CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

My thesis is of a pedagogical nature, in relation to the international students participating in the Masters of Law (LL.M.) Program offered by the Indiana University School of Law at Indianapolis. One crucial element for the success of these L2 students in this program lies in their ability to acquire the information presented within their law lectures. However, gaps in general English listening skills and more specifically, unfamiliarity with lecture organization has shown to be a hindrance for L2 university students in acquiring lecture information. In an effort to aid the LL.M. L2 students with their lecture comprehension challenges, the ESL program for LL.M. students has created a collection of law lecture videos featuring the school's law professors. This thesis shall serve as a model on how to use these law lecture videos as a basis for a series of lessons that will further enhance the ESL program for LL.M. students' listening skill and lecture comprehension curriculum.

The LL.M. Program for foreign lawyers began in 2002 with the admission of ten international attorneys; subsequently, the program has continued to grow with over 80 students from 20 different countries receiving LL.M. ESL instruction in 2006.[1] The LL.M. Program curriculum for foreign lawyers is designed to provide them with twenty-four credits of United States law instruction preparing them to work with American and other English speaking clients within their own country. As such, international students are required to one core course, (one credit) in Legal Research and one core course, (three credits) in Legal Analysis and Contracts or Torts; after which they customize their own course of study from elective courses offered within five LL.M. tracks according to

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[1] M. C. Beck (personal communication, 2007)

students' particular interests. These tracks include American Law for Foreign Lawyers; International and Comparative Law; Intellectual Property Law; Health Law, Policy and Bioethics; and International Human Rights Law. Outside of the core courses of the program, the foreign attorneys attend classes with native English speakers.

An essential component of the curriculum is the LL.M. English as a Second Language (ESL) program which provides students with English language support throughout the program. Through 2006, those who begin their studies in the fall semester of the LL.M. Program participated in summer intensive English training required for all international students. This intensive English training session was preceded by skill assessments via IUPUI's ESL Placement Exam to determine each student's English proficiency level for meeting the demands of the LL.M. Program. Those students who were assessed as having gaps in their English proficiency skills, and would normally be required to attend general university ESL courses, were alternatively required to participate in the ongoing ESL program for LL.M. students instead (Beck, 2004).[2] To-date, roughly three-quarters of the L2 LL.M. Program participants have been required to attend the ESL program. They must attend either one or two semesters in the LL.M. ESL program depending upon both their original placement status and their progress made during the first semester of the program.

My participation as an instructor for the ESL program for LL.M. students began with the summer orientation in 2006; additionally, I went on to teach one class during the fall semester. The class consisted initially of ten first-semester students and met for two hours twice weekly. The curriculum for the semester had already been developed by the

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[2] As of Fall 2007, changes will be made to the structure of the ESL program for LL.M. students which are not reflected in this thesis.

coordinator of the program; however, as an instructor, I was given a great deal of flexibility in the creation of lessons to address the specific needs of my class.

The ESL program for LL.M. students is considered English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in that it focuses on teaching English language skills and vocabulary connected with a specific course of study. The program is designed to address gaps in the LL.M. students' English proficiency which could hinder their understanding of the content taught in their law courses and their ability to produce adequate course work. As such, students attending the ESL program courses are at various levels of English proficiency within each of the four language skills: reading, writing, speaking and listening. In accordance with established ESL teaching methodology, courses within the ESL program are taught via a communicative approach whereby the instruction of all four language skills is integrated into most lessons using resources from the law school to focus on language structure and use (Beck, 2004, p. 88). However, lessons can also focus on a particular language skill in response to student needs.

As indicated by communications from previous ESL program students, skill assessments, and instructor observations, one of the more difficult challenges for many students early in the program is in understanding native English speakers. Although most of the students have had numerous years of English instruction in school, most have been taught by non-native English speakers and have had very little exposure to native English speakers. This presents an added challenge once the students are in the lecture classroom where they will need to heavily concentrate for long class periods on the complex law content being presented orally only in English.

Another challenge which can also serve as an obstacle to lecture comprehension that Beck (2004) discusses is the fact that many LL.M. students come from a civil law background, whereas common law is practiced and taught here in the United States. Aside from their inexperience with the common law classroom where student participation is required, "the law student coming from a civil law background may be confused by the U.S. law school's emphasis on inductive factual analysis after having been trained in deduction in their own country" (Beck, 2004, p. 11). Therefore, for many LL.M. students, becoming acclimated to the common law classroom accentuates the stress they already feel from their limited listening comprehension.

Previous students have expressed feelings of being overwhelmed with the initial difficulties of comprehending their law lectures. In her study, Beck (2004) explains that while reading and writing skill deficiencies of LL.M. students most greatly impacted their grades, which are based primarily on written papers and exams, the inconvenience and embarrassment of low proficiency listening skills were likewise a source of considerable distress to students. But, the consequences of having limited lecture comprehension are problematic to L2 students even beyond the failure to acquire the lecture content. It significantly impacts their capacity to participate in the verbal give and take format portion of the classroom and impairs the students' ability to take notes.[3] Such was the case for many LL.M. students interviewed by Beck (2004). Many students indicated that they completely avoided volunteering answers to professors' questions until they began to comprehend more at the end of the semester. Others who possessed lower listening or

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[3] Although the literature presents a broad picture of student needs relating to notetaking, the limited scope of this thesis does not permit an in-depth review of this skill as a by-product of lecture listening comprehension.

speaking skills never did participate in class discussions, nor were able to take adequate notes, but relied on borrowing native speaker notes as one strategy for coping with these deficiencies.

Unfortunately, the literature is sparse on the treatment of student comprehension difficulties which specifically target the challenges presented by law lectures. Likewise, there is very little in the way of authentic materials derived from actual law lectures from which ESL instructors can draw upon in creating their own lessons to aid L2 students in improving their lecture comprehension.

A key development for the LL.M. ESL program in the past two years has been the video recording[4] of eight individual lectures presented by various Indiana University School of Law at Indianapolis law instructors during the course of the program. These video-taped lectures have recently been transcribed,[5] and it is tentatively planned that they will eventually be organized into a corpus for future study. For the LL.M. Program, video-taped law lectures of law instructors serve as authentic materials providing a powerful anchor from which to create lessons that most realistically replicate the target situation under which the students will have to perform, the law lecture classroom. To date, only four instructors have extended permission for the tape of their particular lecture to be used in the creation of lessons targeting lecture listening comprehension and some of the video tapes have already been used in lessons. Even as an early-stage endeavor, these video tapes serve as a powerful teaching tool from which multiple lessons can be

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[4] Although the law lectures were digitally recorded, for the sake of continuity with the terminology used throughout the literature, the terms "video" or "video-taped" will be used in this paper to describe the final product of the recorded lectures; excerpts of the lectures are presented to students via DVD's.

[5] Transcripts were created by sending the audio portion of the videos to the Indiana University Adaptive Technology Center in Bloomington, Indiana, where they were converted to text; transcript editing for accuracy was done at IUPUI.

created to address many of the most common lecture comprehension demands faced by the LL.M students.

In Chapter Two, I will review the necessary literature which will provide a foundation of relevant, insightful research and background information which will aid me in creating the model for effective lessons relating lecture comprehension. Chapter Three will describe the foundation for creating this model whereby I incorporate the findings of the literature, examination of the current ESL program listening skill curriculum, advice from the ESL program administrators and instructors, and personal observations in selecting the most crucial linguistic components and lecture features to be addressed within this model for creating lecture comprehension lessons. Chapter Four will present a model of how I propose lecture comprehension lessons based on the video-taped lectures be developed. Chapter Five will feature my final conclusion, along with recommendations for future applications of the model. A sample lesson created from the lecture comprehension model will appear in the appendices.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

My thesis focuses on addressing the lecture comprehension needs of the non-native English speaking students enrolled in the LL.M. Program at the Indiana University School of Law at Indianapolis. As such, it is important first to present a few established theories on the nature of learning, in general, and an overview of listening comprehension research as it relates to second language acquisition. This includes presenting the prominent theories for teaching L2 listening skills, as well as outlining the general difficulties which complicate listening comprehension for non-native English speakers. Additionally, it is necessary to review the literature that addresses the listening demands made on non-native speakers in academic settings and, more specifically, in the monologic setting of academic lectures.

In addition to reviewing the listening demands presented by academic lectures, the review will also cover studies which look at the unique structure of academic lectures and the benefits to comprehension which accompany student understanding of this structure. It is also crucial that the literature which examines the role of authentic materials in L2 instruction be discussed, as well as current issues and studies relating to the teaching of listening strategies. Finally, this review will cover the literature which discusses practical, effective lesson creation incorporating video-taped lectures.

Theories of Learning

In relation to a general understanding of the learning process, there are two prominent theories which are deemed wholly relevant to an understanding of second language acquisition: Vygotsky's (1978) "Zone of Proximal Development" theory and

Krashen's (1985) "Input Hypothesis." First, Vygotsky (1978) describes the "Zone of Proximal Development" (ZPD) as:

> . . . the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers. (p. 86)

Thus, he explains that learning is able to take place in the "zone" in which one receives the competent guidance of a more experienced "teacher" until such time that the learner internalizes the new knowledge or ability and is able to perform it independently. Also related, Vygotsky (1978) describes *scaffolding* as the process whereby the more capable individual provides support and opportunities for the learner to practice mastering a skill/concept until such time that the learner can proceed independently. As such, both ZPD and *scaffolding* support the concept that cognitive development is dependent upon social interaction.

Krashen (1985) focuses on Vygotsky's model with his own theory on *how* learners acquire another language. His "Input Hypothesis" is often represented by the equation ($i+1$). According to this theory, learners acquire language under the "condition" of being exposed to language input which is "a little beyond" the learner's present ability (p. 21). Thus, *i* represents the stage of one's present linguistic ability and "$i+1$" represents the acquisition that takes place when the learner receives input one stage beyond his/her present linguistic ability. The "Zone of Proximal Development" and "Input Hypothesis" theories are similar in that they focus on the *process* instead of the end product. These theories point to the necessity for second language learners to have access to consistent authentic input in conjunction with appropriate support in order to improve their listening comprehension capabilities.

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Second Language Acquisition Studies Related to Listening Comprehension

Early second language acquisition (SLA) research on listening comprehension drew heavily from general language acquisition studies which focused on the cognitive processes that occur during listening. Richards (1983) indicates that this knowledge is, likewise, applicable to understanding the "discourse processing" in second language listening comprehension (p. 220). As he describes it, there are three levels of discourse processing which take place before a listener reaches the point of comprehension: (1) propositional identification, with proposition being "the basic units of meaning involved in comprehension" (p. 220); (2) interpretation of elocutionary force; and (3) activation of real world knowledge. For propositional identification, the listener utilizes his knowledge of the syntax of the target language in able to "chunk" discourse input into manageable linguistic units for comprehension; this requires a basic understanding of the grammatical devices which organize the language. The second level of discourse processing presented by Richards, "interpretation of elocutionary force," requires that the listener draw upon previous knowledge in all areas relating to the utterance before coming to a final determination of the intended meaning presented by the speaker. The third level, "activation of real world knowledge," requires the listener to utilize real world knowledge and personal experience in recognizing "plausible reconstruction of likely events" (p. 220).

Expanding on this explanation of how listeners process discourse, Richards (1983) formulates his own model of the step-by-step process by which listening comprehension occurs:

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1) The type of international act or speech event in which the listener is involved is determined: (e.g., conversation, lecture, discussion, debate, etc.).

2) Scripts relevant to the particular situation are recalled: (e.g., past similar experiences or knowledge from which the listener can draw upon for reference).

3) The goals of the speaker are inferred through the reference to the situation, the script and the sequential position of the utterance: (e.g., listener utilizes a variety of cues in narrowing down the communication objectives of the speaker).

4) The propositional meaning of the utterance is determined: (e.g., listener incorporates grammatical knowledge in interpreting speaker's meaning).

5) An illocutionary meaning is assigned to the message.

6) This information is retained and acted upon, and the form in which it was originally received is deleted (p. 223): (e.g., listener does not require retention of precise form of utterance in order to retain the meaning of the utterance).

A look at the complex cognitive process which listeners undergo to reach comprehension should dispel any illusions that listening is a passive activity (Vandergrift, 1999). Again, according to Krashen's (1985) *Input Hypothesis,* when a listener receives consistent *comprehensible input* (just beyond present ability) *and* makes a concerted effort towards retention s/he is able to gradually transfer this input into *intake*: linguistic skills which s/he can ultimately utilize her/himself. Here the learner's efforts - or attention to the *input* - is what facilitates the mental processes which allow this conversion from *input* to *intake* to occur (in Brown, 2001).

It is no wonder that listening has played a dominant role in several early L2 teaching methodologies, some of which have even stressed the importance of postponing speech until later in the learning process. For example, one methodology to emerge in the late 1970's, which continues to be popular, is Total Physical Response (TPR)

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developed by James Asher (1977). With the TPR approach, beginning students are required only to listen to a variety of commands in the L2 and, in time, their correct response to the commands indicate comprehension. Oral responses come later in the instruction. The strategy behind this method is to somewhat simulate the conditions whereby the learner acquired his/her L1 ability: (1) as one who initially received commands/instructions (use of the imperative, such as "come here") from someone already skilled in the L1; (2) who internalized the meaning of the commands/instructions in conjunction with the physical activity; and, in time, (3) was able to use the language to express themselves (Asher, 2003). Similarly, Brown (2001) describes the Natural Approach of L2 learning in which learners initially are encouraged to remain silent and listen as the new language is introduced; the learner begins speaking in the L2 when s/he feels comfortable in trying.

Modes of Input Processing

Brown (2001) also identifies the two primary modes of input processing which facilitate comprehension: *top-down and bottom-down* processing. Bottom-up processing relates to the way a learner uses his/her understanding of the L2 vocabulary, sounds and grammar structure in comprehending what s/he's heard. Nunan, (1999) describes one view of the bottom-up process as more of a "linear process" in which the listener is actively decoding each unit of meaning presented (from phonemes to utterances) until s/he arrives at a meaning, or comprehension, "in the last step of the process" (p. 200).

With top-down listening skills a listener draws upon past experience and knowledge in building a more general understanding of what s/he has heard. The literature shows that more advanced L2 listeners rely on both top-down, bottom-up

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listening processes, while beginning L2 learners initially rely more on bottom-up skills to arrive at meaning. In his study of Chinese students attending American universities, Huang (2005) describes one of the students' major difficulties with academic listening as their over-reliance on bottom-up listening techniques. He goes on to explain that many Chinese students have developed the habit of focusing more on internally translating individual words instead of listening for and identifying the main points of a lecture.

Expanding on top-down processing, Richards (1983) explains the role of *schemata* in facilitating listening comprehension. "Script or schema knowledge is what we know about particular situations, and the goals, participants, and procedures which are commonly associated with them. Much of our knowledge of the world is organized around scripts, that is, memory for typical episodes that occur in specific situations" (p. 223). He also points out that difficulties in comprehension can arise for non-native speakers simply because they may possess culturally different scripts from speakers in the target language. Nunan (1999) reinforces the crucial role schemata plays in general life experiences, "these mental frameworks (schemata) are critically important in helping us to predict and then cope with the exigencies of everyday life" (p. 202). As such, schemata processing in the context of second language learning also allows students to make predictions about the topic in which they are listening, thus aiding in comprehension.

Barriers to L2 Listening Comprehension

As indicated by the literature (Richards, 1983; Brown, 2001; and Flowerdew, 1994) the overall factors which can inhibit or impair non-native English speaking

students' ability to fully comprehend academic lectures in English can be organized into three primary areas:

1) learner deficiency in skills related to general L2 listening comprehension;
2) difficulties posed by the unique demands and features of academic lectures;
3) learner's lack of awareness of lecture organization.

For beginner L2 listeners, particularly those who have learned the L2 as a foreign language with a non-native speaking instructor, the difficulties they encounter in comprehending the speech of native speakers can be overwhelming. Some of the primary obstacles to general L2 listening comprehension which novice L2 listeners may encounter are listed by Brown (2001) as:

* Inability to recognize reduced forms
* Performance variables by the speaker (ungrammatical forms, partial sentences)
* Speaker's use of colloquial language (i.e., slang, idioms, phrasal verbs, schema)
* Inexperience with native English speakers' natural stress, rhythm and intonation
* Rate of the speaker's speech delivery
* Lack of interaction skills (i.e., negotiate meanings during conversation)
* Lack of practice in recognizing word clusters (i.e., lexical bundles, collocations)
* Inability to separate new information from redundancies

(p. 252)

As this list indicates, obstacles to comprehension can occur from both the speaker's performance (i.e., "rate of speech" and "use of colloquial language" etc.) and the listener's inexperience with the native language. Huang (2005), for example, emphasizes that many of his research subjects encountered difficulties with academic lectures simply by their lack of experience with English as it is spoken by native speakers. Such is the case for many international learners who attend American or other native English speaking universities who have had very little exposure to native speakers

prior to attending classes. Many students attending the Indiana University School of Law at Indianapolis LL.M. Program have, likewise, undergone the experience of having to attend classes immediately - within a few days to a week - upon arriving in the United States and having had very little prior exposure to native English speakers.

Comprehension Demands of Academic Listening

While inexperience with native speakers' speech affects a learner's listening abilities in and out of the classroom, the literature shows that the structure and demands of academic lectures pose even more comprehension obstacles for learners. Dudley-Evans and Johns (1981) have identified three general types of academic lectures which include: a reading style, a conversational style and a rhetorical style (in Chadron and Richards, 1986). As indicated by DeCarrico and Nattinger (1988), the most pervasive lecture style used in U.S. colleges and universities is the conversational style. Similarly, law lectures have shown to be primarily of a conversational style. Regardless of the lecture style, as Richards (1983) notes, there are simply different listening skill requirements when listening to academic lectures than those needed for interactive discourse or conversation.

Flowerdew (1994) goes on to describe that lecture listening differentiates from regular conversation not only in the type of skills necessary for comprehension, but also in the degree of concentration required of the listener. As outlined in the following chart, the lecture listener's understanding of the background knowledge, or schema, relating to the current lecture plays a vital role in his/her comprehension. Additionally, s/he must possess an awareness of which segments of the lecture are less relevant to the overall understanding of the lecture content. This allows the student a bit of a break in the

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intense concentration s/he must exert for comprehending more complex material. Also unlike conversational listening, interaction between lecturer and student listener normally occurs only during the question and answer period portion of the lecture.[6] The conversational format of taking turns to speak, by default, creates the opportunity for a listener to negotiate meaning or use of other facilitation functions to establish meaning; the opportunity for this type of interaction is limited during the academic lecture.

	Conversational Listening	**Academic Listening**
Degree Of Concentration	* background knowledge more general * lesser need to discern relevant/less relevant points * turn-taking essential * interpersonal/illocutionary meaning more important	* background knowledge of specialist subject matter * greater need to discern relevant/less relevant points * turn-taking occurs only for question and answer format * emphasis on information to be conveyed
Skills	* interaction allows for facilitating functions such as repetition, negotiating meaning & repair strategies * notetaking not essential to comprehension process	* concentrate on and understand long stretches of speech without facilitating functions * notetaking important skill in lecture comprehension process * must be able to integrate incoming message with information derived from other media (such as video, PowerPoint presentations, slides, etc.

(adapted from Flowerdew, 1994, pp. 11-12)

Even students who have good, overall listening comprehension abilities in the L2 may yet find the intensity of concentration required for a long lecture period initially quite taxing. Learners who have had extensive exposure to academic speech in their L1

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[6] Naturally, all fields of study possess their own unique lecture structure in which the amount of time spent in lecturer and student interaction may vary. For law studies, the Socratic Method, described in the third chapter of this paper is an intrinsic part of the lecture process and provides additional time for lecturer and students to discuss the lecture content.

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may also be surprised at how strenuous their lectures can be, when they begin studying in an English language university setting.

In addition to the overall cognitive demands academic lectures pose for students, the informal register found in typical monologic lectures can further complicate comprehension for the non-native English speaker. Flowerdew and Miller (1997) point out that the conversational style of academic lectures "can be attributed to the real time-processing constraints of presenting a spoken monologue" (p. 34). In other words, as lecturers mentally formulate what they wish to say, *while* they are in the process of saying it, their language is, understandably, not likely to reflect grammatically concise sentences (Flowerdew and Miller, 1997). Thus, academic lectures are typically presented replete with language filler devices, such as hedging, false starts, pauses and repetitions, similar to those found in conversation.

Reppen (2004) warns that the similarity between academic lectures and everyday conversation, as indicated by corpus studies, can distract students from recognizing the key points of the content conveyed during the lecture and, thus, interfere with comprehension. Similarly, Anderson-Mejias (1986) describes some personal observations in which she witnessed that many non-native speakers would continue taking notes during a lecture even when the lecturer was discussing a personal anecdote wholly unrelated to the lecture. Therefore, developing the skills to discern between the relevant and non-relevant speech s/he will encounter during academic lectures is crucial for the L2 listener.

Academic Lecture Organization

In addition to the general listening obstacles related to inexperience with the L2, and the distinct type of listening demands poised by academic lectures, a third type of lecture comprehension challenge is related to students' lack of awareness of lecture organization. Studies confirm that non-native listeners frequently are unable to identify "signals and markers of organization of information within lectures" (Chaudron and Richards, 1986, p. 115). These *discourse markers* are words or phrases used by the lecturer which signal a change in the course of the lecture and "reflect relationships between prior and coming discourse" (Biber, et al., 2004, p. 384).

Chaudron and Richards further explain how knowledge of discourse markers in the form of lexical phrases (as referred to as *lexical bundles, formulaic phrases* and *discourse organizers*) help facilitate lecture comprehension. *Macromarkers* are lexical phrases which signal that information is forthcoming (i.e., "to begin with"; "let's look at"; "now, let's take another look at") and, as they explain, help L2 listeners with top-down processing by "initiating expectations and predictions about the lecture" (p. 116). *Micromarkers* serve as fillers or pauses (i.e., "as you know"; "in fact"; "at that time") allowing the speaker some added time before presenting additional information; this allows L2 listeners extra time in their bottom-up processing. Alternatively, DeCarrico and Nattinger (1988) use the term "macro-organizers" (p. 94) to emphasize that the function of *macro-* and *micromarkers* is to alert listeners to the lecture's organization.

Simpson (2004) notes that *formulaic expressions* (or, lexical phrases that serve as discourse markers) are found throughout numerous types of discourse, but "expressions falling into the discourse organizing functions represent the largest number of formulaic

expressions in academic speech . . ." (p. 51). The research of Biber, et al., (2004) supports Simpson's finding that classroom/lecture discourse makes frequent use of lexical bundles (or lexical phrases): "classroom teaching far exceeds conversation in the number of different lexical bundles" (p. 379). DeCarrico and Nattinger (1988) go on to describe eight specific functions in which lexical phrases serve as lecture macromarkers or macro-organizers:

<u>Global Macro-organizers</u>

(Overall Organization of the Lecture)

1. Topic Markers: The first thing is . .; We'll be looking at . .;
2. Topic Shifters: On to . .; Back to . .; Let's turn to. .
3. Summarizers: To tie this up; What I'm saying is; So, what we've got is

<u>Local Macro-organizers</u>

(Function to Highlight Information. Within the Framework of Global Macro-organizers)

4. Exemplifiers: If you've seen . .., then you know; One way is . . ;
5. Relaters: So, again . .; But look at . .; This ties in with . .
6. Evaluators: Look how important . .; X might not work
7. Qualifiers: The catch here is . .; That's true, but . .; It doesn't mean that
8. Aside Markers: Where was I?; I guess I got off track here

(1988, pp. 95-96)

What shows to be consistent throughout the literature is support for the pedagogical treatment of frequently appearing macromarkers found in academic lectures (Chaudron and Richards, 1986; DeCarrico and Nattinger, 1988; Wray, A., 2000; Biber, Conrad, and Cortes, 2004; and Simpson, 2004). In addition, DeCarrico and Nattinger's research validates that lecture comprehension improvement can be achieved by L2 students once they are presented with information regarding lecture macro-markers (1988). Therefore, it is indicated that a vital portion of teaching L2 lecture

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comprehension strategies includes building awareness of lecture organization and discourse signals which indicate the course of the lecture and guide the student through the presentation of the content.

Listening Comprehension Strategies

The literature shows that listening comprehension generally improves over time, simply by the learner's increased exposure to authentic input – i.e., listening to how native speakers really speak. In addition to regular exposure to the L2, the literature (Richards, 1983; Brown, 2001; Flowerdew, 1994; and Thompson and Rubin, 1996) demonstrates a direct correlation between an L2 learner's regular use of various listening strategies and improved listening skills. While the terms "listening skills" and "listening strategies" are sometimes used interchangeably, they actually encompass very different abilities possessed by the L2 learner. Rost (2005) points out that listening strategies are "under learners' conscious control, and listeners can be taught to compensate for incomplete understanding, missed linguistic or schematic input, or misidentified clues" (in Hinkel, 2006). Vandergrift makes the argument that learning listening comprehension strategies is crucial for even advanced L2 learners because as speakers they have more control over the pace of their communication, whereas in listening, they are required to make continuous adjustments to comprehend the message of the speaker (1996).

A review of the literature concerning listening comprehension strategy begins by defining the differences between cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies in that current L2 pedagogy advocates teaching both kinds of strategies along with general L2 listening skills. Cognitive strategies are "behaviors, techniques, or actions used by learners to facilitate acquisition of knowledge or a skill" (in Thompson and Rubin, 1996,

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p. 331). Thompson and Rubin go on to list such cognitive strategies to include "elaborating, inferencing, predicting, listening to the known (cognates, transfer, grammar), and visualization (when the input is auditory only)" (1996, p. 332). They also note that "these strategies arise as responses to specific processing problems that learners encounter" (Thompson and Rubin, 1996, p. 331).

Metacognitive strategies are described by Rubin (1990) as "management techniques in which learners control their learning process via planning, monitoring, evaluating, and modifying their learning approaches" (in Thompson and Rubin, p. 332). Learners utilize metacognitive strategies by self-implementation of effective and flexible use of cognitive strategies and regular self-monitoring of the continued effectiveness of strategies (Thompson and Rubin, 1996). Again, the literature strongly supports cognitive and metacognitive strategies to be taught in unison:

> Metagcognitive strategies are important because they oversee, regulate, or direct the language learning process. These strategies, which involve thinking about the learning process, include planning monitoring and evaluating. However, without the deployment of appropriate cognitive strategies, the potential of these metacognitive strategies is curtailed. Cognitive strategies manipulate the material to be learnt or apply a specific technique to the learning task.
>
> (Vandergrift, 1999, p. 170)

Overall, the literature suggests that students who are effective L2 learners tend to be more aware that they are engaging in "tricks" (p. 6) or specific methods they have created to cope with L2 learning challenges even if they have not been specifically taught about L2 learning strategies (Chamot and O'Malley, 1994). Also, studies conducted by O'Malley, Chamot, and Küpper (1989) looked at groups of high school students to examine the overall use of learning strategies by L2 learners and found that the most effective use of L2 learning strategies developed when students were presented with a

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wide array of strategies which they could apply and adapt as needed to specific tasks (in Chamot and O'Malley, 1994). The studies also demonstrated that the more effective L2 learners incorporated more learning strategies into their L2 learning than less effective students, thus further supporting that for improved student success in L2, listening strategies need to be taught in conjunction with listening comprehension skills.

Academic Listening for Specific Areas of Study

The literature points to the effectiveness of addressing general linguistic and structural features of academic lectures, as well as promoting student awareness of listening comprehension strategies, for a comprehensive approach in helping students improve their lecture comprehension. However, another important consideration in teaching lecture comprehension skills is for the instructor to have a clear understanding of the lecture structure, discourse patterns and other linguistic variations unique to that particular discipline of study. Dudley-Evan's (1995) study points out that a too general approach in teaching listening strategies for academic lectures "may not be sufficient to prepare students for the listening comprehension tasks required on a lecture-based . . . course" (p. 157).

Addressing Law Lecture Structure

In the case of law studies, the literature supports that this genre presents a particularly complex course for students who must not only "acquire (a) new lexis, but also new concepts and new ways of thinking" (Howe, 1990, p. 215). This points to the necessity for an effective lecture listening comprehension series to address not only general comprehension obstacles, but also to address specific linguistic and structural features unique to law lectures. Bell (1999) describes that background knowledge of the

lecture structure is essential for the ESL instructor because "it (1) enables the trainer to identify likely sources of difficulty for students and, (2) anticipates problems in understanding key words and concepts, frequently used formulae and cause and effect relationships" (p.14). Beck (2004) provides an example of preparing LL.M. students for the particular demands of the law lecture by introducing them to the Socratic method of law instruction, a common feature of civil law classrooms, in which the student reaches his/her understanding of an issue only after answering a series of questions posed by the instructor.

Addressing Unique Linguistic Features of Law Lectures

In addition to the unique structural features of law lectures, other distinct discourse forms and patterns have also been indicated by corpus linguistics, such as with the use of collocations specific to the genre of law. Collocations are defined as:

> associations between lexical words, so that the words co-occur more frequently than expected by chance . . . unlike idioms, collocations are statistical associations rather than relatively fixed expressions. . . Individual words in a collocation retain their own meaning . . . however, part of the extended meaning of a word is the fact that it tends to co-occur with a specific set of collocates.
>
> (Biber, et al., 1999, p. 988)

While certain collocations occur regularly throughout academic lectures, and, naturally in daily conversation, a direct focus on frequently appearing collocations related to the study and practice of law help students listen more effectively and more quickly recognize patterns of communication in that genre. Northcott, et al., (2006) discuss using a video corpus in teaching collocations, or "chunked legal phrases," as a crucial part of the training for legal translators (p. 365).

Bhatia, et al., (2004) present one corpus-based study of law cases which, in part, examines collocations based on four specific verbs (*submit, grant, reject and dismiss*) that signal moves or actions taken by members of the court. According to the study, these verbs appear consistently with particular nouns throughout the cases and demonstrate a definitive preference of verb-noun combination depending upon the context or form in which they are used. As one example, they note a specific pattern for the word *submit* to form collocations such as "submit plans, submit a written submission, submit lists, submit evidence, submit a report, etc." whereby *submit* was found to be "common in case descriptions and presentations of the argument by counsel" such as 'counsel for the plaintiff/defendant submitted that . . .' and rarely was *submit* used in reference to a direct action taken by the plaintiff/defendant, such as in 'the plaintiff/defendant submitted that . . .' (p. 213).

Idiomatic phrases represent another type of linguistic feature which instructors should familiarize their students with, because of the frequency in which these expressions appear in the English language. Along with those idioms which appear regularly in general conversation and prose, it is crucial that L2 learners likewise be made aware of idioms which frequently appear in relation to specific law content and are apt to be presented during law lectures. Idioms are defined as "expressions with a meaning not entirely derivable from the meaning of their parts . . . (and) can represent many different kinds of structural units" (Biber, et al., 1999, p. 1024). Some of these types of structural units that act as idioms include:

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<u>Wh-questions</u>:	*how do you do?; what in the world . . .?; what's up?*
<u>Noun Phrase Idioms</u>:	*a piece of cake; a slap in the face*
<u>Prepositional Phrase Idioms</u>:	*not on your life; for the time being; in a nutshell*

<u>Selected Verb + Prepositional Phrase Idioms</u>:

        bear in mind; fall in love; take into account;
        come as a surprise; beat around the bush

<u>Selected Verb + Noun Phrase Idioms</u>:

        change one's mind; give me a break; hold water
        stand a chance, keep an eye on . . .; drive me . . .

(Corpus studies show a significant number of verb + noun phrase combinations to have been formed out of the verbs, *have, take* and *make*.)

        (Biber, et al., 1999, pp. 1024-1026)

The current instructor teaching the LL.M. ESL course has already been incorporating the study of law-specific idioms and collocations into the current curriculum and has designed lessons which utilize the video-taped law lectures and transcripts in the instruction of these linguistic features. The instructor relates her experience of having had an LL.M. student once question her concerning the meaning of the phrase, *shark repellent*. In looking into the meaning of *shark repellent* (i.e., amendment to company charter intended to protect it against takeover), she discovered the area of Mergers and Acquisitions to be particularly rich in terms and idioms wholly unique to that field of law. This realization drove home the importance of incorporating idioms and legal collocations into her LL.M. ESL instruction.[7]

Materials for English for Academic Legal Purposes

In one recent study (Deutch, 2003) centered on academic legal courses in Israel, both law lecturers and practicing attorneys gauged that English listening skills were the

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[7] M. C. Beck (personal communication, 2006)

second most important of the four language skills for law students; the most important skill listed was reading, used primarily for research. Nevertheless, to date, the bulk of the literature relating specifically to English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and legal studies focuses on preparing the student for the demands of legal writing (Howe, 1990; Bhatia, 1989; Bhatia, Langton, and Lung, 2004). Likewise, commercially produced English for Academic Legal Purposes (EALP) teaching materials are weighted towards legal writing instruction. While some EALP texts, such as *American Legal English* (Lee, Hall, and Hurley, 1999), do acknowledge the importance of listening practice and include CD's for listening exercises that replicate attorney/client conversations, legal case descriptions and legal proceedings, these scripted exercises invariably are not geared towards duplicating the lecture environment law students will encounter while still in school.

This sparseness of adequate materials which target law lecture comprehension needs represents a challenge for the EALP instructor. As such, many EALP instructors must also design their own instructional materials in order to support self-designed lessons related to improving lecture comprehension skills. As a generally complex task, the unique challenges for ESP instructors in creating materials and lessons meant to support legal studies is confirmed by Bhatia (1989):

> Of all the specialist disciplines that an ESP practitioner may be called
> upon to design and teach language support courses for, perhaps in none of
> them the need to integrate the specialist content and the language used to
> communicate it is greater than in law.
>
> (p. 223)

Bhatia (1989), likewise, warns against haphazardly creating EALP lessons and materials which are "based on (the) pedagogical convenience of the designers or the teachers involved rather than on any principle of pedagogical effectiveness (p. 225). This

point emphasizes the instructor's responsibility in creating lessons and materials which are the most pedagogically sound and relative to his/her L2 students.

General ESL Material Design

While texts are considered the primary materials of language learning, Tomlinson (1998) describes *materials* as "anything which is used by teachers or learners to facilitate the learning of a language . . . (and) deliberately used to increase the learners' knowledge and/or experience of the language" (p. 2). In designing materials for ESL lessons, Tomlinson (1998) goes on to stress that it should be done "in principled ways related to what they (instructors) know about how languages can be effectively learned" (p. 2). His point emphasizes the necessity that good instructors take a disciplined approach in producing materials which are supported by both second language acquisition research and current L2 teaching methodology.

Jolly and Bolitha (1998) outline the essential steps instructors must take in order to ensure that the materials they create actually support the lesson content:

1. Identification by teacher or learner(s) of a need to fulfill, or a problem to solve by the creation of materials.

2. Exploration of the area of need/problem in terms of what language, what meanings, what functions, what skills, etc.

3. Contextual Realization of the proposed new materials by the finding of suitable ideas, contexts or texts with which to work.

4. Pedagogical Realization of materials by the finding of appropriate exercises and activities and the writing of appropriate instructions for use.

5. Physical Production of materials involving consideration of layout, type size, visuals, reproduction, tape length, etc.

                                                                                          (p. 97)

Besides the procedural considerations of designing materials, effective materials serve several functions in the language learning process: they support the students' reception of the materials, and the goals of the lesson and language learning skills beyond the scope of the lesson. According to Tomlinson (1998), in order to develop materials which are strongly rooted in effective language teaching practices, designers should incorporate the following objectives into the creation of their materials.

Materials should:

* achieve impact
* help learners to feel at ease
* help learners to develop confidence
* require and facilitate learner self-investment
* expose the learners to language in authentic use
* provide the learners with opportunities to used the target language to achieve communicative purposes
* take into account that the positive effects of instruction are usually delayed
* take into account that learners differ in learning styles
* take into account that learners differ in affective attitudes
* permit silent period at the beginning of instruction
* maximize learning potential by encouraging intellectual, aesthetic & emotional involvement which stimulates both right and left brain activities
* not rely too much on controlled practice
* provide opportunities for outcome feedback

Additionally:

* learners must be ready to acquire the points being taught

* what is being taught should be perceived by learners as relevant & useful.

(pp. 7-21)

Videos and Transcripts as Authentic Materials

Present day learning *materials* extend far beyond the limited range of print items and frequently incorporate multi-media technology, including the use of video tapes as a basis for classroom instruction. Video tapes of real-life events or those which come directly from a medium such as television news programming or documentaries are some examples of video as authentic materials.

Authentic materials can be defined as materials which come from a real-world situation and were not created specifically for the sake of language instruction. MacDonald, et al., (2000) describe authentic materials as offering the "pedagogical value to there being as close a match as possible between the language and social context of the input which learners receive in the classroom and the language and social context of everyday life" (pp. 253-254). According to Hirsch (1987), authentic materials offer the most effective means of conveying the content of a lesson because "all cognitive skills depend on procedural and substantive schemata that are highly specific to the task at hand" (p. 60, in Bhatia, 1989).

The importance of including authentic materials for successful L2 instruction is stressed throughout the literature (Nunan, 1997, 1999; Flowerdew and Miller, 1997; and MacDonald, Badger, and White, 2000). One such study of adult immigrant students in Australia consisted of two groups of students who went through identical English language instructional programs with the exception that the experimental group received instruction using only authentic materials, while the control group utilized non-authentic materials. The outcome noted improvement in both groups but those within the experimental group using authentic materials outperformed those in the control group

(Nunan, 1987). As Nunan (1999) describes, "authentic material helps bring the content to life, and ultimately makes learning and using language more meaningful, and, ultimately . . . easier for students" (p. 212).

Flowerdew and Miller (1997) point out that one benefit of using video-taped lectures is that they also contain extra linguistic features communicated via the lecturer's body movements and facial expressions which provide important cues to listeners in the comprehension of lectures (p. 34). They also describe added interpersonal strategies lecturers use (oftentimes unconsciously) which students can learn to recognize and separate from lecture content as they listen. One such interpersonal strategy used by lecturers is to try and make the lecture less threatening by *empathizing with students*; an example of this includes the use of rhetorical questions and use of the pronoun *we* to establish personal connections between lecturer and students (i.e., "What would happen if *we* were to . . .?"). Additionally, Flowerdew and Miller (1997) point out that instructors will at times use *personalization* in their lectures by referencing themselves and pointing out commonalities they have with the students: "you may have been brought up . . . like I was . . ." (p. 36). The final type of interpersonal strategy discussed by Flowerdew and Miller is *checking*, which involves keeping "in touch with his audience through the use of agreement markers, such as okay?, yeah?, and got that?" (1986, p. 36). Video provides valuable exposure to the "messiness" of real life lectures where students will eventually encounter speaker use of such interpersonal strategies and other micromarkers embedded throughout the lecture (Flowerdew and Miller, 1997, p. 44).

Complementing the advantages of using video-taped lectures in the language classroom, instructors can also incorporate video transcripts into lessons to help students

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identify discourse patterns and patterns of lecture organization and practice making predictions about where the lecture is headed. Lebauer (1984) sees transcript use as an overall confidence builder for students struggling with their comprehension skills: "students often come out of a discussion based on the transcripts with the knowledge that listening is a logical process and that the skills involved are within their reach" (p. 48). She proposes that an instructor can maximize the benefits of transcript review by incorporating the following goals within the lesson:

1. Have students look at what goes on in lectures;
2. Encourage students to start thinking about what they must do in order to listen successfully;
3. Help students become comfortable with ambiguity and guessing;
4. Help students use this ambiguity to make and refine hypotheses during lectures;
5. Allow students to see how a native speaker interprets lectures.

(p. 46)

A final benefit of using videos and transcripts in creating lecture comprehension lessons is that they also support a communicative approach to language learning. A single five-minute excerpt from a lecture video and its corresponding transcript can be the basis for numerous exercises which target multiple features of lectures. Exploring lecture structure and language in pairs, groups or as a whole class creates numerous opportunities for students to practice writing, reading and speaking, in addition to listening.

Conclusion

Lecture comprehension has been shown to be an obstacle to learning and a source of apprehension for non-native speakers attending English-speaking universities. In addition to increased exposure to native English speakers, the literature strongly supports

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that L2 students can improve lecture comprehension through direct training about lecture structure, discourse markers, and other linguistic features unique to lectures. The literature, likewise, supports that lecture comprehension instruction is further enhanced when the instructor focuses on the linguistic and structural features specific to lectures in the students' particular field of study. The inclusion of listening strategies in these lessons has additionally been shown to be helpful for students in improving their lecture comprehension. A final factor to consider in the creation of lecture comprehension lessons, is that incorporating authentic materials with lessons increases student improvement in listening comprehension over the use of non-authentic materials.

Gap

Currently, there does not appear to be any commercially produced materials related to the direct instruction of law lecture comprehension. Therefore, it is up to the EALP instructor to design materials which support law lecture comprehension lessons in a pedagogically proven manner. While the current LL.M. ESL program curriculum has emphasized teaching general listening skills and lecture comprehension skills and strategies and utilized an array of video-taped materials in support of these lessons, it's only been in the last year that the authentic materials of video-taped law lectures of Indiana University School of Law at Indianapolis law instructors have been available for use as teaching materials. Although some lessons have already been developed using these video tapes, their full potential as authentic materials to aid lecture comprehension has barely begun.

Goal

As indicated by instructors of the ESL program for LL.M. students and my own - albeit limited - experience as an ESL instructor, intensive lecture listening training early in the Program will vastly benefit students in being better prepared for their law lectures. A secondary benefit of such training would be to help lessen student anxiety. It is therefore my goal to create a model of how video-taped law lectures can be used in designing individual lessons which will, in general, incorporate current EAP practices and standards in aiding the LL.M. students to improve their lecture listening comprehension skills. More specifically, my model will show how within each lesson the video-taped law lectures can be used to target either a particular linguistic form or lecture construct feature for which studies have shown to be problematic in L2 lecture comprehension. Moreover, this model will further demonstrate how these lessons should address lecture organization specific to the study of law, as well as show how general lecture listening strategies can be presented as an integral part of every lesson.

As such, the model will present a sequential format to incorporate portions of the law lecture video tapes and corresponding portions of the transcripts, along with supplemental supportive materials, as needed. While use of the law lecture materials will serve as the foundation for each lesson, it is suggested that lessons be prepared to represent an array of presentation approaches in order to avoid repetitive lesson formats and maintain student interest.

CHAPTER THREE: FOUNDATION FOR A MODEL
FOR LECTURE COMPREHENSION LESSONS

Several sources will be utilized in determining the most critical linguistic components to be included in the design of the model for lecture comprehension lessons. I will begin by reviewing how the current ESL program for LL.M. students curriculum addresses those features of language and lecture structure which have been shown to be challenging to L2 learners. Additionally, I will look at the role video-taped materials have already played in supporting listening comprehension lessons in the program. Another critical area to examine is how the ESL program curriculum has thus far approached instruction for language issues related specifically to the genre of law lectures. And, finally I will also review how the instruction of listening strategies is incorporated into the curriculum and how the curriculum supports learner autonomy for improving listening skills outside of the ESL classroom.

Additionally, I will rely on the previous research outlined in the Literature Review as a guide for identifying prominent linguistic features and lecture organizational patterns which should be addressed for improving both general L2 listening and lecture comprehension. The video-taped lecture segments selected for lecture comprehension lessons will be based on what important discourse and lecture features are contained within the segment which have been identified by the literature as vital to review. Although, the transcripts have not yet been incorporated into a corpus that would allow a detailed analysis for any particular linguistic features, for the purpose of this project, careful examination of the transcripts and video tapes are sufficient to identify key linguistic features for consideration in the selection of appropriate lesson topics.

One crucial resource for determining the focus of individual lecture comprehension lessons will be the needs-related communications from the L2 students during current program sessions. This information comes in several forms: casual conversation between staff and students, requests of help from students and student journal entries. While these communications are of an anecdotal nature and do not represent a formal needs analysis, they are useful in identifying issues related to lecture comprehension which should be addressed when planning lessons for a particular class.

And finally, input from experienced LL.M. ESL instructors will be a vital component in the final construct of the lesson-planning model. Although the model cannot be inclusive in addressing all issues related to improving lecture comprehension, careful review of the current LL.M. ESL program curriculum, current research, the law lecture video tapes and transcripts and, finally, input from ESL program staff and student communications all serve to narrow the vast scope of potential lesson topics.

Current LL.M. ESL Instruction Targeting Listening Skills & Strategies

The current curriculum for the ESL program for LL.M. students is already rich in lessons designed to help the L2 students improve their general listening and lecture comprehension skills. Several core components guide the instructional choices made throughout the program, and serve as a foundation for the specific listening-related curriculum. Use of a communicative approach is one crucial component of the program. Because the LL.M. ESL courses utilize a communicative approach throughout the curriculum, lessons created with the primary objective of helping students improve their listening skills routinely include exercise components which also engage students in speaking, reading, and writing activities.

Another important component of the LL.M. ESL listening comprehension lessons is the instruction of both bottom-up and top-down techniques. While bottom-up skills are associated with early L2 instruction, Brown (2001), nevertheless advises that bottom-up skills are essential to address at all levels of student proficiency. The inclusion of bottom-up skills are particularly important for the LL.M. students who have had limited contact with native English speakers prior to attending the law school. Although considered advanced English learners, many of these students simply have not had sufficient practice listening to native speakers and, as a result, their microskills (i.e., recognizing reduced forms or distinguishing word boundaries, etc.), may not be sufficiently developed for the task of concentrated listening for long periods of time.

Likewise, instruction in the overall development of top-down skills has been a key component of each LL.M. ESL listening lesson. This helps students to approach law class work with an understanding of how class preparation, textbooks and course materials aid in the successful comprehension of lesson content by building a schematic resource. Students are, additionally, made aware of discourse and organizational features of law lectures, that enable them to follow the course of their lectures' content.

One final component which rounds out the ESL program's ability to provide a comprehensive, research-supported curriculum to the LL.M. students is the emphasis on L2 learning strategies. By introducing effective listening and lecture comprehension strategies, and encouraging students to develop and share their own strategies with fellow classmates, the ESL program for LL.M. students promotes learner autonomy and aids students in developing confidence in their L2 and law classes.

Use of Video in the ESL Program for LL.M. Students

Even before video taping the law lectures, a variety of video presentations had already been incorporated into the program's listening comprehension lessons. These include documentaries, animated television programs about the American Constitution, famous American speeches and excerpts from various law-related motion pictures. The overall goal in presenting this type of video content is to present some of the key language and lecture structures the LL.M. students will encounter in their law classes, in addition to providing general listening practice. Likewise, some videos are presented to LL.M. students simply as a preview into the U.S. law classroom environment.

Regular use of videos in the LL.M. ESL classroom has been shown to be an effective strategy for maintaining student interest. As Lonergan (1984) describes, "at their best, video presentations will be intrinsically interesting to language learners. . . (The) material should be motivating; the learner should want to see more, to ask questions . . . By generating interest and motivation, the video films can create a climate for successful learning" (p. 5). The LL.M. students' overall positive reception of video presentations shown during the orientation and as part of classroom instruction reinforces this claim.

Motion pictures are also utilized by the ESL program for LL.M. students and although they are typically comprised of scripted speech, they still provide the L2 student exposure to native English speakers' speech patterns and pronunciation, and give them a chance to work on listening strategies. Additionally, a motion picture allows the students to analyze how the actors' body movements and facial expressions communicate attitudes and emotions and help forward the story. While motion picture excerpts are used in the

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ESL program primarily as a basis for examining vocabulary used in a law classroom context, they also provide invaluable general listening opportunities for students in a more relaxed environment. An overview of some current ESL program listening lessons is important as a good foundation for analyzing how lessons developed from the law lecture videos can reinforce and enhance those listening lessons already proven effective for the LL.M. students.

Examples of Motion Picture Use in LL.M. ESL Instruction

One goal in utilizing motion picture excerpts in the EALP classroom is to help students adjust more quickly to the civil law classroom environment and the law lecture structure. Such is the case in one lesson that uses segments from the film, *The Paper Chase,* to illustrate the Socratic Method of questioning common in civil law classrooms. The Socratic Method involves the segment of a law lecture in which the instructor, during the discussion of a particular case or legal concept, selects a student - sometimes a volunteer, sometimes not - and proceeds to guide the student through a series of questions on the subject with the goal of using the line of questioning to aid the student in improving his/her analytical abilities. The value of the lesson is not so much in the final answer, but in the process that aids the student in arriving at the answer. Garrett (1998) describes the Socratic Method, as follows:

> The effort is a cooperative one in which the teacher and students work to understand an issue more completely. The goal is to learn how to analyze legal problems, to reason by analogy, to think critically about one's own arguments and those put forth by others, and to understand the effect of the law on those subject to it. Socratic discourse requires participants to articulate, develop and defend positions that may at first be imperfectly defined intuitions. Lawyers are, first and foremost, problem solvers, and the primary task of law school is to equip our students with the tools they need to solve problems
>
> (p. 2)

Even though many LL.M. students may not participate in the process directly, the question and answer exchange of the Socratic Method can be confusing both because of limited comprehension and because of the students' lack of schemata, or background in the Socratic Method. This would be the case for many students who previously attended law school in a civil law setting. For these students, film offers a non-threatening introduction to this process.

One excerpt from *The Paper Chase* comically shows a novice, angst-filled law student being questioned via the Socratic Method by his intimidating law professor; afterwards the terrified student races to the restroom where he proceeds to get very sick. This scene poses an opportunity for the ESL instructor to humorously explain this represents a worst–case scenario of what can transpire in law class. Use of the film is effective because the law students can relate to being nervous in class, and it presents an opening to convey to new students that participation in a U.S. law class is not a passive process, which can oftentimes be startling to students from cultures where law instruction occurs only in a lecture format.

Information about the Socratic Method is further supported in another excerpt from *The Paper Chase* in which this same law professor describes the Socratic Method and explains how the process leads law students to eventually be able to think like lawyers. ESL program materials used to support this lesson include a transcript of the professor's lecture and a sheet which describes how Socratic questioning helps students to clarify their thinking and provides a taxonomy of different types of Socratic questioning structures (Appendix A). The next part of the lesson involves review and further discussion by the students on how the Socratic Method might be utilized in their

particular law classes. Finally, the entire class discusses listening strategies, already adopted by some students, which can make listening comprehension easier in their law classes.

Another example of motion picture use in the LL.M. ESL program includes the film *A Few Good Men* as part of a weekly one-hour listening lesson presented throughout a semester. *A Few Good Men* is a 1992 film which focuses on a group of U.S. Navy attorneys who are defending two U.S. Marines accused of murdering a fellow Marine. The usual format of the lesson begins with a viewing of a 15-20 minute segment of the film after which the LL.M. students participated in another 30-40 minutes of exercises based on the film. A partial listing of the exercises used this past semester in connection to *A Few Good Men* include:

* Discussing rank and military/business/professional hierarchies
* Analyzing physical and rhetorical displays of power
* Examining legal proceedings and the related vocabulary
* Building legal vocabulary through suffix changes
* Differentiating between similar sounds in English
* Examining Idioms: general, military related, law related
* Reviewing legal collocations
* Listening for irony or sarcasm in speech
* Listening for key information
* Providing verbal and written summaries of film excerpts
* Using context to guess word meaning
* Role-play

While the lessons related to *A Few Good Men* were based on the initial listening activity, all subsequent exercises additionally incorporated the students' reading, writing and speaking skills to further support the listening skills and strategies presented via the

original listening activity. Additionally, the lessons provided instruction in a full range of top-down and bottom-up skills and presented subject-specific content. The LL.M. ESL students readily participated in the activities that followed the viewing of *A Few Good Men* excerpts and expressed an eagerness each week to *see what happens next* in the film. This supports Lonergan's (1984) previously mentioned claim that thoughtful use of film in a language class can be highly motivating.

Initial Use Law Lecture Videos in LL.M. ESL Curriculum

As soon as the first law lecture videos had been transcribed in late 2005, excerpts were incorporated into law lecture comprehension lessons. One such video-taped lecture and transcript from a family law class was featured in a lesson which focused primarily on lecture organization. The instructor had her students first listen to the video-taped excerpt and then questioned them about what content they had heard. Afterwards, the transcript of the lecture excerpt was distributed and, through a series of exercises, the students analyzed the moves/transitions of the lecture and linguistic forms used by the lecturer. This analysis included identification of:

*	Lecture structure: Opening
　　　　　　　　　　　　Announcements: Overview of final exam
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　Progress made on syllabus
　　　　　　　　　　　　Review of content covered in previous class
　　　　　　　　　　　　Road map for next section of lecture

*	Transitional cues used throughout lecture: ("So, we turn to the next . . .").

*	Feedback cues: (also called checking devices, "ok; alright; . . .we're ready").

*	Linguistic forms specific to this instructor's style of speech; use of slang and idioms.

* Identifying key lecture content.

* Identifying non-essential information.

<div align="right">(Beck, 2006)</div>

This lesson, designed from a five-minute excerpt of a single law lecture video, demonstrates the enormous potential for the ESL instructors to be able to address a broad range of comprehension issues for the LL.M. students. An additional benefit is that while lessons are organized to address specific comprehension issues - such as familiarizing students with moves within a lecture - each lesson provides practice to students for their overall listening skills.

Research as a Guide for Teaching Lecture Comprehension Skills & Strategies

As outlined in the Literature Review, there has been extensive research in the areas of L2 listening comprehension and, more specifically, academic lecture comprehension. Once again, potential comprehension obstacles described in the Literature Review can be organized into three broad areas:

* General inexperience in listening in the L2

* Unfamiliarity with lecture discourse patterns and general lecture structure

* Unfamiliarity with the lecture structure specific to the study of law

This research serves as a fairly reliable indicator of those discourse and lecture structure components which could prove to limit comprehension for LL.M. students in their law classes. The research also points to the necessity of familiarizing L2 students with general academic lecture organizational components, in addition to genre-specific lecture organization.

Therefore, as with the present ESL program for LL.M. students listening curriculum, the lecture comprehension lessons shall encompass the instructional

recommendations posed by the current SLA literature on EAP listening outlined in the Literature Review of this thesis. Additionally, instructor recommendations and student input shall serve to further target particular linguistic forms or listening & lecture comprehension issues which the ESL program for LL.M. students should address.

Conclusion

In examining the current ESL program for LL.M. students, it is clear that the program utilizes a wide range of lessons to promote improvement in general L2 listening skills and lecture comprehension skills as recommended by current SLA research. In support of a comprehensive EAP program, the ESL program for LL.M. students utilizes a four-prong approach to achieve its listening curriculum objectives. As such, this approach:

* Utilizes the communicative approach coordinating listening skill instruction with the three other skills of reading, writing and speaking.

* Provides instruction of both top-down and bottom-up comprehension skills throughout the listening curriculum.

* Addresses law-specific discourse structure and schemata as crucial components of regular instruction.

* Teaches and reinforces the use of listening and lecture comprehension strategies.

Use of video-taped materials has been an integral part of the methodology applied by the ESL program to address gaps in the LL.M. students' general listening comprehension and prepare them for the academic task of lecture listening. Inclusion of the four video-taped law lectures facilitates the ability to expand upon current listening lesson content with additional authentic material resources. As such, the video-taped law lectures provide a greater pool of examples for examining general lecture

discourse features and organization, and law-specific lecture features. In following the recommendations outlined in current SLA literature - which target listening and academic lecture comprehension - the creation of a model for a lecture comprehension series will serve to enhance the current LL.M. ESL listening curriculum in three ways:

* Fill in gaps for specific top-down & bottom-up microskills not yet addressed in current listening comprehension lessons.

* Supplement the current inventory of listening comprehension lessons with additional examples/resources for flexibility in creating lessons.

* Create a resource to exhibit variations in lecture styles by course content and instructors' distinct manner of speaking/teaching.

The following chapter will serve as an outline for constructing a model for producing lecture comprehension lessons.

CHAPTER FOUR: THE MODEL
FOR DEVELOPING LESSONS FOR LECTURE COMPREHENSION

Chapter Three explained how current SLA research provides the most relevant information for determining *what* linguistic forms and lecture devices should be targeted when designing lecture comprehension lessons. Additionally, the current curriculum for the ESL program for LL.M. students was analyzed to determine the overall approach used for listening comprehension instruction. It was established that the creation of a model for lecture comprehension lessons is not required to fill any grave deficiencies in the current listening curriculum. Rather, the availability of authentic law lecture videos has now provided an extensive resource that can further support and enhance the present ESL program's listening comprehension curriculum. A model for developing lessons from the video-taped law lectures provides a foundation for continuity between the lessons and a means of organizing the lesson content.

The purpose of this chapter is to present the actual model for using the law lecture videos to design a series of lecture comprehension lessons. First, as discussed previously in this paper, the LL.M. ESL program uses a four-prong approach in organizing its listening curriculum: a) use of communicative methodology; b) instruction of both top-down & bottom-up skills; c) instruction of law-specific rhetorical forms and lecture structure; and, d) instruction of listening strategies. This approach will, likewise, serve to guide the creation of lecture comprehension lessons.

Another issue which has to be considered for developing a model for lecture comprehension lessons is that the lessons and supplemental materials created for use in an EAP context - in this case, EALP - must answer to the immediate need of helping L2 students utilize these newly acquired language skills directly in their content courses. In

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the case of the LL.M. ESL program, for example, L2 students may analyze the rhetorical moves within a lecture during their English class, then have an immediate opportunity to apply this new information during their next law lecture. This represents another essential goal of all lecture comprehension lessons: lessons should be constructed so that the presented language information can be immediately incorporated into the L2 students' study of their law content.

Law Lecture Comprehension Skill Inventory

As discussed previously in Chapter Three, the selection of important rhetorical and lecture organizational features for lesson inclusion will be guided by the expansive research findings related to L2 listening skill development and academic lecture comprehension. Additionally, the current ESL curriculum provides an effective model for incorporating law-specific rhetorical and lecture organization features into lecture listening lessons.

As a first step in creating lecture comprehension lessons, it was deemed necessary to create a taxonomy of L2 listening and lecture comprehension micro-skills crucial for ESL students to develop. The taxonomy also needed to include law-specific language structures and lecture organizational features for which ESL law students need to be aware of for improving their lecture comprehension skills. Appendix B, a *Law Lecture Comprehension Skill Inventory,* is the model of this taxonomy compiled from the literature throughout the research process for this thesis.

The *Law Lecture Comprehension Skill Inventory* serves two functions in relation to developing lecture comprehension lessons from the law lecture videos. The first is to provide an extensive, although not comprehensive, reference listing of general L2

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listening and lecture comprehension skills for which the EAP instructor should target in their lessons as indicated by the literature. Likewise, the listing includes prominent law-related rhetorical and lecture organization features essential for the L2 students to study in order to improve their law lecture comprehension. Essentially, the *Law Lecture Comprehension Skill Inventory* (*Inventory*) will serve as a quick-reference in helping instructors to identify these important listening skills and rhetorical features in each law lecture video. This list is organized accordingly:
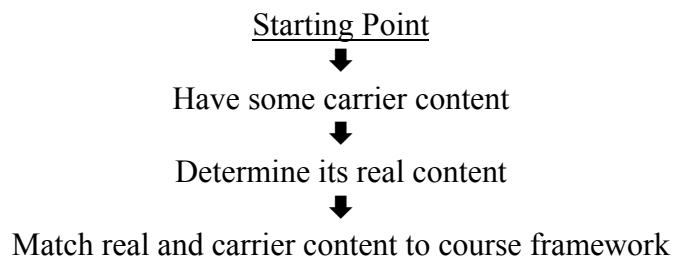
- Bottom-Up L2 Skills
    General Listening Skills

- Top-Down L2 Listening Skills
    General Listening Skills
    Lecture-Specific Listening Skills

- Law-Specific Rhetorical Features

- Law-Specific Lecture Organization

The second function of the *Inventory* is that it can be used as a check list to accompany a particular segment of a law lecture video to help organize on-going lesson development for all the law lecture videos. Understandably the check list application will undergo regular revision and updates as the LL.M. ESL instructors realize the need for presenting additional listening skills or lecture features to the L2 students. However, as a check list it can also to serve as a planner to make sure that lessons do not overemphasize the presentation of some linguistic features or skills, while ignoring others just as critical for improving lecture comprehension. In addition to the video tapes, use of the *Inventory* is also reliant upon transcripts of the videos for further identification of important rhetorical features to address.

Model for Designing Lecture Comprehension Lessons

As discussed earlier, the foundation for these lecture comprehension lessons is the video-taped law lectures. In addition, for this model, the other primary tools instructors will need to review the law lectures must include the actual transcript of the lecture and the *Inventory*. Moreover, any additional input/feedback from the L2 students regarding special listening comprehension needs as indicated by a needs analysis or placement test results should be kept readily available for reference.

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) offer one model for preparing new materials for ESP classes which can likewise serve to guide the lecture comprehension lesson planning for the ESL program for LL.M. students:

<u>Starting Point</u>
⬇
Have some carrier content
⬇
Determine its real content
⬇
Match real and carrier content to course framework

(p. 177)

In the case of the lecture comprehension lessons, the *carrier content* is the actual video-taped law lectures which will serve as the basis of the lessons. The *real content* of the video-tapes are the listening skills, linguistic and lecture structure forms and moves contained within the lectures which would be identified via the *Inventory*. And finally, matching the *real* and *carrier content* to the course framework involves developing lessons, along with appropriate support materials, which provide the L2 LL.M. students relevant and immediately accessible lecture comprehension knowledge and/or guidance on listening skill development.

Therefore, expanding upon Dudley-Evans and St. John's process for developing materials, I propose the following six-step model for developing lecture comprehension lessons from the video-taped law lectures for the ESL program for LL.M. students:

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Model for Developing Law Lecture Comprehension Lessons*

1) Review the Law Lecture Videos with:
    a) Law Lecture Comprehension Skill Inventory
    b) Video Transcript (Appendix E)
    c) Notes (student or instructor generated) regarding any specific needs
        of current L2 law students

2) Identify the listening skill, language or lecture feature(s) within a particular
   video excerpt which should be targeted for lesson inclusion.
   (Example: Appendix F)

3) Outline the lesson goals (Example: Appendix G)

4) Select or create exercises which provide an effective and interesting means
   for presenting lesson content. (Example: Appendix H)

5) Prepare or create any necessary supplemental materials to accompany the
   lesson. (Example: Appendix I)

6) Review listening/lecture strategies which can also be incorporated in the
    lesson.

   * (Also See Appendix D)

</div>

Again, the goal in creating this procedural model is to formulate a uniform approach that maximizes the efficiency of familiarizing students with the language and lecture features most likely to help improve their lecture comprehension skills. Moreover, by following these steps, EALP instructors increase the likelihood of developing lessons which already support the established listening skill and lecture comprehension curriculum goals.

Effective Lecture Comprehension Exercises

The next critical step is to identify possible exercises which can best present the linguistic content of the video-taped law lectures to the L2 students. Brown (2001) suggests that teaching listening skills for both intermediate and advanced English learners is best approached with a balance of top-down, bottom-up, and interactive exercises (pp. 261-264). He, additionally, argues that lecture listening skills represent a specialized need that is critical for advanced L2 learners attending native English speaking schools to develop.

As such, Brown has organized a compilation of types of listening exercises for the intermediate and advanced English learner which directly relate to the improvement of lecture comprehension (Appendix C). Because Brown's approach to listening and lecture comprehension skill instruction very closely relates to the four-prong approach already used by the LL.M. ESL program, the types of exercises he presents are highly adaptable for inclusion in lessons for teaching lecture comprehension (2001).

However, it should be clarified that resources for designing exercises that specifically target listening and lecture comprehension skills are reasonably accessible from a variety of academic resources. Notwithstanding, an EAP instructor's own ingenuity and teaching experience will more often than not serve as the primary resource for exercise design. The rationale of designing lessons in relation to the types of listening and lecture comprehension exercises suggested by Brown (2001) is to more expediently facilitate the creation of additional lessons, as needed. Therefore, for the purpose of this model, exercises for the sample lesson in Appendix I will be developed based on a few of the exercise suggestions listed by Brown.

Creating Supplemental Materials

The complete sample lesson in Appendix I, likewise, contains the supplemental materials which serve as activity worksheets for the lesson and provide support information and/or practice for the targeted linguistic and lecture features modeled within the sample video-taped lecture excerpt. Importantly, these supplemental materials address one of the essential requirements of the current LL.M. ESL curriculum that lessons provide an array of communicative activities that will allow students to exercise their English skills beyond listening.

Moreover, the sample lesson supplemental materials presented in Appendix I were created according to the criteria established by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1988) to guide the ESP practitioner in developing relevant supplemental materials. As they describe, inclusion of materials "in the ESP context" must only be considered when there is a clear rationale for their use by providing additional support to the lesson content in the following ways (p. 170):

* <u>Source of Language</u>
  The language used in materials must be a direct representation of authentic language the students will encounter in the target situation.

* <u>Learning Support</u>
  Here, the authors direct that "to enhance learning, materials must involve learners in thinking about and using the language." The activities need to stimulate cognitive not mechanical processes (p. 171).

* <u>Source of Stimulation/Motivation</u>
  Materials must challenge the students, yet contain achievable goals while also providing interesting, varied formats "to encourage fun and creativity" (p. 172).

* <u>Reference</u>
  Materials must be formatted clearly to allow students to be able to further
  review the content at a later time for self-study and reference.
  Additionally, materials must serve as a means of presenting lesson content
  to students possessing a variety of learning styles (p. 172).

Many of the points Dudley-Evans and St. John (1988) make regarding the importance of using authentic materials and varying lesson format to maintain student interest have been previously supported in Chapter Two. Overall, their criteria reinforces that materials in the ESP classroom must act as support for lessons in a wholly direct, goal-specific manner. Additionally, supplemental materials, oftentimes, must serve as a quick reference for language skills which may be exercised immediately in the content courses. By following Dudley-Evans and St. John's guidelines, when creating lecture comprehension lessons, EAP instructors can more closely gauge whether the supplemental materials they create can genuinely serve to meet the goals of the lesson.

Incorporating Listening Strategies in Lessons

As previously discussed, an important component of the current ESL curriculum is for listening strategies to be incorporated into each lecture comprehension lesson. Because SLA literature strongly supports the concurrent instruction of cognitive and metacognitive strategies, it is important that listening strategy instruction within the LL.M. ESL curriculum address both types of strategies. For example, cognitive listening strategies related to lecture comprehension additionally involve building top-down skills, such as predicting or inferencing, which help students fill in the gaps of lecture content information they might have missed. On the other hand, metacognitive strategy instruction offers L2 students a hands-on approach to meeting the demands of law lecture listening by learning self-management. Through the instruction of metacognitive

strategies L2 students learn how proper preparation for law lectures can better facilitate comprehension, and also, acquire such common-sense techniques as sitting in the front row during the lectures for optimum clarity of the professor's presentation (Beck, 2006).

But, classroom presentations and discussions on lecture comprehension strategies need not take up a significant amount of time during the lesson. Instead, regular reinforcement of strategy use can help L2 students better understand their own power to better facilitate increased lecture comprehension. This can also be a key to building student confidence in his/her abilities to take in the law lecture content. Additionally, regularly encouraging L2 students to share some of their own listening/lecture comprehension strategies provides a forum that can foster mutual support for all the L2 LL.M. learners.

Conclusion

In this chapter, it was explained that the model for creating future lecture comprehension lessons from the law lecture videos would reflect the current approach of teaching listening and lecture comprehension skills used by the LL.M. ESL program for LL.M. students. Additionally, since the ESL program is an ESP program, I described the importance that listening/lecture skills taught within the program be accessible for L2 students to use immediately in their law lectures.

Next, the chapter outlined the components which would be used in organizing the model for developing lecture comprehension lessons from the law lecture videos. These include, first, the application of a *Law Lecture Comprehension Skill Inventory* that would essentially serve as a planning guide for identifying, within the video tapes, essential bottom-up, top-down listening/lecture comprehension skills and law-specific lecture

features, as described by the current SLA literature. Secondly, the actual procedural model for lesson development is shown as a six-step process: video tape/transcript review, linguistic feature identification, outline lesson goals, exercise creation, preparation of supplemental materials and, finally, the inclusion of listening strategies into the lesson.

Next, I outlined the advantages of creating L2 listening and lecture comprehension skill exercises based on those suggested by Brown (2001) in the early stages of exercise development using the law lecture video tapes. Likewise, I described guidelines compiled by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1988) for developing effective supplemental materials for lecture comprehension lessons. As the final key element for creating effective listening and lecture comprehension lessons, I discussed the relevance of including both cognitive and metacognitive listening strategies in all lessons.

Finally, it is important to reaffirm that creating listening skill and lecture comprehension lessons from the law lecture videos will be an ongoing process for the LL.M. ESL program. With the acquisition of new video-taped law lectures, new lessons can be developed, or lessons can be updated according to current student needs. The goal of this lecture comprehension lesson model is to provide an organizational framework for the addition of new, SLA research-supported lessons developed from the authentic material law lecture videos.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

The goal of this thesis was to create a model for designing effective lecture comprehension lessons for the L2 LL.M. students based on video-taped law lectures which were given at the Indiana University School of Law at Indianapolis. Because of the difficulty many L2 students have in initially understanding law lectures, an intricate part of the LL.M. ESL program has been to aggressively look to better ways of aiding students with these early lecture comprehension problems. In 2005, the LL.M. ESL program coordinator initiated the taping of lectures given by law school faculty to be used in lessons related to lecture comprehension. Because there now exist several of these video-taped law lectures, these authentic materials pose a valuable opportunity for a more coordinated and expansive effort in creating lecture comprehension lessons that will more effectively help L2 LL.M. students.

In developing this model it was necessary to perform a review of several constituents which would contribute to creating the practical, sequential framework for these lessons: the existing ESL program for LL.M. students listening skill curriculum, current SLA literature on L2 lecture comprehension, and best practices of EAP instruction and materials design. Also important, was to examine the scope of instructional materials which address law-specific lecture comprehension challenges. The scarcity of ready-made materials which prepare L2 students for law lectures elucidates the necessity of creating a research-based model for using authentic materials to provide this support.

Recommendations

Although, the model presented serves as one of the building blocks for teaching critical lecture comprehension skills, it should never be seen as a final product. Instead, as with any educational tool, it is important that the model be subject to continuous reevaluation and adaptation by the LL.M. ESL program administrators and instructors. Beyond individual instructor preferences and addressing the needs of particular L2 students, there will always be factors which will necessitate modifications to this model, or require flexibility in the model's application. For example, new findings in SLA research related to listening skills and lecture organization will most certainly require additions to the *Law Lecture Comprehension Skill Inventory*.

As such, my primary recommendation regarding the improvement of lecture comprehension lessons created from this model would be for ESL program instructors to regularly review the law lectures on hand for identifying important lecture elements which may have been previously overlooked. Regular review also gives the instructors the opportunity to freshen lessons by incorporating new instructor knowledge, creating additional exercises and materials, or adapting the lesson to meet the needs of a particular class. Another important way to enrich this valuable collection of authentic material is by regularly replenishing the video-taped law lecture inventory with new lectures.

One obstacle to increasing the inventory of video-taped lectures for the ESL program for LL.M. students has been the difficulty in procuring permission from law instructors to video tape a sample of their lectures - and, incorporate it into lessons. A possible reason for a lecturer's lack of participation might stem from his/her unease about exactly how the video-taped lecture might be used in teaching lecture comprehension.

Additionally, there may be a sense of vulnerability for some of the instructors to have video tapes of their teaching styles/skills which could be viewed by their peers.

In light of any concerns law instructors might have in participating in the creation of additional video-taped law lectures, the LL.M. ESL program administrators and instructors have a few options to help persuade law instructors to act as participants. One way of approaching potential instructor participants is by providing them with a clear example of how lecture comprehension lessons have already been constructed from other law instructors' lecture segment. Moreover, it could also be beneficial to tape a lecture comprehension lesson as it is being presented to an L2 LL.M. class. This would provide a concrete example of how the ESL program for LL.M. students uses these video-taped lectures to better show L2 students *how* language is used in lecture organization.

As discussed previously, new SLA research findings will present added opportunities to better teach both L2 listening skills and lecture comprehension. Furthermore, as more analysis is done on subject-specific lecture content, additional patterns of language use and organization unique to law lectures will emerge. Corpora studies relating to law - and, EALP in particular - present a strong resource for furthering our understanding of law classroom language and lecture organization. It is crucial that the LL.M. ESL program keeps abreast of law-related corpora studies and incorporates the findings into further improving the lecture comprehension lessons. Even better, the collection of video-taped law lectures also poses an excellent opportunity for creating a corpus which would facilitate a more extensive examination of the language contained within these law lectures.

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Another useful application of this model for creating lecture comprehension lessons would be to present it as a teaching aid or exercise for student TESL instructors. Following the procedures of the model would give student instructors a hands-on experience for understanding the crucial steps involved in the planning of relevant, video-taped based lessons, as well as provide a more in-depth exploration of using authentic materials in lesson planning. Likewise, student instructors would be exposed to the multi-faceted considerations they must observe when creating lessons to meet the particular needs of EAP learners.

The final recommendation I would make for extending the application of the video-taped law lectures is for the LL.M. ESL program to further facilitate improvement of L2 lecture comprehension by constructing a web-based medium to provide students with additional listening practice. This Internet site could feature segments of the video-taped law lectures with transcripts and interactive exercises that could be used independently or serve to reinforce material presented in the classroom lecture comprehension lessons. Additionally, this endeavor could aid future L2 students who plan to study law in the U.S. by providing them a preparatory website which offers exposure to native English speakers and authentic law lecture language and structure.

Conclusion

Many international students attending American universities undergo some comprehension difficulties when they first attend classes, particularly those who have had little access to the speech of native English speakers. In fact, for some students, their limited ability to comprehend lecture content can prompt a dramatic drop in confidence of their English language skills and becomes a considerable source of stress to the

student. This has been the case for many of the L2 LL.M. students who have attended the Indiana University School of Law at Indianapolis. As an EAP program, the LL.M. ESL program's goal is to not only provide general English language support for the subject classes, but assist L2 students in this early, difficult process of acclimating to the English-speaking classroom.

Because of limited instructional resources related to EALP, instructors for the LL.M. ESL program face the enormous, continuous task of developing and revising content-supportive lessons and materials. Gaining access to authentic materials, such as the video-taped law lectures has proven a windfall for the ESL instructors to better prepare the L2 students for the American law classroom. Ultimately, the model for designing lecture comprehension lessons is meant to serve as a best practices guide and organizational tool for the ESL instructors who already rely heavily on self-made materials. It promotes efficiency in answering the L2 law students' early comprehension needs. For many of the L2 LL.M. students, learning to meet and manage the initial listening comprehension challenges of their law classes is a first step in regaining confidence that they can complete their LL.M. degrees.