Unraveling the dynamics of English communicative motivation and self-efficacy through task-supported language teaching: A latent growth modeling perspective

Abstract: Despite the importance of task-supported language teaching (TSLT) in developing L2 speaking and listening skills, existing literature fails to trace the changes in L2 learners' affective responses longitudinally during this type of instruction. After collecting three waves of questionnaire data, the present study explores how 60 L2 learners' English listening- and speaking-related motivation and self-efficacy changed during a nine-week course of instruction at a university in China. Latent growth modeling was used to analyze questionnaire data. The results show a significant increase in students' intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy in L2 listening during task implementation in contrast to a decrease in their extrinsic L2 listening motivation in TSLT classrooms. Learners with higher English proficiency tended to have better listening self-efficacy, and changes in L2 speaking motivation and self-efficacy were not salient. Implications for teaching and learning L2 listening and speaking are also discussed.

Keywords: task-supported language teaching, L2 listening and speaking, motivation change, self-efficacy change, latent growth modeling

1. Introduction

Listening-speaking skills have long played a significant role in the academic success of foreign/second language (L2) learners (Goh, 2017; Goh & Hu, 2014). Effective approaches to teaching L2 listening and speaking have been investigated, including strategy-based instruction (Renandya, 2013) and usage-based instruction (Ellis, 2017). Among the wide range of teaching approaches, task-based language teaching (TBLT) is advocated because it creates authentic communication opportunities for L2 learners who can exploit the target language to achieve communicative purposes (Ellis, 2003). This approach, which encourages learners to communicate, also aligns with the

reinforcement of oracy instruction. It claims that listening and speaking are integral and indispensable and, thus, should be taught together (Hinkel, 2010). Task-supported language teaching (TSLT), a weaker version of TBLT, may help L2 learners improve their communicative competence as it includes various listening tasks based on real-life communication scenarios (Chau, 2017). Despite ample evidence revealing that TSLT improves L2 speaking and writing (Robinson, 2011), its effectiveness in L2 listening has not been thoroughly investigated (Monteiro & Kim, 2020). Given the integration of L2 listening and L2 speaking in communication, it is necessary to treat L2 listening and speaking in TSLT classrooms.

Existing studies reveal that task-based approaches positively enhance L2 listening and speaking skills (e.g., Li et al., 2016; Qiu & Xu, 2022). However, less attention has been paid to how these approaches affect learners' L2 listening, speaking motivation, and self-efficacy. Both motivation and self-efficacy are individual learner factors that "are hypothesized to have a direct and/or indirect impact on learning outcomes" (Li et al., 2022, p. 4). Motivation, in this study, refers to one's desire and motive to listen to or speak in English (Ryan & Deci, 2017). According to Bandura (2006), self-efficacy captures one's beliefs in one's capabilities to listen to English or speak in English. Previous studies have revealed the positive effects of TBLT instruction on self-efficacy (McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007) and motivation (East, 2014) in the L2 learning context. Specifically, in the L2 speaking context, TBLT has been found that TBLT had a positive effect on self-efficacy (Leeming, 2017) and motivation (Harris & Leeming, 2022). In the L2 listening context, TSLT was found to positively facilitate L2 learners' development of listening proficiency (Qiu & Xu, 2022). Nonetheless, its effect on motivation and self-efficacy was not examined. Motivation and self-efficacy are often studied simultaneously because they both have significant influences on human behavior and performance (Bandura, 1989). Motivation is the force that propels an individual's actions, whereas self-efficacy pertains to an individual's confidence in their capacity to carry out tasks and obtain desired results (Bandura, 1997). Motivation alone may not be sufficient without considering the belief in one's own capabilities in

accounting for human behavior and perforamnce. To conclude, it is essential for the present study to explore the two related but distinctive constructs together in an actual classroom setting.

Lamb et al. (2019) and Zhang et al. (2020) noted that close attention should be paid to the motivation of L2 learners as they face distinct difficulties that may affect their motivation. The process of learning an L2 can be slow and disheartening, especially in L2 listening contexts, because of its instantaneous and simultaneous nature (Qiu & Xu, 2022). In addition, Graham (2006) pointed out that L2 listening was especially challenging for L2 learners with low self-efficacy because it was not as visible a skill as writing and thus appeared to be less manageable. This is also true for L2 speaking, as L2 learners experience a range of speaking problems due to socio-cultural, institutional, and interpersonal factors (Gan, 2012). Undoubtedly, it is crucial to link individual differences variables to L2 listening and speaking outcomes. However, it is of greater explanatory value to situate these individual differences variables in a particular teaching context and examine how individual differences variables change over time within TBLT instruction on L2 listening/speaking. Therefore, investigating how L2 listening/speaking instruction can be performed more effectively by considering how individual differences (e.g., motivation and self-efficacy) longitudinally shape how L2 learners react to a particular type of instruction is a timely issue (Ellis, 2012). Identifying the dynamics of L2 listening motivation and efficacy in TSLT classrooms will help instructors understand changes at different time points and offer pedagogical implications.

Therefore, going beyond merely researching the effect of task-based approaches on L2 listening proficiency (Qiu & Xu, 2022), this study offers empirical evidence of the dynamics of change in self-efficacy and motivation using a latent growth modeling approach while implementing task-based approaches in L2 classrooms. The following questions were formulated to achieve this goal: (1) Do L2 listening and speaking self-efficacy and motivation change over a semester under task-based instruction? (2) If so,

how do self-efficacy and motivation change over the three-time points (i.e., at the beginning, middle, and end of the semester)? (3) Does the length of English learning influence changes, and how? It is anticipated that the present study will contribute to the understanding of how TBLT listening instruction is associated with L2 learners' effect and shed more light on learner-centered roles in L2 listening and speaking learning, which will help re-examine the effectiveness of task-based instruction from the affective perspective of L2 learners.

2. Literature review

2.1 Task-based instruction in L2 classrooms

Task-based language teaching (TBLT), viewed as an extension of communicative language teaching, is a principled approach to L2 teaching, drawing on a learner-centered and experiential premise (East, 2017). This is theoretically supported by the educational philosophy that L2 learners learn to communicate in L2 through purposeful real-time interactions (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). In TBLT, as opposed to the instruction of discrete linguistic forms, the teaching syllabus, curriculum, and lessons are centered around "tasks" that originate from learner needs in a target language (Long, 2015). Owing to their theoretical underpinnings in second language acquisition and empirical support (Mackey & Goo, 2007), many attempts have been made to examine the effects of particular task-related variables on L2 outcomes (Plonsky & Kim, 2016).

Recently, discussions on TBLT have necessitated the call to adapt it to specific cultural and teaching environments (Ellis, 2019). In Asia-Pacific, educators have recognized TBLT as a promising pedagogy for L2 learners, given the increasing need for global communication. Despite its auspicious intentions, various modifications should be made for TBLT to satisfy L2 learners' needs in Asian countries (Butler, 2017) because of the dominant role of teachers, prevalent traditional teaching methods, and examination-oriented learning culture (Littlewood, 2014). For example, Chinese university students need to pass various high-stakes language tests to achieve academic

success, graduate, and hunt for jobs. In light of learner needs and contextual factors, it has been argued that TSLT is more appropriate for Asian learners, as it considers tasks as a medium for providing communicative practices (Ellis, 2019) and includes prior explicit instruction with pre- and post-task activities that enable the transformation of explicit knowledge into implicit knowledge (Li et al., 2016). The TSLT is corroborated by two theories: the Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2015) and Limited Attentional Capacity (Skehan, 2014). The former proposes that pedagogical tasks should be sequenced for learners based on an increase in their cognitive complexity to gradually approximate the demands of target tasks in real-world communication. The latter argues that because of limited human attentional capacity, L2 learners are unable to attend to multiple aspects of language concurrently (complexity vs. accuracy, content vs. form) when facing a challenging task; as a result, they may turn to mind complexity while compromising accuracy (Skehan & Foster, 2001).

Task-based approaches have been widely implemented in L2-speaking classrooms (e.g., Harris & Leeming, 2022, Kim & Tracy-Ventura, 2013). Harris and Leeming (2022) found that Japanese English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) learners' oral proficiency and self-efficacy improved during a one-year TBLT course. In terms of task design, numerous empirical studies focus on the effects of task design factors with different levels of cognitive complexity or difficulty on L2 learners' oral performance. For instance, Bui (2014) found that Hong Kong English as a second language (ESL) learners spoke more fluently and accurately when performing on a familiar topic. Qiu (2020) also found that topic familiarity could increase the complexity of Chinese EFL learners' oral production. Robinson (2011) also proposed that tasks must be sequenced from less complex conditions (e.g., familiar topics) to more complex ones (e.g., unfamiliar topics).

In comparison, the effectiveness of task-based approaches in the development of L2 listening proficiency has been investigated less frequently. Flowerdew and Miller (2005) once acknowledged the merits of the TBLT approach to teaching listening: "Students

are asked to listen to what are described as 'authentic' situations and to 'do something' with the information" (p.14). Brunfaut and Révész (2015) recommended the TBLT approach for L2 listening instruction because it helps create an authentic learning environment for interaction, comprehension, and acquisition. Compared to the traditional teaching approaches to L2 listening that primarily follow the "listen-questions-answers" pattern (Field, 2019) and the focus on strategy-based instruction (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012), the TBLT approach for L2 listening goes beyond building up a real-time communication environment for L2 learners and emphasize learners' agency by putting them in the center of L2 classrooms. Of the limited number of studies concerning the influence of task complexity or individual differences on L2 listening task performance, Brunfaut and Révész (2015) revealed that lexical, phonological, and discourse complexities are associated with task difficulty and that L2 listeners' working memory capacity affects task performance. In addition to Brunfaut and Révész (2015), Monteiro and Kim (2020) found that topic familiarity and learner engagement affected L2 listening performance. In addition, using a quasi-experimental approach, we investigated how listening tasks were adapted to improve students' strategy use and listening proficiency. Qiu and Xu (2022) examined the effects of TSLT on the development of listening proficiency, and their results showed a positive impact of TSLT on L2 listening proficiency and positive perceptions of course instructors and learners concerning this approach. While these empirical studies offer evidence regarding the relationships between task-based instruction and the development of L2 speaking and listening skills, few consider learner-related variables such as motivation and self-efficacy. Given the crucial roles of learner motivation and self-efficacy in L2 learning, it is necessary to explore EFL learners' dynamic changes in English listening and speaking motivation and self-efficacy during task-based learning.

2.2 L2 listening and speaking motivation

Motivation plays an important role in learning success in L2 learning classrooms as it serves as an initial impetus and is the driving force to sustain the learning process

(Vandergrift, 2005). While general L2 learning motivation has been extensively explored (e.g., Noels et al., 2001; Takahashi & Im, 2020), learners' L2 listening and speaking motivation has not yet been fully examined. In terms of L2 listening motivation, existing studies have mainly focused on the motivation for cognitive processes during L2 listening comprehension–i.e., the extent to which L2 learners are motivated to listen. Drawing on the self-determination theory, which explains motivation on a continuum by characterizing three major types of orientations: extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, and amotivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017), Vandergrift (2005) found that extrinsic and intrinsic motivation were positively associated with metacognitive strategies. However, the correlation between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and L2 listening comprehension was not established. In Vandergrift's (2005) study, although self-determination theory was used to conceptualize motivation, conceptualization fell into general L2 learning motivation rather than L2 listening motivation. Based on the same theory, Bang and Hiver (2016) examined the structural relationships between cognitive and affective factors and L2 listening comprehension. Their results showed that intrinsic motivation exerted the strongest influence on L2 listening proficiency, and this direct relationship was first mediated by strategy use and then by linguistic knowledge and listening anxiety. Bang and Hiver (2016) demonstrated how intrinsic motivation, an affective dimension, impacts cognitive factors and L2 listening comprehension.

Echoing Goh's (2014) call for oracy instruction, Qiu and Xu (2021) have pointed out that L2 listening motivation and L2 speaking motivation must be treated and examined together. In their questionnaire-based study, they found that Chinese EFL learners' English listening motivation positively correlated with their speaking motivation. Apart from this study, other studies on L2 speaking motivation did not consider its relationship with L2 listening motivation; instead, some scholars (e.g., Hernandez, 2010) shifted their attention to how L2 learners' motivation affects their oral proficiency development in the study-abroad context. Conversely, others, such as Amiryousefi (2018), examined the relationships between different learner variables (e.g., age,

gender), affective variables (e.g., willingness to communicate, interest), and motivation. Nonetheless, certain studies were situated in a context where teaching effectiveness was examined, and learners' motivation in the learning context was explored.

The above literature mainly discusses how L2 learners are motivated to listen to and speak. In addition, a few task-based studies have concentrated on the motivation to perform particular tasks, namely, task motivation. A review of task motivation in second language acquisition showed that most studies focused on the effect of task characteristics on task motivation. For example, Poupore (2014) investigated how the task context in which different task types were implemented influenced task motivation by listening to students' judgments and found that task content relevant to personal lives and controversial themes was motivating. Regarding the association between task complexity and task motivation, Kormos and Préfontaine (2017) investigated how narrative tasks in different conditions affected task motivation and found that when there was no given storyline, students invented the plot and tailored the content to their linguistic knowledge; however, when a storyline was given, it was hard for students to adjust their content if they were short of linguistic knowledge for the narrative task. Another line of study has examined the effects of task motivation on task performance. Kormos and Dörnyei (2004) revealed that students with positive emotions and motivation were likely to produce more accurate words. In the field of L2 listening, Brunfaut and Révész (2015) examined the association between listening task characteristics and task difficulty. However, they did not touch upon task motivation, and neither listening motivation nor task motivation was examined.

The introduction of TBLT in L2 contexts increases L2 learners' motivation because it creates a supportive and interactive environment that fosters L2 learners' enjoyment (McDonough & Chaikitmongkol 2007). Bao (2012) found that TBLT enhanced participation and interest in Mandarin learning among secondary school students. Bao and Du (2015) found that TBLT could help create more opportunities to speak Chinese, increase participation and enjoyment, and alleviate anxiety. However, in the domain of

L2 listening and speaking instruction, more attention is required to determine how TBLT affects L2 listening and speaking motivation. In the present study, L2 learners' listening and speaking motivation was the focal point because it represents a broader area in the domain of L2 communication, and how it changes under task-based instruction warrants attention. To date, the available studies have not examined L2 listening or speaking motivation in TSLT classrooms.

2.4 L2 listening and speaking self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as an individual's "capacity to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory views human functioning in an agentive way and believes that self-efficacy is crucial as it enables individuals to rely on their thoughts to plan and regulate behaviors and negotiate the surrounding environment. Studies have identified a strong link between L2 self-efficacy and learning strategies at different levels of schooling in diverse contexts (e.g., Kim et al., 2015; Wang & Pape, 2005). In addition, the relationship between L2 self-efficacy and anxiety has been researched with mixed results (Han & Hiver, 2018; Torres & Turner, 2016). However, the dynamics of self-efficacy in L2 listening and speaking contexts have rarely been explored and require further attention.

In addition to the role of L2 self-efficacy in the general language learning context, available studies are also interested in particular language skills, such as L2 listening and speaking. Graham (2011) emphasized that since the L2 listening process was less controllable, "low self-efficacy may be particularly acute in second language listening" (p. 114). This notion was empirically validated by Wang et al. (2013), who found that Korean university students rated listening to English as less self-efficacious than reading, writing, and speaking. Thus, researchers must pay more attention to L2 listening self-efficacy and explore ways of fostering it in L2 listening contexts (Wyatt, 2022). Various topics have been identified in the available literature regarding empirical

studies of self-efficacy in the L2 listening context. Descriptive studies on the level of general self-efficacy concerning L2 listening comprehension have been conducted (e.g., Wang et al., 2013). For example, Wang et al. (2013) found that German university students have a higher level of self-efficacy in English listening comprehension than Chinese university students. Second, a few attempts have been made to examine the influence of self-efficacy on strategy use and L2 listening comprehension using questionnaire surveys (e.g., Du & Man, 2022; Xu et al., 2021). For example, in the L2 listening context, self-efficacy has been found to positively predict strategy use (Xu et al., 2021) and listening comprehension (Du & Man, 2022). However, none of these studies have investigated how task-based approaches affect L2 listening self-efficacy longitudinally.

Research related to L2 speaking self-efficacy tends to be situated in a communicative context and emphasizes that L2 speaking self-efficacy is positively correlated with L2 listening self-efficacy (Harris, 2022) because both speaking and listening skills are crucial in daily communication. Study-abroad contexts also create authentic communication opportunities for learners to use the target language, thus enhancing their L2 listening and speaking self-efficacy (Cubillos & Ilvento, 2013). In task-based research, Leeming (2017) traced Japanese EFL learners' speaking self-efficacy growth in a year-long TBLT English course and found that learners' self-efficacy generally grew because of their increasing familiarity with speaking English, relatively low initial self-efficacy, and positive feedback from the instructor; however, the self-efficacy of those with higher English proficiency was overtaken by that of lower-proficiency learners. Similarly, Harris and Leeming (2022) showed that TBLT enhanced L2 learners' speaking proficiency and self-efficacy. Pyun (2013) also found that L2 learners' self-efficacy predicted positive attitudes toward TBLT. While these studies emphasized the positive influence of task-based approaches on developing L2 speaking self-efficacy, listening self-efficacy beliefs have seldom been studied. Given that interactive tasks involve learners listening to an interlocutor's ideas and expressing their thoughts in response to the interlocutor, it is possible that learners' listening and speaking self-

efficacy are affected.

2.5 The changing L2 motivation and self-efficacy in L2 listening and speaking

Motivation and self-efficacy in L2 speaking and listening are not static. Busse (2013) examined the reasons learners were motivated to learn German as a foreign language during one school year. The results showed that at the start of the school year, students had a low level of self-efficacy in their abilities to complete the language tasks necessary for academic achievement, and their self-efficacy in L2 speaking and listening decreased even more as the year progressed. Xu and Luo (2021) investigated whether self-regulated listening instruction positively affected L2 listening motivation and found that L2 learners' listening motivation increased significantly within a semester. Regarding individual differences, existing studies have found that the duration of English learning leads to changes in motivation and self-efficacy. For example, MacIntyre et al. (2003) examined the impact of sex and age on willingness to communicate and L2 motivation with a sample of French immersion students and found that students' L2 willingness to communicate, self-efficacy, and how often they spoke French increased from 7th to 8th grade; however, there was a decrease in motivation between those two grades. In addition, Muñoz and Tragant (2001) examined the influences of age on motivation and attitudes toward L2 and found that young L2 learners demonstrated a greater inclination toward intrinsic motivation, while older cohorts had more types of extrinsic motivation and preferred to have an instrumental type of L2 motivation. Given the changing features of L2 motivation and self-efficacy, as well as the effect of age on the change in L2 motivation and self-efficacy, it is necessary to explore the role of the length of L2 learning in predicting the change in L2 motivation and self-efficacy in the context of TSLT. A close inspection of changes in L2 listening and speaking motivation and self-efficacy can yield a nuanced and comprehensive understanding of students' changing trajectories of motivation and self-efficacy, revealing when their motivation and self-efficacy reach the highest, middle, or lowest levels during the instructional period.

3. Method

This study aimed to trace the dynamics of L2 listening and speaking motivation and self-efficacy invoked by task-supported instruction. Task-supported language teaching (TSLT), a weaker version of TBLT, has been implemented and controlled in L2 classrooms. The TSLT was adopted because it features explicit instruction for the target linguistic forms associated closely with exam-oriented learning cultures in Asian countries, especially China. This study extends Qiu and Xu's (2022) study, in which the effectiveness of the TSLT was verified. No control group was involved as the purpose of the present study was NOT the examination of teaching effectiveness by comparing control and experimental groups. Statistically, it was inappropriate to compare the changes between the two groups using latent growth modeling. Thus, this study would no longer take a quasi-experimental design but would turn to examine the change in L2 learners' listening and speaking self-efficacy and motivation in TSLT classrooms. The data source was students' responses to the questionnaire survey at three-time points in a longitudinal and repeated manner.

3.1 Participants

The participants were 60 first-year Chinese university students majoring in English from Class 1 ($N = 29$) and Class 2 ($N = 31$) at one university. The ages of the participants ranged from 18 to 19 years. All participants agreed to participate in this study and were registered in the same English course taught by the same instructor in the second semester of the first year. The course instructor, who had been teaching English for several years, agreed to participate in the study. Specifically, we trained the course instructor to grasp the core of TSLT and comprehend how to properly implement it in L2 classrooms before the semester began.

The course instructor gave participants the freedom to choose whether to use TSLT materials or collaborate with their partners and informed them that their participation was voluntary and did not affect their course results. At the start of the semester, all

students were willing to try the new instructional approach, which they were informed was not drastically different from the previous one but rather included some innovative tasks. The two classes were identical in terms of English listening proficiency (p =.98 >.05).

3.2 Instruments

3.2.1 English proficiency test

An English proficiency test was administered to participants before the experiment. To ensure that the two classes had similar English proficiency, a cloze test with five passages and 103 blanks was used as the placement test. The validity of this cloze test has been previously verified (e.g., Qiu, 2020). Students were given 30 min to complete the cloze test at the beginning of the semester.

3.2.2 Communicative tasks

In total, eight interactive tasks (four types × two topics) were used in the English classrooms. The four types of tasks included role-play, map, and flowchart tasks, which were adapted from the listening section of the IELTS test and TED talk tasks. These tasks were adapted from the vocabulary test and TED talks because they can be developed into interactive tasks following Ellis's (2003) criteria for a task in TBLT or TSLT. First, they are related to real-time communication scenarios (e.g., signing up for a competition and asking for directions). Second, they contained information gaps preventing learners from using their language repertoire for communicative purposes. Third, they created opportunities for learners to practice their L2 speaking and listening skills. Among these four types of tasks, role-play, map, and flowchart tasks are one-way information-gap tasks during which one learner (the information provider) is required to pass on some information to their partner (information receiver). TED talk tasks are two-way information-gap tasks that require pairs to exchange information.

In the role-play tasks, the information provider and information seeker worked in pairs to provide or receive messages about an event or activity. The information provider in

Topic 1 had to change her role to that of the information receiver in Topic 2, as did the information seeker in Topic 1 to the information provider in Topic 2. The information provider was given a form that specified the event in every detail, whereas the information seeker was given a form with missing information in certain places. Communication occurred when the information seeker asked for missing information in the form of dialogue. This form of task operation and completion was applied to the remaining three task types, each with two topics. In the map tasks, the information seeker had to write down the name of each missing location by interacting with the information provider, who was responsible for explaining how to arrive at a place through particular routes. In the flowchart tasks, the information seeker communicated with the information provider regarding a plan or design to fill in the blank in each stage of the chart in succession with the received information. Finally, in the TED talk tasks, Students A and B listened to the first and second halves of the TED talk, respectively, took notes, and collaboratively wrote a summary of the TED talk after communicating with each other. In the other TED talk, Students A and B listened to the second and first halves, respectively.

For each task type, the most familiar and least unfamiliar tasks were selected based on a questionnaire on topic familiarity (Qiu & Lo, 2017). Topic familiarity was considered because, according to Robinson's (2011) Cognition Hypothesis, tasks with unfamiliar topics are more cognitively demanding than those with familiar topics, and sequencing tasks from simpler (those with familiar topics) to more complex ones (those with unfamiliar topics) facilitates L2 acquisition. In the questionnaire, six topics for each task type were provided for students to select, and they were asked to self-rate the extent to which they were familiar with each given topic on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = totally unfamiliar to 5 = very familiar. After calculating and comparing the mean values, participants attending a running activity (familiar) and an international money transfer (unfamiliar) were selected for the role-play tasks. Zoo tours (familiar) and Anglia Sculpture Park tours (unfamiliar) were selected for the map tasks. Advice on exam preparation (familiar) and how James wrote his paper on the Vikings

(unfamiliar) was selected for the flowchart tasks. How to balance work life (familiar) and how I changed from child refugees to international models (unfamiliar) were chosen for the TED talk tasks.

3.2.3 L2 listening/speaking motivation scale

Qiu and Xu's (2021) L2 listening/speaking motivation scale was used in the present study to measure L2 learners' motivation to listen to or speak English for general purposes during their university studies. This scale was adopted because it is the only L2 motivation scale in the literature with parallel question items that measure EFL learners' motivation to speak and listen. Informed by self-determination theory, the scale included eight dimensions (24 items) of L2 listening or speaking motivation: simulation (three items), challenge (three items), accomplishment (three items), novelty (three items), identified regulation (three items), introjected regulation (three items), external regulation (three items), and amotivation (three items). All items began with the overarching question: *Why do you spend time/effort (any amount) on English listening/speaking*? A sample item for simulation is "*Because understanding others' ideas/expressing my thoughts in English is an enjoyable experience.*" This scale has already been validated in the Chinese higher education context by Qiu and Xu (2021), with high reliability and validity. Participants were asked to self-rate on a 5-point Likert scale from "1 = strongly disagree to "5 = strongly agree." The Cronbach α of this scale at three-time points for L2 listening motivation is.78, .85, and.83, respectively, and .88, .88, and.89 for L2 speaking motivation.

3.2.4 L2 listening/speaking self-efficacy scale

This study used the L2 self-efficacy scale (Cubillos & Ilvento, 2013) to capture learners' self-efficacy in L2 speaking and L2 listening, respectively. Six items were used to measure the degree to which L2 learners were confident in listening and six in speaking in English. The instruction of this scale was "how sure you are that you could listen to/speak in English and…" and then participants self-rated the extent to which they were certain/uncertain about the following items. A sample item was "*understand the*

gist of what you hear/communicate the main point(s) of what you want to say." Participants were asked to self-rate on a 5-point Likert scale from "1 = not sure" to "5 = completely sure." The Cronbach α of the L2 listening self-efficacy scale at three-time points is.75, .82, and.89, respectively, and of L2 listening speaking self-efficacy at the three-time points is.84, .86, and.85.

3.2.5 Data collection

Data were collected during an English course that aimed to cultivate Chinese university students' general English listening and speaking proficiency. The course instructor was contacted several times regarding the data collection procedures before and during the process of investigating the changes in students' listening and speaking motivation and self-efficacy under the influence of TSLT in this study. By maintaining regular contact, the authors inquired if the course instructor had any issues while implementing this instructional approach and promptly addressed any questions. Additionally, we observed the lessons twice to ensure the successful completion of the TSLT. Criteria were established for successful TSLT lessons. First, teaching objectives must relate to L2 listening, communicative language teaching, and communicative competence in real-life settings. Second, there should be clear divisions among the pre-task, while-task, and post-task stages in each teaching cycle. Third, the main tasks must be developed according to Ellis's (2003) task characteristics. Fourth, the classes needed to be student-centered.

This study involved the implementation of eight tasks with two groups of students over a nine-week course. First, participants were introduced to the research project and completed an English proficiency test (C-test) within 30 minutes of the first week to ensure similar English proficiency. They were invited to complete a topic familiarity questionnaire to select familiar and unfamiliar topics for each task type during the same week (see Section 3.2.2). Subsequently, four types of tasks (two of each type) were used in the classrooms (Week 2 to Week 9). The participants completed one task per week. The TSLT was applied to classrooms in the form of these tasks. Participants performed

the role-play tasks first, followed by the map, flowchart, and TED talk tasks. For each task type, they first performed the task with a familiar topic and subsequently with an unfamiliar topic (Robinson, 2011). Overall, task implementation entailed three major stages: pre-task, while-task, and post-task (Ellis, 2006). The course instructor presented lead-in questions to stimulate the students' schemata and explained the unfamiliar vocabulary that would appear in the following task. Two students formed pairs with mutual agreement and collaborated throughout the process. The course instructor gave the students three minutes to prepare for the given task, and each pair completed the task within 15 minutes.

In weeks 2, 5, and 9, the participants were asked to complete the same motivation and self-efficacy questionnaires after they had completed the interactive task with their partners to trace the changes in these two variables. Participants were instructed to reflect their current level of motivation and self-efficacy while completing the questionnaires each time. It took approximately six minutes to complete the two questionnaires. After completing each task, the course instructor provided correct answers. The course instructor then provided general comments and feedback based on the student's classroom performance.

3.2.6 Data analysis

Latent growth modeling (LGM) was used to analyze the trajectories of changes in L2 listening, speaking motivation, and self-efficacy. The LGM methodology provides advantages in studying change and development in language learning over time and can investigate predictors of individual differences to answer questions about which variables exert important effects on the rate of development. It describes an individual's developmental trajectory and captures individual differences in these trajectories over time (Duncan & Duncan, 2009). It can also include covariates in the model and involve intercepts and slopes for interpretation between individuals. In this study, repeated measures of listening and speaking motivation and self-efficacy allowed the investigation of inter- and intra-individual differences in progressive changes (Singer

et al., 2003). Two latent factors, intercept (baseline level) and slope (rate of change), were specified to trace the changing trajectories of motivation and self-efficacy scores in the model using questionnaire data from wave 1(week 2) and wave 2 (week 5) to wave 3 (week 9). The intercept factor reflects the average scores for listening and speaking motivation and self-efficacy at baseline, and the slope factor captures the rate of change in listening and speaking motivation and self-efficacy per person per week during the follow-up period. Given that there were only three waves of listening motivation and self-efficacy, a linear slope was used in the LGM, considering model identification restrictions. The models were constructed and analyzed using *Mplus* 7.0. The model fits were evaluated based on TLI > 0.90, CFI > 0.90, RMSEA<0.08, and SRMR < 0.06, as suggested by Kline (2015), to test whether all models produced adequate model fits.

3.3 Control variable

Since the participants were all of similar age (18 or 19 years), age was not regarded as a control variable in the present study. In terms of gender, nine out of 60 students were male; thus, we did not include gender as a control variable. In addition, all participants were first-year university students, so the variable of years of schooling in university was not considered or controlled. However, the length of English exposure is positively associated with cognitive categorization patterns, and cognitive restructuring occurs through constant experience with the target language (Athanasopoulos et al., 2015). Provided that the participants had different English learning durations, the duration of English learning was selected as the control variable in this study.

4. Results

Descriptive statistics of the sampled participants are shown in Table 1. For L2 listening, self-efficacy increased steadily from 2.6 in wave 1 to 2.8 in wave 2 and 2.9 in wave 3. There was a slow growth in intrinsic motivation from 3.6 in wave to 3.7 in wave 2 and wave 3. However, decreased from 3.9 in wave 1 to 3.8 in wave 2 and 3. For L2 speaking, the mean score for self-efficacy was 2.9 in wave 1 and increased from 3.0 in wave 2 to

3.1 in wave 3. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation decreased slightly from waves 1 to 3. The average years of English learning were 9.2, and the mean score of the English proficiency pre-test was 48.9 for all students in the sample.

[Insert Table 1 about here]

The results of the LGM predicting the intercept and slope of self-efficacy and listening motivation are shown in Table 2. All models produced good fits, as indicated by the CFI, TLI, and SRMR in Table 2. For L2 listening self-efficacy, the intercept and slope are all statistically significant. The intercept was 1.79, indicating that the average mean self-efficacy score at baseline was 1.79. The slope for self-efficacy was 0.53, suggesting that self-efficacy scores increased by 0.53 for each wave. The intercept and slope of years of English learning were not statistically significant. The intercept for the English proficiency pre-test was 0.01 and statistically significant, indicating that better English proficiency predicted better self-efficacy for all students. The mean IM level at baseline was 2.94, and this level increased by 0.49 for each wave. The variables of years of English learning and English proficiency pretest were not statistically significant. For extrinsic motivation, the mean level at baseline was 4.58, and the slope was negative, indicating that extrinsic motivation decreased by 0.42 for each wave. The intercept and slope for the English proficiency pretest were not statistically significant.

[Table 2 is near here]

Table 3 presents the results of the latent growth modeling for predicting L2 speaking self-efficacy and motivation. The self-efficacy model produced an inadequate fit. The modeling fit for intrinsic and extrinsic motivations was good. The intercept for intrinsic motivation or extrinsic motivation was 3.43 or 4.59, respectively. However, the slopes for these two variables were not statistically significant, although the slope for intrinsic motivation was positive and that for extrinsic motivation was negative.

[Insert Table 3 about here]

5. Discussion

This study investigated how L2 learners' listening and speaking motivation and self-efficacy changed over time when they were taught TSLT in a semester-long English course. The findings suggest the positive role of TSLT, as intrinsic motivation levels increased significantly over time. However, the level of extrinsic listening motivation decreased significantly over time, indicating a negative influence of the TSLT on extrinsic listening motivation. The results also revealed that, in TSLT classrooms, students' self-efficacy levels increased significantly over time. Learners with higher C-test scores tend to exhibit higher listening self-efficacy. Notwithstanding the results on listening motivation and self-efficacy, the impact of TSLT on L2 speaking motivation and self-efficacy is unclear.

Adopting the same teaching approach as that of Qiu and Xu (2022), this study supports the effectiveness of TSLT by offering additional evidence that it can cultivate more intrinsically motivated and self-efficacious EFL listeners. Specifically, the findings show that TSLT may increase intrinsic listening motivation, which partly aligns with Bao and Du's (2015) study, although the current study was conducted in an EFL context, whereas Bao and Du's (2015) study was implemented to teach Chinese to L2 learners. This enhanced intrinsic listening motivation is possibly due to positive attitudes toward task-based approaches, as reported in previous studies (e.g., Pyun, 2013; Qiu & Xu, 2022). Nonetheless, a critical aspect worthy of attention is that the TSLT lowers extrinsic listening motivation. One possible explanation is that the level of extrinsic motivation was already high at the beginning of this study; subsequently, the interactive tasks enabled students to focus more on the learning process than on the outcomes that cater to external satisfaction.

In addition to the positive impact of task-based approaches on L2 speaking self-efficacy

reported in the current literature (e.g., Leeming, 2017), this study also revealed that TSLT could boost L2 listening self-efficacy. Similar to the study-abroad context, in which learners immerse themselves in authentic communication, TSLT creates real-time communication opportunities for learners to use the target language. Such authentic communication experiences may boost learners' listening self-efficacy (Cubillos & Ilvento, 2013). This finding also reinforces that besides its effects on L2 speaking proficiency, task-based approaches also involve the practice of L2 listening skills (Qiu & Xu, 2022), and thus, L2 listening self-efficacy and motivation should be considered. Moreover, learners with higher English abilities had better English listening self-efficacy. This positive relationship echoes Du and Man's (2022) study. In relation to the discrepancies observed in the changes of motivation and self-efficacy, we tentatively propose that individuals with higher levels of self-efficacy in L2 learning are more likely to attribute their success to internal factors, thereby relying more on intrinsic motivation rather than extrinsic motivation. This explanation is supported by Hsieh and Kang's (2010) empirical findings.

Although L2 speaking self-efficacy and motivation were examined in this study, the TSLT did not seem to significantly affect learners' speaking motivation. Learners already had high levels of L2 speaking motivation (3.8, 5.0 for intrinsic motivation, and 4.1 for extrinsic motivation) at the beginning of the semester. The room for them to significantly enhance speaking motivation is somewhat limited; thus, no significant changes were found in intrinsic or extrinsic motivation over time. In general, learners maintained high levels of speaking motivation throughout the instructional period, implying that TSLT is motivating. Furthermore, the CFI being below 0.9 indicates an inadequate model fit. There can be a few reasons for an unsatisfactory model fit, such as measurement errors, inadequate sample size, and violation of assumptions (Kline, 2015). This makes it hard to assert that the empirical data align well with the latent growth model, which is essential in determining the meaningfulness of the influences of TSLT on L2 speaking self-efficacy. Consequently, we cannot affirm that the influence of TSLT on L2 speaking self-efficacy is significant. Given the positive effect

of task-based approaches on L2 speaking self-efficacy mentioned in previous studies (e.g., Leeming, 2017), this issue warrants further attention in future research.

6. Conclusion

In conclusion, the results imply that EFL learners' English listening self-efficacy and intrinsic listening motivation increased over time in TSLT classrooms. Nonetheless, their extrinsic listening motivation decreased over time, and their speaking motivation remained unchanged during the semester. These findings echo the importance of teaching listening and speaking skills together in task-based L2 learning and teaching (Goh, 2014; Qiu & Xu, 2021) and offer pedagogical implications from the perspective of learners' effect.

First, the benefit of task-based approaches may not only be relevant to the development of listening or speaking proficiency (Harris, 2022; Qiu & Xu, 2022) but may also relate to an increase in listening self-efficacy and intrinsic listening motivation. Drawing on the findings of this study, information-gap tasks adapted from vocabulary test materials and TED talks are appropriate for L2 classrooms. It is also necessary to ensure that learners are given equal opportunities to speak and listen in English by swapping roles. Sequencing tasks from cognitively simpler (familiar topics) to more complex (unfamiliar topics) ones are also helpful. Second, when implementing TSLT in L2 listening and speaking classrooms, L2 instructors must be aware of the dynamic and longitudinal changes in students' motivation and self-efficacy (Leeming, 2017). They may constantly trace students' affect changes, either by using a questionnaire survey or conducting qualitative interviews. Course instructors should provide students with more detailed and positive feedback, helping them become more self-efficacious and motivated. In addition, instructors may value students' mistakes when listening and speaking, demonstrate how to improve, and let students treat each error as a learning opportunity. Third, our findings indicate that learners' English proficiency predicted an increase in their listening self-efficacy during the instruction period. It is not surprising

that more capable learners tend to be more self-efficacious regarding their listening competence. However, it is worth noting that lower-achieving learners may need more support during the learning process. Instructors can also provide positive feedback, and encouragement from instructors can be provided (Leeming, 2017).

This study had several limitations. Therefore, a larger sample size may have been used in this study. In addition, our present study only sheds light on motivation and self-efficacy; other affective variables, such as enjoyment, boredom, and anxiety, were not included. The focus of the present study was self-efficacy and motivation in L2 listening and speaking; therefore, it homogenized participants in terms of English proficiency without considering similarities in L2 listening and speaking proficiency. Future studies should consider L2 listening and speaking proficiency when selecting participants at the beginning of the study. Third, only three-wave longitudinal data were collected in this study. However, more waves of data could have been collected so that longitudinal growth curve models could be applied to analyze how the key independent variables predict the change in motivation and self-efficacy.

Despite these limitations, this study adopted longitudinal growth curve models to explore changes in L2 listening and speaking motivation and self-efficacy in TSLT classrooms and offers novel insights into the benefits of task-based approaches. The results of this study emphasize the necessity of attending to individual learner factors and their roles in a real classroom, where a certain type of teaching approach is implemented. In future research, more learner factors should be investigated in task-based L2 classrooms, and longitudinal research is necessary to capture developmental trajectories or dynamic changes during the learning process. It is also recommended that dynamic changes in learners' motivation, self-efficacy, and other factors be addressed using multiple datasets (e.g., questionnaires, observations, and interviews).

Conflicts of interest

None

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