, 1998; Reeve, Jang, Carrell, Jeon & Barch, 2004; Tessier, Sarrazin, Ntoumanis, 2008), which explains the concept of motivation support; illustrates what it looks like in a classroom setting; summarizes the benefits of motivation support; and presents case studies so that the teachers could think about how to apply a motivation-supportive style to instruction. For example, participating teachers could access samples of what a classroom teacher might say or do to enact each specific motivation-supportive behavior via audio and audio-visual clips. Research has already shown the benefits of explicit educational programming on teachers’ instructional styles. In a study of twenty experienced teachers of mathematics, economics, English and science, Reeve, Jang, Carrell, Jeon and Barch (2004) found that teachers’ use of motivation-supportive instruction increased after receiving a 10-week training intervention. The intervention included a presentation of the basic tenets of self-determination theory (e.g., the different orientations towards motivation) as well as an interactive website, designed to help translate motivation-supportive instructional behaviors into practice.

- ii. Metacognitive strategy instruction, which explains the concepts of metacognition and metacognitive-strategy-supportive behaviors (e.g., awareness raising and scaffolding); illustrates what they look like in a classroom setting; summarizes the benefits of metacognitive strategy instruction; and presents case studies (e.g., Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010) so that the teachers can think about how to apply a metacognitive-strategy-supportive style to instruction;
 - iii. Different definitions of literacy and their consequences for practice, which illustrate what each definition looks like in a classroom setting; summarizes the potential and limitations of each orientation towards literacy development (i.e., functional, progressive and critical orientations), and present case studies so that the teachers can think about how each can be best applied to their practice. The booklet can also include sample activities that show how teaching L2 listening can build on students' other literacies (i.e., home, community, personal and professional), while validating learners' histories, experiences, and future needs.
5. Encouraging and facilitating teachers' engagement in the identification of the literacy assumptions underlying program policy texts and the relevance of such assumptions to their own literacy definitions, beliefs and classroom practices. Cadiero-Kaplan (2004) provides a useful instrument, Literacy Web Questions, which helps educators to identify their own definitions of literacy and the literacy

forms that they find most relevant to their students; to match up these definitions and forms with their actual practices in the areas such as setting instructional goals and expectations for students;

6. Encouraging and Facilitating group discussions among instructors, where they can focus on their literacy definitions, assumptions and classroom practices and try to identify possible areas of congruence and/or incongruence between these and the literacy assumptions underlying the policy texts through critical dialogue and reflection.

Recommendations for Supporting Learner Success

7. An online measure of metacognitive processes and motivational orientations regarding learning L2 listening. This can include computer traces or online journals, which can be used as a diagnostic tool as well as a tracking system regarding improvement in the areas of strategy use and motivation (Zimmerman, 2008);
8. A peer/body system involving EL1 speakers enrolled in regular programs in the parent university. As mentioned before, peer/body systems have been demonstrated to be specifically effective in encouraging feelings of integration and in relationship building between learners and the community of interest -- EIP learners and the EL1 speakers enrolled in regular programs in this case -- (Guardado & Ling shi, 2007). They are also important in that they can equally value learners' prior

personal, academic and professional experiences, as well as their significant role in enriching campus life.

6.3 – Reflections

This investigation examined listening as a skill and a component of multiple literacies, and evaluated program policies and practice guidelines of an English Intensive Program (EIP) in the area of L2 listening development in a university in Canada along two dimensions of Cadiero-Kaplan (2004) Language Policy and Programming Conceptual Framework: expectations for learners and literacy orientations. It is important to note that a specific focus on L2 listening can project an over-emphasis on the notion of oral literacy, while minimizing the significance of other forms of multiple literacies. In addition, by focusing on listening activities in the context of the EIP, the study might inadvertently privilege academic experiences and discourses over second language learners' other listening experiences.

This study only focuses on the evaluation of the EIP program policies and practices guidelines in the area of L2 listening development. Due to its scope and purpose (i.e., in-depth description), therefore, the study does not provide evidence for the EIP effectiveness with regards to other aspects of second language development. In addition, further research is needed for evaluation of the EIP alongside the other four dimensions of Cadiero-Kaplan's framework. For example, future evaluation studies could examine policies and practices in areas such as financial, material, and human resources and the ways in which these resources support and/or hinder participation in the program. Also, future research can focus on accountability issues

regarding student achievement and success in the area of L2 listening and other components of L2 learning, as well as program implementation including procedures for testing.

The effects of this research on its participant learners are quite limited at the present time. This is due to the fact that the outcomes of this study will only be evident if the findings are incorporated in policy and curriculum development and revision. It is obvious that new ways of thinking with regards to the performance expectations for learners as well as literacy orientation-- generated as a result of this research-- might not be immediately clear.

As mentioned before, mixed-methods studies engage diverse stakeholders from different levels (from administration to students); however, this can be problematic especially if there are power or agenda differences among participants (Badger, 2000). In this study, the researcher is a former instructor of the EIP. Therefore, there are currently no power issues at the level of the researcher. Yet, the results of this investigation might openly expose potential areas of improvement in the program when it might be politically wiser not to bring them into light. In addition, while this study tried to incorporate different stakeholder input into the research process, due to its scope, input from some important stakeholders, such as the EIP graduates and staff from different levels of administration, were not incorporated into the study.

As well noted by Cresswell (2007), mixed-methods research can provide multiple forms of evidence to document and inform the research problems and, therefore, can be very useful for “audiences such as policymakers, practitioners and others in applied areas” (p. 13). On the other hand, mixed methods have also been challenged for combining incommensurate discourses and world views (e.g., Guba & Lincoln, 1988) for the purposes of coming to a solution to the weak points of both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. However, following Greene

(2001), the purpose of this research was never to combine world views to come to an ultimate solution, but rather to juxtapose these paradoxical discourses to further understanding.

6.4 - Conclusion

This mixed methods research examined listening as a skill and a component of multiple literacies and evaluated the policy and practice guidelines of an English Intensive Program (EIP) in the area of L2 listening. Greene (2007) posits that the primary purpose of a study with a mixed methods ways of thinking is “to better understand the complexity of social phenomena being studied” (p. 12). Accordingly, better understanding can take multiple forms, including but not limited to generating insights that are broader, deeper, more inclusive, and that honor the complexity and contingency of human phenomena. Better understanding also challenges what has been accepted as common sense through engagement with multiple, and often discordant perspectives and lenses. According to Greene (2007), it is in this engagement that a genuine dialogue is advanced, in which the political and value dimensions of our work are clarified. This research took a step towards that direction.

This study is a mixed methods endeavor from both epistemological and methodological standpoints. From an epistemological perspective, the research engaged diverse ways of knowing, which “are likely to invoke some tensions. Yet, it is precisely in these tensions that the generative potential of mixed methods inquiry might best be realized” (Greene, 2007, p. 27). More specifically, the research incorporated perspectives and concepts from multiple disciplines: cognitive psychology, second language acquisition, education, literacy and evaluation. In addition, situated in Richard Rorty’s pragmatism, this study deliberately used competing inquiry

paradigms and theories from these disciplines (metacognition; Self-Determination Theory; Deleuze and Guattari's micro-political readings of text, Peirce's semiotics; Masny's Multiple Literacies Theory) to provide a space for generating deeper understanding with regards to L2 listening performance and processes, which are more inclusive of the major stakeholders' expectations, perceptions, as well as their immediate and long term needs. With respect to methodology, this study included a diversity of methodological traditions (i.e., qualitative and quantitative), designs, methods for data collection (i.e., questionnaires, standardized tests, interviews, observation) and analysis (i.e., policy analysis, correlation, regression, structural equation modeling, revealing scenarios, themes and categories), and different forms of interpretation and reporting.

The study evaluated the EIP policy and practice guidelines along Cadiero-Kaplan's (2004) two dimensions (i.e., expectations for learners and literacy orientations). This helped to explore policies and practices in relation to both L2 listening performance expectations for EIP learners, as well as L2 listening processes. On the one hand, the application of metacognition and Self-Determination Theory, in the first phase of the study, helped to gain insights as to the significance of some non-linguistic factors in L2 listening ability. These insights provided the basis for the argument that the policy and program guidelines in the area of L2 listening performance expectations should extend to include a focus on learning strategies and learner motivation orientations. On the other hand, Deleuze's micro-political readings of text, Peirce's semiotics, Masny's Multiple Literacies Theory, in the second phase of the study, revealed the potentials and limitations of a skills-oriented approach to literacy and L2 listening development in capturing critical literacy processes involved in L2 listening events. These insights provided

the basis for the argument that policies and guidelines should include a balanced focus on both listening performance and critical listening/literacy processes.

In sum, this study was conducted to develop an in-depth and contextualized understanding of EIP policies and practices with regards to L2 listening from the standpoint of program participants and leaders. The complexity of the purpose, objectives and questions in this investigation called for answers beyond those provided by either quantitative or qualitative inquiry paradigms. The application of mixed methods was necessary for achieving the stated objectives and generating the insights gained.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Email to Coordinator and Teachers for Recruitment Purposes

Hello COORDINATOR,

Thanks for taking time to read the proposal and for the feedback. Please see attached the outline. I was not sure whether I had to mention that the 8-10 participants, who will take part in the second phase of the study, will receive 20 dollars in compensation for their time outside the class hours for interviews.

Again, I really appreciate your help.

Marzieh

> Hi Marzieh,

> Thanks for preparing this outline of your research project. I think it covers the basics well. There is one point that I think could use further clarification: the video taping of class observation. Could you explain how you will go about doing this, and why it is necessary to your research? I think some teachers might be a bit sensitive about having their class video taped, so a more detailed explanation might help them be more accepting of the idea.

> Could you revise your proposal to include this clarification? It would also be helpful to divide your text into segments with sub-titles.

> Thanks,

> COORDINATOR

> -----Original Message-----
> From: mhass050@uottawa.ca [mailto:mhass050@uottawa.ca]
> Sent: 22 October 2006 14:14
> Cc: mehrnoosh tafaghod
> Subject: Proposal
>
> Hello COORDINATOR,
> Thanks for taking time to read my proposal and agreeing to support me.
> As you know I am currently doing my PhD under the supervision of Dr.
> Larry
> Vandergrift at the faculty of Education. I have recently passed my PhD
> proposal. My research is about second language listening comprehension
> as
> a form of multiple literacies available to ESL university students. The
> purpose of my research is to examine some potential factors (such as
> anxiety, motivation, memory, etc.) that contribute to L2 academic
> listening. I am also interested in the processes of engagement with
> meaning making with oral academic text through listening comprehension.
> My research has two phases. In the first phase, I envision 60 to 80
>
> participants from different proficiency levels. In the second phase,
> only
> 8-10 participants will be selected.
> Phase 1
> In order to understand the factors that influence performance on a
> second
> language listening test, the participants will complete the following
> tests and questionnaires:
>
> 1. Two questionnaires: a motivation, and a metacognitive
> listening questionnaire; each questionnaire will approximately take 10
> minutes (the questionnaires should be completed after a listening
> activity)
> 3. The placement test results from the beginning of the course will
> be
> needed for proficiency results
> 4. The students' final grades will be needed for better
> understanding
> their proficiency and their listening performance
>
> In addition, in order to select participants for the second phase of the
> study, I will need class observations of the listening section of the
> courses. The focus of my observation will be students' engagement with
> listening activities. The class observations will be video taped.
>

> In addition, in order to select participants for the second phase of the
> study, I will need class observations of the listening section of the
> courses. The focus of my observation will be students' engagement with
> listening activities. The class observations will be video taped.
>
> Phase 2
> Eight to ten participants will be selected for interviews, which will
> focus on the ways the participants make sense of the L2 oral academic
> text. The interview questions include some of the questions on the
> motivation questionnaires. The interviews will be conducted after the
class hours.
>
> Phase 2
> Eight to ten participants will be selected for interviews, which will
> focus on the ways the participants make sense of the L2 oral academic
> text. The interview questions include some of the questions on the
> motivation questionnaires. The interviews will be conducted after the
class hours.
>
> I hope that participation in this study will help the EIP students to
> become aware of the possible factors which influence their English
> listening performance. For example, participation in this study can help
> learners become aware of the role of their anxiety level in their
> listening comprehension and as a result to be able to consciously work
> on
> controlling and using their anxiety level productively. In addition,
> participation in this study can help the EIP students to critically
> engage
> in the processes of meaning making while listening in academic settings.
> As for listening instruction, the results of this study can help to
> transform instruction to include a complex of factors such as learners'
> strategies and motivation orientations. It will also help teachers to
> value listening comprehension as a form of literacy rather than an
> isolated skill.
>
>
> I have attached the motivation, and metacognition questionnaires.
> Again, I really appreciate your consideration of my request.
> I'd be pleased to answer any further questions.
> Marzieh
>
>

Attachments:

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PhD Dissertation Outline.doc	40 kb	[application/msword]	Download

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Move to: INBOX



Appendix B: Research Outline of the Purpose of Recruiting Teachers

Plan of Study

I am currently doing my PhD under the supervision of Dr. Larry Vandergrift at the Faculty of Education. I have recently defended my PhD proposal.

My research is about second language listening comprehension as a form of multiple literacies available to ESL university students. The purpose of my research is to examine some potential factors (such as strategy use, motivation, memory, etc.) that contribute to L2 academic listening. I am also interested in the processes of engagement with meaning making with oral academic text through second language listening comprehension.

Methodology

My research has two phases. In the first phase, I envision 60 to 80 participants from different proficiency levels. In the second phase, only 8-10 participants will be selected.

Phase 1

In order to understand the factors that influence performance on a second language listening test, the participants will complete the following tests and questionnaires:

1. Three questionnaires: a motivation, and a metacognitive listening questionnaire; each questionnaire will approximately take 10 minutes (the questionnaires should be completed after a listening activity)
2. The placement test results from the beginning of the course will be needed for proficiency results
3. The students' final grades will be needed to have a better understanding of their proficiency and their listening performance

Class Observations

In addition, in order to select participants for the second phase of my study, I will need class observations of the listening section of the EIP courses. The focus of my observation will be students' engagement with listening activities (e.g., their attempts in meaning negotiations). The class observations will be video taped.

The video recoding is important for the purposes of this research in that it allows for retrospective analysis of the participants' meaning negotiations (such as their attempts in asking questions or asking for clarification, etc.) during the listening activities.

Due to the number of students in each class, it would be impossible for me to focus on all the students at the same time and to gather accurate field notes in the observation sessions. The video taping also provides the necessary context for analysis including the actions before and after meaning negotiation strategies used by the participants. The listening activities will be captured onto two video cameras positioned in front of the class to allow the class to be viewed from two angles.

I will also take notes during the observation sessions to be able to record data not captured by the cameras.

Phase 2

Interviews

Eight to ten participants will be selected for interviews, which will focus on the ways the participants make sense of the L2 oral academic text. The interviews can help to clarify some of the observational data and to give depth and breath to the study.

The interview questions will also include some of the questions on the motivation questionnaire. The interviews will be conducted after the class hours.

I am also interested in your definitions of literacy and the ways these definitions affect your teaching of listening. Therefore, you might be invited to an interview session of about 45 minutes to discuss your ideas about and experiences with teaching L2 listening.

Educational Implications of the Study

I hope that participation in this study will help the EIP students to become aware of the possible factors which influence their English listening performance. For example, participation in this study can help learners' to become aware of the role of their anxiety level in their listening comprehension and as a result to be able to consciously work on controlling and using their anxiety level productively. In addition, participation in this study can help the EIP students to critically engage in the processes of meaning making while listening in academic settings. As for language teachers, the results of this study can help to transform instruction to include a complex of factors such as learners' strategies and motivation orientations. It will also help teachers to value listening comprehension as a form of literacy rather than an isolated skill.

Appendix C: Consent Form: Leadership Participants

Title of the Study: Examination of L2 listening Policies and Practices of an English Intensive Program: A Mixed Methods Study

Researcher: *Marzieh Hassantafaghodtari*

Faculty of Education

Invitation to Participate: I am invited to participate in the abovementioned research study conducted by *Marzieh Hassantafaghodtari and supervisor, Larry Vandergrift*.

Purpose of the Study: The purpose of this study is to examine the factors (i.e., motivation, strategies, and second language proficiency) which affect the skill of second language (L2) listening. This study also tries, in its qualitative phase, to explore L2 learners' experiences with L2 listening.

Participation: My participation will consist essentially of attending 1 interview session for 45 minutes, during which I will answer some questions about my perceptions of and experiences with teaching English (second language) listening skill. The interview has been scheduled to take place in an empty room at the University of Ottawa, in Feb 2007. I have also agreed with two sessions of classroom observation by the researcher.

Risks: My participation in this study will entail that *I share my personal experiences with the researcher I also allow the researcher to participate in class activities for the purpose of observation. If taking about my experiences or the researchers' participation in class activities cause any feelings of frustration, I have received assurance from the researcher that every effort will be made to minimize these risks by discontinuing any conversation that causes emotional harms and/or class observations. The researcher will also take the appropriate and necessary care referrals by providing me with sources for counseling support and guidance people at the University of Ottawa.*

Benefits: My participation in this study will help my teaching of L2 listening through transforming instruction to include a complex of factors such as learners' strategies and motivation orientations. It will also help teachers to think more critically about and consider listening as a form of literacy rather than an isolated skill.

Confidentiality and anonymity: I have received assurance from the researcher that the information I will share will remain strictly confidential. I understand that the contents will be used only for understanding the processes of involvement with meaning-making in L2 academic listening and that my confidentiality will be protected in the sense that only the researcher and her supervisor will have access to this information. **Anonymity** will be protected by choosing pseudo names instead of the real names during the research, presentations and the publications.

Conservation of data: The data collected (*i.e., both hard copy and electronic data including tape recordings of interviews, transcripts, , notes, etc.*) will be kept in a secure manner in my supervisor's (Dr. Vandergrift's) office in a locked filing cabinet at the Second Language Institute for 5 years.

Voluntary Participation: I am under no obligation to participate and if I choose to participate, I can withdraw from the study at any time and/or refuse to answer any questions, without suffering any negative consequences. If I choose to withdraw, all data gathered until the time of withdrawal will *be kept in Dr. Larry Vandergrift's office in a locked filing cabinet for five years.*

Acceptance: I,, agree to participate in the above research study conducted by Marzieh Hassantafaghodtari of the Faculty of Education, *which research is under the supervision of Dr. Larry Vandergrift.*

If I have any questions about the study, I may contact the researcher or his supervisor.

If I have any questions regarding the ethical conduct of this study, I may contact the Protocol

Officer for Ethics in Research, University of Ottawa, Tabaret Hall, 550 Cumberland Street,

Room 159, Ottawa, ON K1N 6N5

Tel.: (613) 562-5841

Email: ethics@uottawa.ca

There are two copies of the consent form, one of which is mine to keep.

Participant's signature:

Date:

Researcher's signature:

Date:

Appendix D: Recruitment Text

Thesis advisor: Dr. Larry Vandergrift, Second Language Institute, University of Ottawa

Researcher: Marzieh Hassantafaghodtari, Ph.D. Candidate, Faculty of Education, University of Ottawa

Title of the Study: Examination of L2 listening Policies and Practices of an English Intensive Program: A Mixed Methods Study

My name is Marzieh Hassantafaghodtari. I am currently doing my PhD under the supervision of Dr. Larry Vandergrift at the Faculty of Education at the University of Ottawa. I have recently defended my PhD proposal. My research is about second language listening comprehension as a form of multiple literacies available to ESL university students. The purpose of my research is to examine some potential factors (such as motivation and learning strategies, etc.) that contribute to L2 academic listening as well as the processes of engagement with meaning making with oral academic text. My research has two phases quantitative and qualitative. In the quantitative phase, there will be a proficiency test which includes a listening section. The tests will be taken in the EIP classes. There will be also two questionnaires, which include motivation and listening strategy questionnaires.

The qualitative phase includes an interview session for 45 minutes, which will happen in an empty room at the University of Ottawa. Participation in this study will help you to become aware of the possible factors which might influence your English listening performance. For example, if you are anxious while you take a listening test, it might have an adverse effect on your mark. It can also help you to become more aware of the processes of meaning making while you are listening to oral text in English. It will also help teachers and educators to become aware of the importance of listening comprehension and to value it more as a form of literacy.

I want to emphasize that participation in this research is voluntarily. Your decision as to participate or to refuse participation at any point of the study will be respected. Your test results and your responses to the questionnaires and the interview session will be confidential and no one, except for me and my supervisor, is allowed to access them. There will be numerical codes instead of your names and I will choose pseudo names instead of your names for the interviews.

Anonymity Guarantee

Your participation is voluntary and there are no consequences of any sort if you wish not to be a part of the study before or during any phase of the research. Your responses and the audio-taped recordings will remain anonymous, confidential, and carefully stored, and you will not be identified in the research or in any publication related to the research.

Again, I respect your choice regarding your participation in this research. I would also like to thank you, in advance, for your time and consideration of my request.

Appendix E: Quantitative Consent Form: Program Participants

Title of the Study: Examination of L2 listening Policies and Practices of an English Intensive Program: A Mixed Methods Study

Researcher: *Marzieh Hassantafaghodtari*

Faculty of Education

Invitation to Participate: I am invited to participate in the quantitative phase of the abovementioned research study conducted by *Marzieh Hassantafaghodtari and supervisor, Larry Vandergrift*.

Purpose of the Study: The purpose of the study is to examine the factors (i.e., motivation, strategies, and second language proficiency) which affect the skill of second language (L2) listening. This study also tries, in its qualitative phase, to explore L2 learners' experiences with L2 listening.

Participation: My participation will consist essentially of taking 1 tests and answering 2 questionnaires. The tests consist of an English language proficiency test including an English listening section (1 hour). *The tests* have been scheduled to take place at the Second Language Institute in mid November, 2006. I will also be asked to *complete a motivation and a listening strategy questionnaire at home. Each questionnaire will take approximately 10 minutes to complete.*

Risks: I have received assurance from the researcher that my scores on the proficiency and listening tests and the questionnaires will be confidential and under no circumstances the teacher of the course or any other individual for that matter will have access to them.

Benefits: My participation in this study will help me to understand some of the factors (e.g., anxiety level) that might potentially affect my English listening skill. Additionally, this study will help the EIP program to include and integrate these factors in their instruction of listening skill.

Confidentiality and anonymity: I have received assurance from the researcher that the information I will share will remain strictly confidential. I understand that the contents will be used only for understanding the factors that potentially influence L2 listening ability and that my confidentiality will be protected by the fact that the researcher and her supervisor will be the only people who will have access to the data. **Anonymity** will be protected by using numeric codes for each ID.

Conservation of data: *The test results and the responses to, questionnaires* will be kept in a secure manner in *Dr. Larry Vandergrift's office in a locked cabinet for five years; only I, Marzieh Hassantafaghodtari, and my supervisor, Dr. Larry Vandergrift, will have access to it.*

Voluntary Participation: I am under no obligation to participate and if I choose to participate, I can withdraw from the study at any time and/or refuse to answer any questions, without suffering any

negative consequences. If I choose to withdraw, all data gathered until the time of withdrawal will *be kept in Dr. Larry Vandergrift's office in a locked filing cabinet for five years.*

Acceptance: I,....., agree to participate in the above research study conducted by *Marzieh Hassantafaghodtari, PhD. Candidate* of the Faculty of Education, *which research is under the supervision of Larry Vandergrift.*

If I have any questions about the study, I may contact the researcher or his supervisor.

If I have any questions regarding the ethical conduct of this study, I may contact the Protocol

Officer for Ethics in Research, University of Ottawa, Tabaret Hall, 550 Cumberland Street,

Room 159, Ottawa, ON K1N 6N5

Tel.: (613) 562-5841

Email: ethics@uottawa.ca

There are two copies of the consent form, one of which is mine to keep.

Participant's signature:

Date:

Researcher's signature:

Date:

Appendix F: Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ)

Thesis Advisor: Dr. Larry Vandergrift, Faculty of Education, University of Ottawa

Researcher: Marzieh Hassantafaghodtari, Ph.D. Candidate, University of Ottawa

Thesis Title: Examination of Policies and Practices of an English Intensive Program: A Mixed Methods Study

Date: _____

Type	Strategy or Belief / Perception	Scale					
Problem Solving	1. Before I start to listen, I have a plan in my head for how I am going to listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Directed Attention	2. I focus harder on the text when I have trouble understanding.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Person Knowledge	3. I find that listening in French is more difficult than reading, speaking, or writing in French.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Mental Translation	4. I translate in my head as I listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Problem Solving	5. I use the words I understand to guess the meaning of the words I don't understand.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Directed Attention	6. When my mind wanders, I recover my concentration right away.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Problem Solving	7. As I listen, I compare what I understand with what I know about the topic.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Person Knowledge	8. I feel that listening comprehension in French is a challenge for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Problem Solving	9. I use my experience and knowledge to help me understand.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Planning /Evaluation	10. Before listening, I think of similar texts I may have listened to.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Mental Translation	11. I translate key words as I listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Directed Attention	12. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Problem Solving	13. As I listen, I quickly adjust my interpretation if I realize that it is not correct.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Planning /Evaluation	14. After listening, I think back to how I listened and about what I might do differently next time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Person Knowledge	15. I don't feel nervous when I listen to French.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Directed Attention	16. When I have difficulty understanding what I hear I give up and stop listening.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Problem Solving	17. I use the general idea of the text to help me guess the meaning of the words that I don't understand.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Mental Translation	18. I translate word by word, as I listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Problem Solving	19. When I guess the meaning of a word, I think back to everything else that I have heard, to see if my guess makes sense.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Planning /Evaluation	20. As I listen, I periodically ask myself if I am satisfied with my level of comprehension.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Planning /Evaluation	21. I have a goal in mind as I listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix G: Motivation Orientation Scales Questionnaire (MOSQ)

Thesis Advisor: Dr. Larry Vandergrift, Faculty of Education, University of Ottawa

Researcher: Marzieh Hassantafaghodtari, Ph.D. Candidate, University of Ottawa

Thesis Title: Examination of Policies and Practices of and English Intensive Program: A Mixed Methods Study

Date: _____

Why should you improve your listening comprehension skill?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Partially disagree	Partially agree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree
1. In order to get a good job later on.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. To prove to myself that I am a good citizen when I speak English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Because I enjoy the feeling of learning about English-speaking people and their way of life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Because I think it is important for my personal development.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Honestly, I don't know, I have the impression that I am wasting my time in studying English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. For the pleasure that I experience in knowing more about English literature.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. In order to earn more money later on.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Because I would feel guilty if I didn't know English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak more than one language.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. For the "high" that I get while speaking English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. For the "high" I get when I hear someone speaking a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. For the benefits that I might gain by being accepted in the English-speaking community	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Because I would feel ashamed I couldn't understand my English-speaking friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. For the pleasure I get from hearing English spoken by English-speaking people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak / listen to English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I don't know why I study English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. For the enjoyment I experience when I understand a difficult idea in English .	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. For the good feeling I get when do better than I thought in English class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. For the satisfaction I feel when I am doing difficult exercises in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix H: Communication with Program Leaders: Interview Schedule

----- Original Message -----

Subject: RE: Interview
From:
Date: Wed, 2 May, 2007 2:59 pm
To: XXXXX

Hello PROGRAM LEADER,
Sounds great to me.
Thank you very much again.
Marzieh

> Hello Marzieh,
> Could you come in on Friday morning (May 4) around 9?
> See you soon,
> PROGRAM LEADER

>

> -----Original Message-----

> From:
> Sent: 01 May 2007 14:04
> To: xxxxxxxx
> Subject: Interview

>

> Hello PROGRAM LEADER,
> I hope all is going great.
> I am writing with regards to our last week communication about my
> dissertation. I was wondering if you kindly had time for a 45-minute
> interview. I understand that it is a huge favor and as we already
> talked,
> I can happily wait till it is less busy. Please let me know when and
> what
> time is most convenient for you.

> Marzieh

Appendix I: Communication with Program Participants: Interview Schedule

----- Original Message -----
Subject: Re: RE Aboriginal Experiences and email address!
From: _____
Date: Fri, 8 June, 2007 1:49 pm
To: XXXXXX

> Hi Marzieh!
> how are you?
> I'm fine and i would like to see you one of this days, i think for me will
> be easier if we can see us next wednesday or next friday..., Wednesday i
> can around 2:30, after my class and friday i can see you around 11:30.
> Whad do you think about this optins?
> Let me know if you can one of this days, yes?
> Im looking to see you too.
> PARTICIPANT
>
> From: _____
> To: XXXXXXXXXX
> Subject: email address!
> Date: Mon, 4 Jun 2007 09:59:56 -0400 (EDT)
>>Hi PARTICIPANT,
>>I was wondering if you received my email. I was wondering if you had time
>>this week for the interview? Please let me know what day and time work
>> for
>>you best; I am flexible.
>>I look forward to hearing from you.
>>Marzieh
>> > Hi!
>> > I'm interested about the interview.
>> > and how and when we can see us?
>> > Greatings
>> > PARTICIPANT

Appendix J: Qualitative Consent Form: Program Participants

Title of the study: Examination of L2 listening Policies and Practices of an English Intensive Program: A Mixed Methods Study

Researcher: *Marzieh Hassantafaghodtari*

Faculty of Education

Supervisor: Larry Vandergrift

Second Language Institute

Invitation to Participate: I am invited to participate in the qualitative phase of the abovementioned research study conducted by *Marzieh Hassantafaghodtari and supervisor, Larry Vandergrift*.

Purpose of the Study: The purpose of this phase of the abovementioned study is to explore the ways in which L2 listener perceive of and participate in L2 listening activities.

Participation: My participation will consist essentially of attending 1 interview session for 45 minutes, during which I will answer some questions about my perceptions of and experiences with English (second language) listening skill. The interview has been scheduled to take place in an empty room at the University of Ottawa, in Feb 2007.

Risks: My participation in this study will entail that *I share my personal experiences with the researcher*. If taking about these experiences causes any feelings of frustration, I have received assurance from the researcher that every effort will be made to minimize these risks by discontinuing any conversation that causes emotional harms. The researcher will also take the appropriate and necessary care referrals by providing me with sources for counseling support and guidance people at the University of Ottawa.

Benefits: My participation in this study will help me to understand the processes of engagement in understanding oral academic text and therefore think more critically about and consider my listening ability. This research will contribute to knowledge by advancing the notion of literacy to include L2 listening comprehension.

Confidentiality and anonymity: I have received assurance from the researcher that the information I will share will remain strictly confidential. I understand that the contents will be used only for understanding the processes of involvement with meaning-making in L2 academic listening and that my confidentiality will be protected in the sense that only the researcher and her supervisor will have access to this information. **Anonymity** will be protected by choosing pseudo names instead of the real names during the research, presentations and the publications.

Conservation of data: The data collected (*i.e., both hard copy and electronic data including tape recordings of interviews, transcripts, , notes, etc.*) will be kept in a secure manner in my supervisor's (Dr. Vandergrift's) office in a locked filing cabinet at the Second Language Institute for 5 years.

Compensation: To compensate the participants for their time, I will give each participant a 20\$ gift certificate from a book store.

Voluntary Participation: I am under no obligation to participate and if I choose to participate, I can withdraw from the study at any time and/or refuse to answer any questions, without suffering any negative consequences. If I choose to withdraw, all data gathered until the time of withdrawal will *be kept in Dr. Larry Vandergrift's office in a locked filing cabinet for five years.*

Acceptance: I,, agree to participate in the above research study conducted by Marzieh Hassantafaghodtari of the Faculty of Education, *which research is under the supervision of Dr. Larry Vandergrift.*

If I have any questions about the study, I may contact the researcher or his supervisor.

If I have any questions regarding the ethical conduct of this study, I may contact the Protocol

Officer for Ethics in Research, University of Ottawa, Tabaret Hall, 550 Cumberland Street,

Room 159, Ottawa, ON K1N 6N5

Tel.: (613) 562-5841

Email: ethics@uottawa.ca

There are two copies of the consent form, one of which is mine to keep.

Participant's signature:

Date:

Researcher's signature:

Date:

Appendix K: Interview Protocol: Program Leaders

Thesis Advisor: Dr. Larry Vandergrift, Faculty of Education, University of Ottawa
Researcher: Marzieh Hassantafaghodtari, Ph.D. Candidate, University of Ottawa
Thesis Title: Examination of L2 listening Policies and Practices of an English Intensive Program: A Mixed Methods Study

Date: _____

Interview session

- Semi-Structured Interview questions:
 - Biographical questions to elicit information about: name, gender, age.
 - Questions to elicit information about work experiences inside and outside the EIP.
 - Who are your students? And why are there in the program?
 - What are your students' expectations of the program?
 - How do students' expectations relate to your decisions regarding instruction including your pedagogical practices and materials?
 - What is your definition of literacy? How does this relate to your decisions regarding instruction including your pedagogical practices and materials?
 - What is the importance of the listening ability relative to speaking, reading and writing?
 - How do you teach listening? Can you describe a typical listening activity that you do when you want to focus on the listening ability?
 - Why do you do your listening activity in this certain way? What resources help you decide that this kind of listening activity is best for the students?
 - Is listening a skill or a form of literacy?
 - How does your teaching of and your students' learning of listening relate to your definition of literacy?

Appendix L: Interview Protocol: Program Participants

Thesis Advisor: Dr. Larry Vandergrift, Faculty of Education, University of Ottawa
Researcher: Marzieh Hassantafaghodtari, Ph.D. Candidate, University of Ottawa
Thesis Title: Examination of L2 listening Policies and Practices of an English Intensive Program: A Mixed Methods Study

Date: _____

Interview session

- Semi-Structured Interview questions:
 - Biographical questions to elicit information about: name, gender, age.
 - Questions to elicit information about past academic experiences, and whether you would like to attend a regular program in the parent university?
 - How do you feel about your EIP course?
 - How do you feel about your listening ability in English? How do you assess your listening ability compared to your speaking, reading, and writing?
 - Are there any differences between your listening ability in your first language and your listening ability in English? If so, what are those?
 - Do you think it is important to practice listening? Why?
 - What do you think about the outings? Do they help you practice your listening?
 - How do you feel about having to listen to lectures in a language other than your first?
 - How do you feel when you know that you are going to be called on by the teacher? How do you feel about not fully understanding the teacher or your classmates?
 - How do you feel about having to communicate in the English language with other people outside the EIP program? For example, when you go to a coffee shop or to the grocery store?
 - Outside the program, do you try to ask questions when you have problems understanding someone?
 - How about when you are in the EIP?

- How do you compare your listening performance inside and outside the EIP