



Fostering writing proficiency in LSP courses: Integrating audio and video lectures to enhance academic listening and writing skills

^aTina Miholjančan  ^bInes Jelovčić  ^cAzra Plićanić Mesić 

^aSenior lecturer, University of Zagreb, Croatia tina.miholjanacan@ffzg.hr

^bSenior lecturer, University of Zagreb, Croatia, ijelovci@ffzg.hr

^cSenior lecturer, University of Zagreb, Croatia, aplicani@ffzg.hr

APA Citation: Miholjančan, T., Jelovčić, I., & Plićanić Mesić, A. (2024). Fostering writing proficiency in LSP courses: Integrating audio and video lectures to enhance academic listening and writing skills. *Focus on ELT Journal*, 6(1), 107-118. <https://doi.org/10.14744/felt.6.1.8>

ABSTRACT

In comparison to productive skills, primarily speaking, listening has long held the *Cinderella skill* status in foreign language teaching. However, there is a noticeable change in that trend as nowadays there is more research, literature, and guidance on how listening can be taught more effectively. This paper explores one specific type of listening used in LSP courses, i.e. audio and video lectures. Lectures provide students with a general overview of a topic and thus present a starting point for further study at university. In LSP courses lectures in a foreign language can significantly contribute to learning that foreign language in terms of pronunciation and vocabulary, and can be used as an input for writing assignments, reading, or speaking activities. Thus, the main focus of the paper is on combining listening and writing, more precisely on how short audio and video lectures can be used in LSP courses to enhance students' writing skills. By listening to lectures students can, for example, learn how to take notes efficiently, and then use these notes to write an outline, a paragraph, an essay, or a lecture summary. Accordingly, the paper presents activities that can be implemented in LSP classes.

Keywords

listening,
lectures,
academic writing,
LSP.

Article History

Received : 19.06.2023
Revised : 29.09.2023
Accepted : 10.10.2023
Published : 05.03.2024

Type

Research Article

Introduction

Foreign language teaching, for both general and academic purposes, is directed towards the development of linguistic competence for successful spoken and written communication. Thus, knowing a language implies being able to interact in that language in a range of situations and circumstances. For LSP students it means achieving the level of proficiency which would enable them to use it confidently for communication for academic and professional needs. Another goal of foreign language instruction is attaining cultural competence through which students become acquainted with the way of life, customs, and traditions of the people who speak that language. This implies understanding the cultural context of the particular language and recognizing cultural differences to avoid misunderstandings.

The accomplishment of these two goals is achieved through the development of four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. To be proficient at language implies using all four language skills. Traditionally, listening and reading are known as receptive, passive skills since they are aimed at receiving information. Nunan (2001) calls them secondary skills because they are “means to other ends, rather than ends in themselves” (p. 51). Conversely, speaking and writing are frequently put together as productive skills because they involve creating words, phrases, sentences, and texts. They are the purpose of foreign language learning because language mastery implies being able to speak and write a language. Furthermore, in most classroom practices, listening is connected with speaking, since it is either given as input for speaking or they are naturally interconnected in discussions where speakers take turns to listen and speak. Reading, on the other hand, often serves as an introduction to writing as university students’ first research written material and then produce their own writing.

The aim of this paper, however, is to establish the connection between listening as a receptive and writing as a productive skill. More precisely, the paper explores listening to lectures, which is one of the most frequent and usual academic type of instruction, as the input for teaching writing. LSP courses at university include listening to two types of lectures: more traditional audio lectures and more modern, technology-based video lectures. Listening to these lectures is studied as a useful and valuable way of acquiring information which is then transformed into different types of academic writing.

The paper examines the importance of listening and lectures on an academic level and establishes the connection between listening and writing. Since academic writing is the most demanding and challenging form of academic assignment, the paper offers a few practical activities that, starting from listening through further note-taking, can help students master this skill and produce shorter and more complex academic texts.

The Importance of Listening

Listening is one of the basic human needs and abilities since birth. One would expect that such a skill would be taught, developed, and perfected through education, especially through language learning. However, it has long been taken for granted as a skill that comes spontaneously and naturally and, as such, does not need any formal instruction. As a result, some authors (Nunan, 1997; Jalongo, 2010; Spear-Swerling, 2020; Vandergrift, 1997) call listening *Cinderella skill* or “the neglected communication skill” (Kline, 1996). According to research, approximately 45% of human communication is performed through listening activities, yet little effort is made to improve this skill (Kline, 1996). In the educational context the percentage is even higher and 50 to 75% of time at school is spent listening to the teacher and classmates (Jalongo, 2010). It is, therefore, important to find the causes of this neglect of the listening skill. Among other reasons, Kline (1996) identifies false notions about listening and the incomplete understanding of this complex process. The first step towards its better comprehension, he suggests, is to define it. One of the possible ways to define this skill is to make an effort to hear something and be alert and ready to hear something (Oxford Languages). In this light, listening is an active and demanding process. Another definition of listening reveals its multiple active aspects and perceives it as a “process of receiving, attending, and understanding auditory messages” followed by responding and remembering (Kline, 1996, p. 15). All these factors stress the vital role of listening in language proficiency whose importance is eventually recognized in later years with the rise of communicative approach to language teaching and the development of modern technology. Language teaching shifted from developing grammatical competence, reading, and writing skills towards communicative competence focused on interaction, language use, and fluency. New technological devices and

the internet enabled language teachers to introduce live spoken language into the classroom and this changed the language learning perspective – from learning through reading to learning through listening.

Although listening was overlooked in research for a long time, in teaching practice it was and is present in various forms. It seems, though, that there are two main problems connected to listening skills in class: first, it is used to develop other aspects of language, such as vocabulary and grammar (Bruzzano, 2021), and second, it is rather tested than taught (Field, 2008). According to Field (2008), the comprehension approach in teaching a language concentrates on checking listening comprehension as a product of listening instead of teaching how to listen and focus on the process of listening.

Two strategies have been suggested to improve the process of listening: top-down and bottom-up approach. In top-down listening the listener uses his background knowledge of the context to understand the message and in bottom-up listening the listener begins with sounds to come to an understanding of words, phrases, and sentences. Thus, top-down listening starts with general information and through deduction and analysis comes to specific information. In the reverse, bottom-up approach it begins from smaller parts of language, such as sounds and words, and through induction and synthesis comes to larger units. Brown (2006) considers listening a complex process and suggests employing both, top-down and bottom-up strategies, depending on the circumstances. He recognizes the need to activate prior knowledge as well as apply different activities to practice listening and to help students alleviate the difficulties of listening. Some of these are listening for main ideas, details, and inference. The author points out that listening happens in real-time, usually with one chance to hear, accompanied by hesitations, shortening, and connecting of words, which may all hinder understanding. He stresses that for effective listening it is important to know the purpose and have motivation.

Kline (1996) emphasizes active participation, effort, and concentration in the process of listening. He suggests a few techniques to improve the listening skill such as listening to complex and difficult material and building your vocabulary. Vocabulary richness, according to Kline improves all, conversational, reading, and listening skills. Other factors important for listening are adapting to the listening circumstances, taking notes, concentrating on the main ideas, and asking questions if possible. In short, he stresses challenging oneself, practicing extensively, and stretching the listening ability to the utmost.

Language instruction begins with teaching general everyday language. On university level language for specific and academic purposes is taught. Observed in this new context, all language skills become more complex and so does listening. If listening is crucial for understanding and effective communication in everyday life, for professional purposes it becomes even more demanding. To be able to listen students need specific knowledge of an academic field and they increasingly deal with complex and abstract notions and formal register. Furthermore, students should recognize and follow the formal structure of academic talks, and register different cohesive devices and language functions. All in all, they need to employ greater effort in listening and understanding such material. Jelovčić and Ćirić (2013) stress the importance of listening in an academic setting as one of the main ways of obtaining new information. They point out the importance of improving listening skills through listening materials, activities, and strategies appropriate for the needs of university students. The purpose of such development of the listening skill is effective communication through understanding the speaker and reacting to the message. This enables university students to actively participate in academic life and is an important factor in their overall academic performance and success.

Lectures on Academic Level

A lecture can be defined as “a formal talk on a serious topic given to a group of people, especially students” (Cambridge Dictionary). Although it is frequently criticized as an ineffective and passive form of academic work and labeled as “spoon-feeding”, it has numerous advantages which account for rather regular attendance even if it is not obligatory. According to Charlton (2006), lectures have three important advantages for university students: first, they are spoken which makes it easier for the students to acquire information, second, there is a real-time presence of the lecturer in the social context and third, the lecture is not an isolated event but they are held in series, as a course of lectures, which ensures long-term, serious education. Charlton (2006) continues that the effectiveness and importance of lectures can be seen in the fact that students, despite a wide choice of alternative, technology-oriented forms of education, still choose human-presence, attendance-based education with direct teaching through lectures. The reason why it is so, he claims, is rooted in human nature – humans spontaneously communicate through spoken word. He also suggests that taking notes during lectures “has the advantage of encouraging ‘deep-processing’ forms of memorizing” through understanding, shortening, and recording information, which turns the possibly passive process of listening into active (Charlton, 2006, p. 1261-1265).

University students are exposed to listening to two types of lectures: audio and video lectures. Traditionally, students are used to live classroom lectures with the lecturer delivering a structured, organized talk. These are considered to be audio lectures because students get information through listening and they learn based on what they hear. The lecturer will stress and repeat the main points, write keywords and guidelines on the board, and use linking expressions to add information, give examples, classify, show sequence, and summarize. However, it must be added that besides the prevalence of auditory learning, visual elements are important as well. The lecturer traditionally writes on the board or nowadays may use a PowerPoint presentation. Students also get non-verbal cues during lectures. They can see the teacher’s gestures, and facial expressions and establish eye contact. The lecturer can also observe students’ body language, and get confirmation that they understand and follow or that additional clarification is needed.

With the development of technology and information science various educational materials are available online in the form of video lectures. Their length can range from very short, a few minute videos, to an hour or longer ones. As Dubac Nemet and Lokotar Vojnović (2024, p.11) state such video materials are not only “easily accessible and adjustable”, but they also bring “real-life English to the classroom, particularly the possibility of native-speaker experts in their field talking about professional topics.” Especially popular ones are TED talks which are short presentations that cover a great diversity of academic, scientific, educational, cultural, and other topics in up to 18 minutes. Furthermore, universities have their internal online resources available to course attendants and, in addition to written materials, there is also a possibility to access video lectures. Professors can offer ready video lectures on course topics or they can record their lectures which are available to students at any time and from any place. They enable students to study at their own pace, to go back and relisten to the parts they do not grasp immediately, to pause the video, and to look for additional clarifications if necessary. Such video lectures are generally used as additional material to accompany live classroom courses. The study by Brecht (2012) demonstrates multiple benefits of video lectures as supplementary and voluntary instructional video materials. Some of the most important findings of this research are that video lectures facilitate the process of learning, reduce course failure rates, and improve grades.

From Listening to Writing

Listening to lectures is inevitably connected to taking notes. This is the first step in combining listening and writing. Taking notes requires a high level of student concentration and attention. They can also apply different techniques of note-taking to make the most of their listening experience and to select the strategy that best fits their needs of the moment. However, it is important to stress that effective lecture notes are the basis for subsequent writing of different forms. It has already been emphasized that, for university students, writing is the hardest part of academic work. They should be able to express their ideas and thoughts on academic topics in a structured and coherent way. Their notes may be the starting point for that purpose. Students can use them to summarize the lecture, write comments, outline the main ideas and supporting details, paraphrase, compare and contrast presented theories and systems, and write paragraphs and essays. These procedures and strategies will be further illustrated in more detail.

Many authors have emphasized the importance of the complex process of note-taking (Boch & Piolat, 2005; Piolat et al., 2005). Piolat et al. (2005) define notes “as short condensations of a source material that are generated by writing them down while simultaneously listening, studying, or observing” whose function is to gather information from a lecture or other sources (p. 292). They focus on cognitive analysis of note-taking whose objective is to identify the processes that are activated during this activity. Note-taking is a constructive process that implies comprehension, selection, and production. It requires a major cognitive effort especially because it depends on the limited time and the speed of delivery. This conditions the student to comprehend quickly and to organize the listening material in written form. Since there is, unfortunately, not much instruction on effective note-taking at the university level, students depend on themselves to find and develop note-taking strategies that best suit the situation.

Kline (1996) proposes a few techniques of note-taking: linear notes, mind maps, and the keyword method. He advises note-takers not to strive to write down every word but to think while writing, concentrate on the important ideas, and circle and highlight them. He also stresses the importance of writing the notes enough to be able to understand and use them later.

Piolat et al. (2005) suggest using abbreviating techniques on the lexical and syntactic level by shortening words and statements. They also propose different types of physical formatting and point out that non-linear note-taking strategies have a better final effect than linear ones because the spatial organization of information in the form of maps and graphs favors easier and more successful knowledge acquisition. Another important factor is taking notes by yourself and reviewing them. It is connected with the so-called generation effect which implies a better learning outcome if students create their material than when they study from materials created by others. When taking notes, students are completely involved in the activity by concentrating, thinking, understanding the message, and transforming it into writing, which means that they retain the material better and learn during the process.

Boch and Piolat (2005, pp. 1-2) identify four aspects of note-taking: first, “writing to learn” as the main function of note-taking, second, useful note-taking techniques, third, factors in the process of comprehension and fourth, knowledge acquisition during note-taking and “learning to write” or teaching effective note-taking. The principal function of note-taking is getting information from lectures which students later revise to be able to pass exams and complete university programs. The authors differentiate between simpler and more frequent “copy-regurgitate” methods and more complex but rarer “reformulation-interpretation” strategies (Boch & Piolat, 2005, p. 2). They conclude that note-taking is a functionally complex process that implies the development of multiple skills and takes considerable time to master. The teaching objective should be the improvement of this valuable skill over several years.

As has already been emphasized, taking notes during lectures is a starting point for various forms of writing. The teacher can choose, adapt, and adjust the listening material to the type of written assignment that will follow. Note-taking activity can be guided so that students are required to complete already prepared notes by writing down the main ideas or concentrating on the supporting detail. They can take notes to extract key ideas and summarize them later, as in the well-known Cornell note-taking system. If the lecture compares and contrasts ideas, people, and phenomena, students can note down similarities and differences to write a comparison-contrast paragraph or essay. There are numerous other possibilities and activities connected with note-taking. However, one of the most important things in teaching writing, especially academic writing, is to motivate students for this demanding activity. Another significant factor is trying to facilitate the complex process of writing. Dividing it into stages and tackling each phase individually is the next useful strategy to master the writing skill. Some authors also recommend a step-by-step approach, which implies starting from easier and smaller units to more complex and lengthy forms of writing (Jelovčić & Miholjančan, 2017). All in all, considering the relevance and necessity of writing on an academic level, teachers and learners should strive to overcome the difficulties it brings on the way and research and use appropriate strategies to master this indispensable skill. Some of the possible techniques and approaches to writing will be presented in the following chapters.

From Note-taking to Writing

Although university students are digital natives, i.e., prefer using new technologies to writing on paper, and although professors frequently make their PowerPoint presentations available on learning platforms, e.g., Moodle, note-taking by hand, at least in our teaching context, still seems to be popular among students. We believe that taking notes on paper is a powerful learning tool because it can help students understand the content better and learn more. It is a platform for students to be creative and flexible, with the ultimate goal of achieving their learning goals. Despite all of the aforementioned, it seems that notetaking is still not used to its fullest potential, and thus the statement that although students “fill volumes of notebooks throughout their academic careers, few students are ever taught or advised about notetaking or review” could be applied even today (Kiewra, 1987, p. 233). Therefore, in this section of the paper, we will show how notetaking can be taught in LSP courses and efficiently used as input for various writing assignments which are typical for academic writing (e.g. paragraph and essay).

This section of the paper presents some note-taking systems that are part of listening activities in our LSP courses. The note-taking systems that will be discussed are listing, outlining, mapping, charting, and the Cornell method. Each method has its advantages and disadvantages, but they can provide a useful structure to any piece of academic writing, i.e., help students to order and organize ideas, and eventually write better. Students need to discover which method suits their learning goals most, and can also combine two or more methods. LSP instructors, on the other hand, need to carefully choose which method to use when using notes to teach a specific form of writing. This paper provides examples of our teaching practice, i.e. the activities we plan and implement in our LSP courses during a class, and in which a specific notetaking system is applied while students listen to an audio or video lecture. The examples used with some note-taking systems in this section include authentic notes taken by our students, as well as parts of their written assignments.

Listing

Listing is probably the most common note-taking system when listening to lectures. It involves writing every new idea or fact on a separate line. In other words, students are focused on capturing what they hear in a lecture and do not have time to process the information they write down. Since notes taken in this way require editing, reviewing, and organizing, listing is frequently combined with other note-taking methods, e.g., outlining.

In our LSP courses, we mostly use this method to practice writing isolated sentences in an academic style. Students take notes while listening to a lecture, and are afterward asked to use these notes to write full sentences in which features of academic style are applied, e.g., how to make a sentence more objective by using the passive form and hedging language, or how to write complex sentences by using the points from the list and appropriate transition words. The information in the notes can also be used in sentences to practice defining, classifying, and exemplifying.

Outlining

An outline is a visual representation of the organization of a lecture which allows one to show the main and supporting points by using indentations, bullet points, or numbers. Creating an outline is a good way to review the material and to show that one understands the relationships between main and supporting points. It can also be implemented as a follow-up activity after listing has been used. Incomplete outlines should be used since it is difficult to outline if the content of the lecture is not well-organized. One of the advantages of using an outline is that it allows reviewing the main points more easily. Another advantage is that an outline can be used as input for further writing activities, e.g., for writing summaries, paragraphs, and essays.

When taking notes students need to be selective and decide which information is more important, i.e., what the main points are and what the supporting details are. The way a lecturer structures the presentation and uses discourse markers, e.g., furthermore, in addition, however, etc., is helpful when taking notes as it acts as a signal to the student how to organize the main ideas and the details.

In the activity that is presented in *Figure 1*, students are given an incomplete outline. They then listen to the lecture entitled Intelligence Testing, take notes, and fill in the blanks.

Figure 1. Incomplete Outline (Lecture from Seal, 1997)

I	History
	A. Alfred Binet
	1. Purpose of the test
	2. Theory behind the test
	3. "Mental age"
	B. Lewis Terman
	Stanford-Binet test
	a) Q formula
	b) Purpose of the test
II	Current approaches to intelligence assessment
	A. Wechsler Scales
	Different from Stanford-Binet:
III	Some problems with IQ testing
	A. Definition
	B. Bias

Besides using the notes as input for writing, speaking, i.e., retelling and discussing the content of the lecture should be encouraged as a follow-up activity.

The main ideas in the outline can, for example, be used to write sentences in which reporting verbs are practiced. The main ideas in the outline from *Figure 1* are:

- *History*
- *Current approaches to intelligence assessment*
- *Some problems with IQ testing*

Student's sentences in which main ideas are introduced by using reporting verbs are:

- *The lecture briefly outlines the history of intelligence assessment.*
- *The lecture discusses current approaches to intelligence testing.*
- *The lecture addresses some problems with IQ testing.*

Another activity in which listing and outlining can be combined is when students are asked to create a PowerPoint presentation of a lecture. The students listen to a lecture, take notes in the form of a list, then review the list, group the ideas, create subtitles for every slide, and assign ideas to the slides. The combination of listing and outlining can also be used when students use a lecture as a source of information to write an essay plan. Based on the notes that were listed during the listening activity, students create an outline that functions as an essay plan. The students write the essay at home and can extend the main ideas and supporting details from the lecture by adding information from other sources.

Charting

In this method, notes are taken by using categories in the form of a chart. The chart should include at least two categories to enable students to later compare and contrast these two categories. In other words, the chart classifies information from the lecture. Besides for comparing and contrasting, charting can also be used for expressing the relationship of analogy or cause and effect. One of the advantages of this note-taking method is that information can be reviewed easily since the chart is organized in columns and rows. However, some students might, while listening, struggle with deciding what information should be added to which column and row within the chart, especially if the content is presented too quickly.

Table 1. Comparing and Contrasting Intelligence Tests (Lecture from Seal, 1997)

Stanford-Binet Test	Wechsler Scales
-gives a ratio measure of intelligence – still used today	- developed by David Wechsler, 1939
-Purpose of test = identify children who will have problems in school	- 3 tests for differ. age groups
IQ formula = divide mental age by chron. age times 100	- easier to give (administer)
	- test other abilities, e.g., puzzles, visual-spatial

The suggested activity could be that students listen to the lecture and take notes, i.e., write down words, key phrases, and ideas in the appropriate column, as in *Table 1*. Further activity should aim at practicing writing sentences in which students use transition words for similarity (e.g., just as, in the same way as/that, similar to, like, likewise, similarly) or contrast (e.g., while, whereas, in contrast to, unlike, on the other hand, however).

The following sentences in which a transition word is used are examples written by a student:

In contrast to the Stanford-Binet Test, the Wechsler Scales test other, nonverbal, abilities, e.g., puzzles, and visual spatial.

Similar to the Stanford-Binet Test, the Wechsler Scales measure intelligence and cognitive ability in children and adults.

This activity can be extended so that students use the information about the categories from the chart to write, for example, a comparison and contrast paragraph which will consist of a topic sentence, supporting sentence(s), and concluding sentence. In the topic sentence, students need to state the main idea of the paragraph, in the supporting sentence they need to provide more details and/or arguments that support the main idea, and in the concluding sentence the main idea is restated and/or some type of suggestion/recommendation is offered.

Mapping

Since Tony Buzan invented mind maps in the 1960s, they have been used in various areas of human life, and accordingly for various educational purposes. These purposes include note-taking, creative thinking, report writing, and decision-making (Li, Yang & Chen, 2010). However, the initial reason why they were created is to help take notes more effectively. Being mostly visually oriented, students have embraced this method of note-taking because a mind map is a visual representation of the lecture. It helps learners understand relationships between ideas/concepts. Not only do mind maps help students see the connections between ideas, but they also generate new ideas and get students started with writing. Thus, they represent a great tool for teaching various forms of academic writing. Mapping is usually used in combination with listing. Students first take notes while listening to an excerpt of a lecture; after listening they review notes and organize them so that the main points are assigned to logical units, i.e., maps. Based on the notes from the maps students produce a piece of writing, e.g. a paragraph.

In our courses, we mostly use this note-taking method when teaching paraphrasing skills. Students listen to a lecture, take notes, and then group ideas around the main points. Furthermore, relationships between the points are established, or more precisely students draw lines connecting main points and sub-points. Consequently, the student can visualize the parts of the lecture, i.e., how certain points relate to each other. The next step is to write an acceptable paraphrase based on the mind maps. Using mind maps as a starting point when paraphrasing helps students avoid plagiarism because it allows the student to move away from the original sentence pattern and present the ideas differently.

The Cornell Note-Taking System

The Cornell note-taking system was popularized by a Cornell University Professor, Dr. Walter Pauk, to help students take and organize their notes more effectively. The most important advantages of this method are that it increases comprehension of lectures and that it encourages students to critically approach the class material and be active learners. The Cornell University website (The Cornell Note Taking System – Learning Strategies Center, 2023) provides general information about this note-taking method, emphasizing its importance in the process of understanding and learning new content. It has a specific layout (*Figure 2*) which includes four sections: title, note-taking area, cue column, and summary area. The note-taking area is where students take notes and write down facts. These ideas are then reviewed, and grouped, and key points are presented in the cue column. Sometimes the key terms are presented in the form of questions. Pauk and Owens (2010) state that the cue column should be used “for questions to help clarify meanings, reveal relationships, establish continuity, and strengthen memory” (p. 244). The summary area is the revision area i.e., where students write the summary of the lecture by using a specific structure, e.g., the structure of a descriptive summary/abstract as in *Figure 2*.

In the activity that we use for this particular note-taking system, students listen to a video or audio lecture and take notes simultaneously. Upon completing the listening task, students review their notes, and group ideas, and write cues in the form of keywords or

questions in the cue column. The cue column needs to be represented in the summary area where students write the lecture summary. Writing a lecture summary does not only include describing the content of the lecture but also enables students to practice applying features of academic style, e.g., using specific transition words to make the summary cohesive and coherent, using reporting verbs to introduce ideas, higher lexical density, and grammatical complexity.

Figure 2 shows an authentic student's example of note-taking according to the Cornell method. In this example, students listen to a lecture entitled Phobias. Based on the notes taken in the note-taking area, students identify the main points which are then presented in the cue column in the form of subtitles. These points are further addressed in the summary area. The lecture summary is written in phases; during the class, students write the first draft of the summary, and the final version is written as a homework assignment. The first drafts of the summary are frequently peer-reviewed in class before students are given feedback by the LSP instructor. Peer review not only enables students to critique and provide feedback to each other on their assignments but also helps them develop skills to self-assess and improve their writing.

Figure 2. Cornell Method Layout + Authentic Example (Lecture from Kisslinger, 2009)

Title: Phobias	
<p>Cue Column</p> <p>phobia ≠ normal fear characteristics</p> <p>classification</p> <p>causes – 2 theories</p>	<p>Note-taking area</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fairly common psychological problem - Extreme fear of something, often with strong physical reactions - 3 characteristics of phobias: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Irrational o Long-lasting o Uncontrollable - Classified by the thing/situation one fears - Usually described by Latin or Greek words in the name - 2 theories for the causes of phobias <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o It is learned (directly or by watching others) o It is a sign of a deeper problem (concealed fear) - The difference between theories is in identifying the real problem – important for deciding on treatment
<p>Summary area</p> <p>There are many mental problems of varying severity that can interfere with daily functioning. One such problem are phobias which are a fairly common occurrence. Unlike normal fear, phobias are extreme and can even be accompanied by strong physical reactions, while fear is an expected and rational response to a certain threat. This lecture defines phobias and discusses three characteristics concerning their intensity, longevity, and the ability, or lack thereof, to control them. Furthermore, it mentions ways that are usually used to classify phobias along with multiple examples. Lastly, the lecture presents two theories for causes of phobias and compares their approaches while highlighting their implications in identifying proper treatment for each patient. (*1st draft)</p>	

Conclusion

This paper aimed to move away from the traditional reading-writing connection and focus on listening as a starting point when teaching academic writing. More precisely, the paper focuses on a specific type of listening, i.e., lectures that are used to enhance students' writing skills. The first activity that connects lectures and various forms of academic writing is note-taking. The note-taking systems discussed in this paper as input for writing assignments are listing, outlining, mapping, charting, and the Cornell method. The method LSP instructors will eventually use in their courses depends on the form of writing they want to teach. All of the activities presented in this paper are used as in-class activities, but can also be used as homework activities. The activities are usually done in the second semester because students need to first become familiar with the main features of academic writing as well as smaller segments of academic writing to be able to apply these features and deal with larger units of academic writing. In other words, in our teaching practices, we follow the pattern that starts with short(er) pieces of writing and ends with long(er) pieces of writing. Only by mastering these smaller segments can students start integrating them to form a whole, and eventually improve all of their writing.

Although we live in the 21st-century digital era, many traditional tools in foreign learning and teaching are still used; note-taking is one such valuable tool. However, taking into consideration that our students are digital natives, further discussion regarding this topic should include the possibility of implementing note-taking apps in our teaching context. In this way, students' technological literacy is taken as an advantage and used as motivation to engage in writing assignments.

Disclosure Statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

References

- Boch, F., & Piolat, A. (2005). Note Taking and Learning: A Summary of Research. *The WAC Journal*, 16, 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.37514/WAC-J.2005.16.1.08>
- Brecht, D. H. (2012). Learning from Online Video Lectures; *Journal of Information Technology Education. Innovations in Practice*, 11, 227-250. <https://doi.org/10.28945/1712>
- Brown, S. (2006). *Teaching Listening*. Cambridge University Press.
- Bruzzano, C. (2021). *Listening in English as a foreign language: a multiple case study of teachers' and learners' practices and beliefs in an Italian secondary school*. PhD Thesis, University of Leeds. White Rose eTheses Online. <https://etheses.whiterose.ac.uk/28906/> (<https://etheses.whiterose.ac.uk/28906/>)
- Cambridge Dictionary. <https://dictionary.cambridge.org>, n.d.
- Charlton, B. G. (2006). Lectures Are an Effective Teaching Method Because They Exploit Human Evolved "Human Nature" to Improve Learning-Editorial. *Medical Hypotheses*, 67, 1261-1265. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mehy.2006.08.001>
- Cornell University Website (2023), The Cornell Note Taking System – Learning Strategies Center <https://lsc.cornell.edu/how-to-study/taking-notes/cornell-note-taking-system/>
- Dubac Nemet, L., & Lokotar Vojnović, E. (2024). Utilizing videoclips and content-based practice sheets to address hypertension in nursing and dental English courses. *Focus on ELT Journal*, 6(1), 119-134. <https://doi.org/10.14744/felt.6.1.9>
- Field, J. (2008). *Listening in the Language Classroom*. Cambridge University Press <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511575945>

- Jalongo, M. (2010, March). Listening in Early Childhood: An interdisciplinary review of the literature. *Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Literacy Association*, Albuquerque, NM. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10904010903466279>
- Jelovčić, I., & Ćirić, J. (2013). Academic listening in language for Academic purposes / *Proceedings of the Sixth International Conference on the Importance of Learning Professional Foreign Languages for Communication between Cultures, Celje, Slovenia, 19 and 20 September 2013*, 97-104.
- Jelovčić, I., & Miholjančan, T. (2017). Teaching Academic Writing in ESP Courses: The Power of the Paragraph. *Languages for Specific Purposes in Higher Education. Current Trends, Approaches, and Issues. Conference proceedings edited by: Martina Vránová, Dita Gálová, and Dagmar Červenková. Brno. 10-11 November 2017*, 31-36.
- Kiewra, K. A. (1987). Notetaking and review: The research and its implications. *Instructional Science*, 16(3), 233–249. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00120252>
- Kisslinger, E. (2009). *Contemporary Topics 2. Academic listening and note-taking skills*. 3rd ed. Rost, M. (ed.) Pearson Education ESL.
- Kline, J. A. (1996). *Listening Effectively*. Air University Press. <https://doi.org/10.21236/ADA421888>
- Li, M., Yang, Y., & Chen, H. (2010). Using Mind Maps as a Strategy for Vocabulary Acquisition in Chinese Universities. In *Computational Intelligence and Software Engineering (CiSE)*, 2010 International Conference on IEEE, 1-3. <https://doi.org/10.1109/CISE.2010.5677128>
- Nunan, D. (1997). *Listen In: A three-level listening series*. Thomson Learning.
- Nunan, D. (2001). New Ways in Teaching Listening. *TESOL Vol 8 2001 C6.pdf*. 51-66
- Oxford Languages. <https://languages.oup.com/dictionaries>, n.d.
- Pauk, W. & Owens, R. J. Q. (2010). *How to Study in College (10 ed.)*. Wadsworth
- Piolat A, Olive T., & Kellogg R.T. (2005). Cognitive effort during note-taking. *Applied Cognitive Psychology* 19(3), 291-312. <https://doi.org/10.1002/acp.1086>
- Seal, B. (1997). *Academic encounters: reading, study skills, and writing. Content focus: Human behavior*. Cambridge University Press.
- Spear-Swerling, L. (2020). Listening comprehension, the Cinderella skill: Giving the neglected stepchild her due. *Perspectives on Language and Literacy*, 42, 9-16.
- Vandergrift, L. (1997). The Cinderella of Communication Strategies: Reception strategies in interactive listening. *The Modern Language Journal*, 81, 494-505.

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the Journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (CC BY-NC-ND) (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).