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Developing listening comprehension competence in Japanese English as a Foreign Language Learners

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DEVELOPING LISTENING COMPREHENSION COMPETENCE IN

JAPANESE ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNERS

A Project

Presented to the

Faculty of

California State University,

San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

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in

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Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

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by

Masahiro Fujita

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this project is to investigate a model
for developing listening comprehension competence on the
part of Japanese learners of English as a foreign language,
with a view toward promoting practical and communicative
English competence. In Japan, the emphasis of English
education has traditionally been on reading instruction,
which is based on grammar-translation methodology. However,
Japanese society increasingly demands communicative
English competence. Therefore, on the basis of the trend
toward even more practical English education in Japan,
this project represents a developmentally appropriate
teaching approach for listening comprehension. The aims of
this project are not only to expedite the development of
listening comprehension competence, but also to promote
holistic communicative competence, thus, contributing to
what improved English education in Japan.

This project consists of five chapters. The first
chapter, the introduction, elucidates the current
situation of Japanese education. The second chapter, the
review of literature, describes the five key concepts of
this project. The third chapter, the theoretical framework,
provides the theoretical design and interconnections of

the concepts in the second chapter. The fourth chapter,

the curriculum design, explains the rationale for

connection between the theoretical framework in Chapter

Three and the instructional lesson units. The fifth

chapter, the assessment, offers the proposed assessment

for the instructional units described in Chapter Four.

Lastly, six lesson plans and a list of useful homepages

for language learning are included as appendices.

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INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

In this, the early 21st century, Japanese education

has been undergoing a major transformation. According to

Fujita (2000), the present period can be characterized as

that of the third reform, following establishments of the

first public education system during the Meiji era (1868-

1912) and the second reform after World War II. In April

of 2002, the government curriculum guidelines were changed

dramatically. The number of lessons and the contents of

each subject were reduced substantially and a five-day

school week was introduced to all the public schools in

Japan for the purpose of reforming the traditional

educational system that relied primarily on memorization.

Contrary to this overreliance on rote learning,

English education requires curricular innovation to foster

students' practical communicative competence. Comparing

this goal to current practice, most people realize that

there are many defects in English language teaching in

Japan. In society at large, there is much demand for more

practical English instruction for business purposes.

The results of Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) are often used as the indicator to show whether Japanese speakers have an acceptable level of English proficiency. According to one survey (Educational Testing Service, 2002), the average score of Japanese examinees between 2000-2001 was 183 out of a possible 300, which ranked in 145th place of 155 countries in the world. Moreover, the listening subtest, which was the weakest part for Japanese people, was between 149th and 152nd place of 155 countries. This test is quite reliable because it is well designed to measure listening, writing, and reading competence. Therefore, this low score indicates that English competency for Japanese people has become a crisis.

A quarter of a century ago, a former United States ambassador to Japan commented that despite the huge amount of effort put into the teaching of English in Japan, the results are meager (Reischauer, 1977). The educational environment that produces this poor result has not improved much even today.

In light of these reforms and demands to ameliorate Japanese English education, teachers must create more carefully prepared lessons than ever before. It is obvious

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that English teachers need more professional skills and
knowledge.

The Historical View of English Education in Japan

Public English education in Japan began in the Meiji
period (1868-1912). In fact, in 1872, the number of
foreign teachers in Japan was about 190: 119 from Britain,
50 from France, and 16 from America (Takanashi, 1997).
Most of the English teachers gave their lectures in the
"direct method," meaning that instruction took place
directly in English (Torii, 1974).

Shortly thereafter, Japanese English teachers began
to address the demand for English in schools throughout
Japan. They used the "grammar-translation method," which
was very effective in teaching English using Japanese
methods, making it easy for teachers to evaluate the
students. However, this method allowed no discussion,
which made it less practical for the purpose of
communication.

In the period between 1897 and 1907, the rapid
assimilation of knowledge from Europe had begun to decline
because ultra-nationalistic thought appeared among
Japanese people after series of triumphs in the Japanese-
Chinese and Japanese-Russia wars (Takanashi, 1997). At

that time, some people resisted the emphasis on English education. The Minister of Education of the day declared that education in Japan must be done in Japanese (Takanashi, 1997). After this decision, English lost its role as a medium for communication for higher education in Japan.

The decision per se was not a mistake because nowadays in many developing countries, high academic discussions or lectures take place only in English, but not in the mother tongue (Takanashi, 1997). In such nations, people do not have enough academic vocabulary in their native language to discuss scientific topics because they have relied too much on English. This is a serious problem that is a matter of life or death for the survival of intellectual life in a native language.

However, it is also important to point out that the Minister of Education's decision brought about so-called "examination English" because the practical aspects of listening to and expressing in English were not emphasized (Takanashi, 1997). Both teachers and students were unconcerned about English pronunciation, intonation, or listening competence, because these skills were not needed to pass the examination (Kitao, 1996). The aim of English

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teaching in Japan had become to teach complicated

techniques to solve test questions, almost like decoding a

password. English in Japan had become like Latin in

Europe, an academic subject rather than a living language.

Several other teaching approaches have been

introduced to the English classroom, such as the "read and

understand method," whereby students would read and

understand English without rearranging it into a Japanese

syntactic pattern, and the "oral method." However, these

methods could not and did not proliferate as English

teaching approaches due to the nature of the English

examination pressures (Takanashi, 1997).

English Education in Japan

Class Size. Classes in Japan are large, often with

as many as 40 students. Because teachers cannot spare time

for each student, they have no choice but to give teacher-

centered lectures to many students. In this situation,

students hardly speak English, although this is an English

class.

Reading-Oriented English Education. In Japan,

English education is closely associated with

Westernization. In short, the main aim of learning English

is acquiring knowledge and technology from advanced

European countries via printed materials. As a result, reading skills are much more emphasized than listening, speaking, and writing. It has been only recently that the focus has been on real communicative competence. However, reading-oriented teaching is still dominant in Japan. In addition, the amount of listening, speaking, and writing activities are limited and are based primarily on mechanical work. For example, according to Koike (1982), most composition classes do not actually require learners to write compositions, but just let them translate Japanese passages into English. Traditionally, open-ended answers are not preferred in Japanese education. However, language learning is so creative and complex that these dispositions have to be changed.

Ineffective Use of Language Equipment. In recent years, most schools have acquired new language learning equipment such as networked computers and multimedia software. Many teachers, however, have not been making the best use of these effective teaching tools because they are not familiar with these facilities enough to incorporate them into their lessons, and they are not willing to devote much time to any teaching methods except preparing students for the entrance examinations.

Ineffective Use of Assistant English Teachers. The

Japanese government began the Japan Exchange and Teaching

(JET) program in 1987, which invited many young English-

speaking persons to Japan as assistant English teachers.

As a result, nowadays each school has at least one

assistant English teacher (A.E.T) in Japan. Nevertheless,

students have only a few lessons from the A.E.T per year.

Firstly, this is due to the fact that quite a few parents

and students expect the classroom teacher to teach

students the skills and knowledge necessary for the

entrance examinations. Moreover, although team-teaching is

a main teaching style for A.E.T because they are not

officially licensed teachers, many Japanese English

teachers are reluctant to create their lessons in

collaboration with the A.E.T. It is sometimes a nuisance

for these Japanese teachers to prepare team-teaching

lessons because few of them are willing to spare time from

teaching for the entrance examinations, and others do not

have enough command of English to work with the A.E.T.

Needs for Practical English Competence

As described above, communicative competence was so

long ignored that learners did not have motivation to

learn listening, speaking, and writing skills, which are

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not deemed as important for examinations. Also, learners do not have many opportunities to use English and do not feel the necessity for communicative English competence because Japan is a homogeneous and monolingual country. However, acquiring communicative English competence can give people an unlimited possibility for success. For example, eighty percent of computer data is processed and stored in English, and five thousand newspapers--more than half of the newspapers published in the world--are in English (Kitao, 1996).

Moreover, in the business world, which is becoming borderless, English is an essential tool. Therefore, language teachers have to make students aware of the need for practical English competence to motivate their learning. Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995) described that the teacher's role is "to set up situations in which students feel a sense of purpose and can engage in real communication" (p. 96). Summarily, the role of teachers is no longer as a transmitter of information, but as a facilitator of learning.

Target Teaching Level

The target of this project is the high school level. I think that high school graduates should have enough

ability to communicate with native-English speakers about easy topics. Also, the government curriculum guidelines for high school (1999) defines the overall objectives of language learning as "to develop students' abilities to understand a foreign language and express themselves in it, to foster a positive attitude toward communicating in it, and to heighten interest in language and culture, while deepening international understanding." Contrary to these objectives, most high school graduates acquire only a little communicative English skills after six years of English learning. More important, most of them do not have any confidence to communicate in English, and regard the knowledge they learned in school as good for nothing but examinations. As a result, many people experience great difficulty in acquiring practical English competence when they need it for business or for other purposes. Therefore, I would like to suggest in this project that a teaching approach be made to foster communicative English competence in high school students through listening comprehension training. This foundation would be the basis to further advance language learning.

Purpose of the Project

This project provides a teaching approach to foster communicative English competence. This approach is mainly based on listening comprehension training because listening ability is essential for all the other language skills. Therefore, in this project, I analyze why listening competence takes priority over the others, and what might be necessary to develop practical listening comprehension ability.

Content of the Project

This project consists of five chapters: introduction (Chapter One), review of the literature (Chapter Two), theoretical framework (Chapter Three), curriculum design (Chapter Four), and a proposed assessment (Chapter Five). Chapter One presents the current situation of Japanese English education and its challenges, as well as the purpose of this project. Chapter Two describes the five main key words of this project: (1) the information processing model of listening comprehension, (2) learning strategies in listening comprehension, (3) phonological contrast between English and Japanese affecting listening comprehension, (4) computer-assisted language learning,

and (5) project-based language learning; and how they can be interrelated to develop listening competence. Chapter Three provides a theoretical framework based on the five key words described in Chapter Two. Chapter Four explains the rationale for connection between instructional lesson units and the theoretical framework. Lastly, Chapter Five offers the proposed assessment for the instructional units described in Chapter Four.

Significance of the Project

The purpose of this project is to develop an effective teaching approach to foster practical English communication skills through the development of listening comprehension ability. The information processing model makes it possible to create a listening exercise based on the human mental process. Also, learning strategies can facilitate listening comprehension processing. In addition, phonological knowledge is indispensable to overcome negative transfer from Japanese language, which has many different features than English, and develop the new sound system of English. Lastly, computer-assisted language learning and project-based language learning can integrate language skills to develop the actual target

language use. Listening comprehension is such a complicated, active process that its learning should not involve merely listening, but rather scientifically based lessons. Also, teachers should assume a new role as a facilitator of learners' language development.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The Information Processing Model of Listening
Comprehension

Importance of the Information-Processing Model

For a long time, many researchers and educators have

been studying how they can teach language to learners

effectively. However, it was not until recently that brain

function was considered in the field of education.

According to Genesee (2000), understanding how the brain

learns helps language teachers enhance their effectiveness

in the classroom. Schwartz (1998) described how

information processing is needed to represent, organize,

transform, and integrate information in language learning.

Second/foreign language listening comprehension has a more

complex cognitive process than other processes of language

comprehension (Buck, 1995). Therefore, teachers of

listening need to draw upon these pedagogical experiences

to understand the function of specific information-

processing models.

The Information-Processing Model

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), information

processing refers to the process by which new information

is acquired, stored, and retrieved from memory. Also, Anderson (1985) described the information-processing model as consisting of three interrelated and recursive processes: perceptual processing, parsing, and utilization. The processes seem to co-relate with one another, recycle, and be modified based on what happened in prior or past processes (Schwartz, 1998). These three steps are the universal processes in all learning.

According to Schwartz (1998), in the information-processing model, memory is placed in three separate stores: (1) sensory or echoic memory, (2) short-term or working memory, and (3) long-term memory. Figure 1 shows each function in these three stores. Because processing in each of these stages is necessary for understanding information, knowing the function of each stage helps teachers expedite their students' listening comprehension.

Sensory/Echoic Memory. In the sensory (or echoic) memory stage, a listener perceives sounds and retains them beginning language learners often cannot perceive spoken for one second or less. The processed information can go on to the next stage, short-term memory, in the form of words, but information that cannot be processed in this

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Sensory (Echoic) Memory
• Temporary--one second or less • A literal copy • Sounds may be noticed and recognized as words

↓

Short-Term (Working) Memory

• Temporary--up to sixty seconds
 	
• Up to seven items/chunks of meaning organized syntactically, semantically, or phonologically
 	
• Processing capacity increased by:
    (1) Rehearsal--keeps items longer in short-term memory
    (2) Elaboration--relates items in short-term memory to information already known
 	
• Semantic meaning is retained: actual words are lost

↓

Long-Term Memory

• Permanent--unlimited number of items held Indefinitely
 	
• Extracted meanings become part of existing schemata or existing scripts, or create a new schema
 	
• The two types of knowledge:
  (1) Declarative knowledge--knowing information about things
  (2) Procedural knowledge--knowing how to use information

Figure 1. Information-Processing Model of
Listening Comprehension

Source: Schwartz, A. (1998). Listening in a foreign
language. Unpublished document. (ERIC Document
Reproduction Service No. ED433723) p. 28

stage cannot go on to the next stage. Therefore, English

as meaningful sounds, but just continuous sound streams or

noises (Schwartz, 1998).

Short-Term/Working Memory. Short-term or working

memory has the capacity of about 20 to 60 seconds and

about seven chunks of information (Coakley & Wolvin, 1985,

cited in Schwartz, 1998). At this stage, in order to hold

more information, the information processed in the

previous stage is chunked or organized into syntactic,

semantic, or phonologic meaning units according to a

pattern (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Learners' background

knowledge and prior knowledge help them organize the

information. Two processes, rehearsal and elaboration, may

occur at this stage to increase its capacity. Rehearsal

involves the repetition of items, which allows information

to be retained longer in short-term memory. Meaningful

repetition to connect the language with its meaning helps

listeners organize information into long-term memory

(Schwartz, 1998). Elaboration, on the other hand, helps to

process information by relating it to information that is

already known, such as mnemonic vocabulary learning

(Schwartz, 1998). These processes can increase the amount

of information chunks or units transferred to long-term memory.

Long-Term Memory. Long-term memory has an unlimited capacity. Only processed semantic meanings, however, can reach this stage. At this stage, all the extracted information is stored as either procedural or declarative knowledge (Anderson, 1985). Declarative knowledge is information about things. Procedural knowledge is information about how to do things; that is, how to use information. According to Buck (1995), procedural knowledge is more important in listening comprehension because efficient language processing must be automatic. This means that listening to a fast speech rate of second/foreign language is a much more crucial problem than that of native language listening, especially for lower-intermediate learners. Thus, achieving automatic processing is crucial for second/foreign language listening comprehension. Also, Call (1985) describes that memory for target language input operates over a shorter span than that of native language. To sum up, listening instruction has to be constructed based on the characteristics of information processes in order to facilitate comprehension of a stream of information.

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A Study of Brain Function

Research on brain function has shown that different regions of the brain have specialized functions whose development is innate (Genesee, 2000). Genesee (2000), however, suggested that recent studies indicate that the brain is "much more malleable" than generally believed to be (p. 3). In short, each function of specific regions of the brain can be shaped by experience and learning, and synaptic growth is possible no matter how old the person (Genesee, 2000). According to this view of the brain, learning is defined as making connections, not only from adjacent neurons, but also across distant areas (Genesee, 2000). Neural connections are a key to learning because a sufficient number of neural networks is needed to develop learning and cognitive skills. Genesee (2000) also suggested that both approaches, bottom-up (simple to complex) and top-down (complex to simple), have equal importance in language learning. Similarly, Buck (1995) described that one mistaken assumption of language processing is that language learning occurs in a fixed, bottom-up sequence. Therefore, a teacher of listening comprehension has to create activities and environment to facilitate both of these approaches.

Listening Instruction Based on the Information

Schwartz (1998) described that "listening skills cannot be acquired just through exposure to language; they need to be explicitly taught and practiced" (p. 7). In short, listening skills have to be trained consciously and constantly through well-planned lessons. Based on Krashen's view, providing learners with input that is just one step ahead of their listening processing capabilities is essential to fostering their listening comprehension competency. Therefore, the teacher of listening skills must act as facilitator and modulator to foster learners' listening skills.

As described above, language teachers have to organize listening exercises to expedite and guide learners' comprehension and encourage and maintain their interests. Three listening stages are often used to meet these requirements. The model of pre-, while-, and post-listening, was initially used for reading instruction and has proved to be equally successful to listening (Schwartz, 1998). All the language skills and strategies discussed above are integrated into each stage.

Pre-Listening Stage. The goal of instruction in the pre-listening stage is to help set the expectations that

are normally present before listening in real settings. In short, it is preparatory work to enable learners to "be tuned in so that they know what to expect, both in general and for particular tasks" (Underwood, 1989, p. 30). According to Schwartz (1998), pre-listening activities include the following:

- Looking at pictures, maps, diagrams, or graphs,

- Reviewing vocabulary or grammatical structures,

- Reading something relevant,

- Constructing semantic webs (a graphic arrangement of concepts or words showing how they are related),

- Predicting the content of the listening text,

- Going over the directions or instructions for the activity, and

- Doing guided practice. (Schwartz, 1998, p. 15)

Activities in this stage can enhance learners' prediction and prior or background knowledge about the text. Consequently, listeners can receive a massive amount of comprehensible input during the listening activity. The pre-listening stage is crucial to improving the quality of the listening activity.

<u>While-Listening Stage.</u> While-listening activities
are the activities that learners are asked to do either
during the time they are listening to the passage, video,
or teacher talk, or immediately after (Schwartz, 1998).
The aim of the while-listening stage is "to help learners
develop the skill of eliciting messages from spoken
language" (Underwood, 1989, p. 45). These activities have
to be interesting to motivate listeners, and not simple,
easy tasks designed to avoid their failures and
demotivations. The aim of activities in this stage is to
support learners' listening comprehension, which include
exercises such as the following:

- Circle an answer, a picture, or an object,

- Order items or pictures,

- Complete grids,

- Follow a route on a map,

- Fill in a picture,

- Check off items in a list, and

- Complete cloze excercises. (Schwartz, 1998, p. 16)

These activities can help listeners monitor their
comprehension while listening to the text, and effectively

organize the information they hear. However, learners need to be trained to check their comprehension as they listen (Schwartz, 1998).

Post-Listening Stage. Post-listening activities are conducted after learners have listened to all the text. The aims of this stage are "to check the comprehension of the whole text and react to the text, to evaluate students' listening skills and use of listening strategies, and to extend the knowledge gained from the listening text to other contexts" (Schwartz, 1998, p. 17). The post-listening activities are much more flexible than the previous ones. These may extend what has been learned to other kinds of activities such as reading, speaking, or writing. Also, response categories are essential such as condensing, extending, and modeling (Schwartz, 1998). Therefore, post-listening activities include exercises such as role-playing, storytelling, outlining, creative writing, debating, and outside researching. Post-listening is an important function, which can stimulate learners' interests and learning motivations.

To sum up, the theory of the information-processing model can make it possible to improve the quality of listening activity. As a matter of course, teachers have

to create the listening lessons that facilitate their students' listening process as much as possible. In other words, learning never happens through just listening. The improvement of listening comprehension occurs when only harmonizing the level of difficulty of content with learners' readiness and motivation. Therefore, the knowledge of the information-processing model is essential for teachers to create the listening lessons that can foster learners' listening comprehension ability.

Learning Strategies in Listening Comprehension

Importance of Learning Strategies

The use of learning strategies is an important trend in second/foreign language learning. Research has shown that effective language learners know how to use appropriate strategies to reach their language goals, whereas ineffective language learners are not good at their strategy choice and use (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). Learning strategies include techniques to comprehend, store, and remember new information (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). For language learners, the effective combination of learning strategies and listening comprehension is also a key to achieving language learning goals. Because

listening involves an active on-going process rather than merely passive reception, second/foreign language learners need strategies to manage the information they hear. In short, strategies enable language learners to cope with input which they may have only half understood or perhaps not understood at all (Schwartz, 1998).

Lack of Learning Strategies on the Part of Japanese English Learners

Learning strategies currently have little place in contemporary Japanese education, due to its excessively teacher-centered environment. Students are so accustomed to a passive learning style that it is difficult for them to think by themselves or create and manage their own learning. Grammar-translation and rote-memorization methods, both of which are still dominant in Japan and which incorporate excessive teacher control, deprive students of imagination and responsibility for their own learning. More independent and positive learning habits, however, are required in order to acquire advanced language proficiency. Learning strategies are necessary to help Japanese EFL learners attain a high level of communicative English proficiency and develop their cognitive thinking.

In terms of listening comprehension, less effective learners tend to look for meaning on "a word-by-word basis" and not to try to make an inference for unfamiliar words or phrases (O'Malley & Chamot, 1989, p. 429). In addition, according to the study of Japanese EFL students by Nagano (1991), less effective listeners are not successful at segmenting a stream of speech into words, which greatly reduces the amount of information they can process initially, which is a peculiar drawback for Japanese EFL learners. As a result of their limited information, it is quite hard for Japanese EFL learners to construct meaning from spoken English.

Three Kinds of Learning Strategies

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) classified learning strategies into three categories: metacognitive, cognitive, and social/affective strategies. Metacognitive strategies are "executive processes" which are associated with the regulation and management of learning (Chamot, 1995, p. 15; see Table 1). Such strategies include planning for a task, monitoring a task in progress, and evaluating the success of a task after completion. Some researchers insist that metacognitive strategies are the most important of all the learning strategies because

Table 1. Metacognitive Learning Strategies

Strategies	Definitions
Advance organization	Previewing the main ideas and concepts of the material to be learned, often by skimming the text for the organizing principle.
Advance preparation	Rehearsing the language needed for an oral or written task.
Affective	Managing personal emotion to get attention to tasks.
Organizational planning	Planning the parts, sequence, and main ideas to be expressed orally or in writing.
Selective attention	Attending to or scanning key words, phrases, linguistic markers, sentences, or types of information.
Self-monitoring	Checking one's comprehension during listening or reading, or checking one's oral/written production while it is taking place.
Self-evaluation	Judging how well one has accomplished a learning task.
Self-management	Seeking or arranging the conditions that help one learn, such as finding opportunities for additional language or content input and practice.

Source: Chamot, A. U., & O'Malley, J. M. (1994). The CALLA handbook, Implementing the cognitive academic language learning approach. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc. pp. 62-63

they assist learners in regulating their own learning

(Pressley, Harris, & Guthrie, 1992), are linked to

motivation (Paris & Winograd, 1990), and increase

learners' sense of self-efficacy or confidence in success

(Zimmerman, 1990).

Cognitive strategies, the second category, are utilized during the execution of a task in order to facilitate comprehension or production (Chamot, 1995; see Table 2). Elaboration or use of prior knowledge, grouping or classifying items for effective learning, making inferences while listening or reading, and taking notes of important information to remember are all examples of cognitive strategies.

The third category of learning strategy is social/affective strategies, which include questioning for clarification, cooperating with peers on a learning task, and using affective controls such as positive self-talk to decrease anxiety (see Table 3). Social/affective strategies are related to the other two types of learning strategies (Chamot, 1995). For example, using a metacognitive strategy during listening, learners might face some sentences that do not make sense or unfamiliar words, and then they might try to use a cognitive strategy to solve the problem. In the case that neither a metacognitive nor cognitive strategy was successful, they might use a social/affective strategy as a final resort (Chamot, 1995).

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Table 2. Cognitive Learning Strategies

Strategies	Definitions
Resourcing	Using reference materials such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, or textbooks.
Grouping	Classifying words, terminology, numbers, or concepts according to their attributes.
Note taking	Writing down key words and concepts in abbreviated verbal, graphic, or numerical form.
Summarizing	Making a mental or written summary of information gained through listening or reading.
Deduction	Applying rules to understand/produce language, solve problems.
Imagery	Using visual images (either imaginative or actual) to understand and remember new information or to make a mental representation of a problem.
Auditory representation	Playing in back of one's mind the sound of a word, phrase, or fact in order to assist comprehension and recall.
Elaboration	Relating new information to prior knowledge, relating different parts of new information to each other, or making meaningful personal associations with the new information.
Transfer	Using what is already known about language to assist comprehension or production.
Inferencing	Using information in the text to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or complete missing parts.

Source: Chamot, A. U., & O'Malley, J. M. (1994). The CALLA handbook, Implementing the cognitive academic language learning approach. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing, Inc. pp. 62-63

Table 3. Social/Affective Learning Strategies

Strategies	Definitions
Questioning for clarification	Eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanation, rephrasing, examples, or verification.
Cooperation	Working together with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check a learning task, or get feedback on oral or written performance.
Self-talk	Reducing anxiety by using mental techniques that make one feel competent to do the learning task.

Source: Chamot, A. U., & O'Malley, J. M. (1994). The CALLA handbook, Implementing the cognitive academic language learning approach. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc. pp. 62-63

Therefore, these three types of strategies are related to one another. Strategic learners have an ability to regulate their own approach to a task, and choose or change strategies depending on their goals and the types of tasks.

Process of Learning Strategy Instruction

No matter what their level of foreign or second language proficiency, all students have some cognitive control over their learning efforts and can describe their own mental processes to some extent (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). However, the way in which strategies are used, and the greater range of different types of strategies which a

learner can employ, divide learners into those who are
either effective or less effective (Chamot & Kupper,
1989). Therefore, in classroom activities, teachers have
to construct their lessons to help students develop new
and more powerful strategies and broaden use of the
strategies they already know. Chamot and Kupper (1989)
suggested a learning strategy instructional framework. The
framework includes the following steps:

(1) Identifying students' current strategies;

(2) Assessing their strategy needs;

(3) Planning strategy instruction;

(4) Direct teaching of strategies for different
      language skills;

(5) Providing extensive opportunities to practice
      using the strategies;

(6) Evaluating strategy use; and

(7) Helping students transfer strategies to new
      tasks. (p. 19)

Identifying Current Strategies. According to Chamot
and Kupper (1989), three purposes can be served through
identifying students' current strategies. Firstly,
learners can develop their metacognitive awareness as they

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describe their own thinking processes and discover those
of their classmates. Secondly, discussing their learning
strategies with their peers makes it possible for learners
to discover new strategies and new applications of
familiar strategies. Thirdly, a teacher can assess the
strengths and weaknesses in learners' current strategy
use, which is a great source for planning strategy
instruction (Chamot & Kupper, 1989).

Effectively identifying learners' current learning
strategies, however, is not easy. Active student
involvement in the strategy identification process is
essential because it can help build students' motivation
and an understanding of their own cognitive processes,
both of which are necessary for language acquisition
(Chamot & Kupper, 1989). There are two methods that can
identify learners' current learning strategies:
retrospective interviews and think-aloud interviews
(Chamot & Kupper, 1989). A retrospective interview with a
group is quite effective because it can allow learners to
reflect on all phases of a learning task, whereas its
disadvantage is that learners may not report their
strategy use accurately because they are not aware of
their use of learning strategies (Chamot & Kupper, 1989).

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A think-aloud interview, on the other hand, can give learners immediate access to strategies operating in short-term memory and can reveal the sequences of strategies used to solve a specific problem even though it can access only a part of all learning strategies that learners might use in learning tasks (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). The best tactic for teachers is to use both methods in order to discover all the strategies their students are currently using.

Assess Strategy Needs. After identifying learners' current learning strategies, a teacher has to assess students' strategy needs based on analyzing the strategies currently being used, and evaluating their degree of success (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). In short, a teacher must decide which additional strategies need to be taught and which of the strategies already used can be expanded and adjusted to remind learners of them.

Teach Strategy Use. Lastly, a teacher has to construct lessons to teach students new learning strategies that they need, encourage their strategy use, and remind them of the strategies they already know. Chamot and Kupper (1989) suggested five steps of learning strategy instruction:

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(1) Brief statement;

(2) Immediate practice;

(3) Post-independent practice and self-evaluation;

(4) Reduction of reminders; and

(5) Recycling strategies. (pp. 20-21)

First of all, a brief statement about why the strategy is important and how it works to help learners is essential. A think-aloud demonstration to explain the process of a learning strategy is one example. After introducing the new strategy, learners should be given immediate practice. After the classroom practice, independent practice should be given as a homework assignment: students take note about their own strategy use, and these notes are used as the basis for a class discussion, which will be helpful for their self-evaluation. After several instances of practice in similar learning tasks, the teacher should gradually reduce reminders about strategy use in order to promote independent strategy use. However, because acquisition of new strategies is a slow process, recycling strategies to help students remember them is necessary to induce automatic use of strategies (Chamot & Kupper, 1989).

Learning Strategies for Listening Comprehension

Schwartz (1998) suggested that "listening strategies are cognitive learning strategies" (p. 6) and can be classified as either top-down or bottom-up. Top-down strategies include inferencing or predicting, which rely on the learners' personal background knowledge and expectations about both language and the world. On the other hand, bottom-up strategies rely on assembling meaning from the actual language information in the listening input. Similarly, Richards (1983) described that bottom-up strategies are used to understand sounds, words, syntax, and semantic elements in the input listeners are receiving so they can comprehend the meaning. Bottom-up strategies include, for example, scanning for specific details, recognizing cognates, or recognizing word-order patterns.

According to Schwartz (1998), metacognitive strategies contribute indirectly to listening comprehension and play roles as "regulators" or "orchestrators" of all learning (p. 6). Metacognitive strategies are those that assist the learner to "think about thinking." They include planning, monitoring, and evaluating learning. In terms of listening, metacognitive

strategies enable learners to decide which listening
strategies would be best in a particular situation.
Therefore, it follows that metacognitive strategies also
must be essential, especially for more independent
learning through listening.

Chamot and Kupper (1989) suggested that the principal
strategies for listening comprehension consist of the
following four skills: selective attention, elaboration,
inferencing, and transfer (p. 18). They also described the
teaching implication in each listening task. Selective
attention strategies can help students concentrate on the
meanings of listening context by focusing on specific
items, such as nouns, unknown words about which they can
ask for clarification, numbers, important words that carry
meaning, intonation and stressed words, and the language
function of the word or phrase. Elaboration refers to
utilizing prior knowledge to make an inference about the
meaning of an unknown word. Thus, a teacher has to be
familiar with what the student already knows about the
topic of a specific listening task, and suggest how to use
this knowledge to guess the meanings of unknown words.
Inferencing refers to assumptions or guesswork based on
information elicited from other strategies such as

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selective attention, elaboration, transfer, or deduction.

As a transfer strategy, a teacher can have students focus

on similar English words and the similarities of cognates

in the root of a new word to suggest meanings of such

words.

Also, Miller (2000) asserted the importance of self-

monitoring. Because it is indispensable for learners to

monitor their utterance or listening comprehension in

order to improve their language competence (Miller, 2000),

self-monitoring skills should be taught through classroom

instruction.

Although the use of learning strategies can be

developed successfully, it is difficult to transfer those

strategies to new tasks, and it takes much time to acquire

them. Successful transfer can be attained only when

learners receive more explicit instruction about the value

and purpose of the strategies and are encouraged to assess

their effectiveness (Garner, 1987). Therefore, a teacher

has the responsibility of delivering learning strategy

instruction deliberately in order to foster and develop

learners' strategy use.

Phonological Contrast between English and Japanese
Affecting Listening Comprehension

Listening and speaking are two main obstacles for

Japanese EFL learners. This is not only due to the lack of

opportunities to listen to and speak English in Japan, but

also due to the phonological differences between English

and Japanese. Moreover, compared with reading and writing,

listening activities have long been ignored in Japanese

English education. Rivers (1968) described some Asian

languages as being quite difficult for other language

speakers because of their peculiar sound systems.

Conversely, speakers of Asian languages, including

Japanese, have much more difficulty acquiring the English

sound system than do other language learners. Moreover,

there are some specific disadvantages for Japanese native

speakers who attempt to acquire English sound systems.

These difficulties exist at basic levels of word and

phoneme as well as the sentence level.

Segmental-Level Differences

Byrnes (1984) described one of the most important

issues for language learning: the need to learn "a new

inventory of phonemes and different allophonic

realizations" (p. 323). There are many new phonemes in

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English sounds for Japanese speakers, both vowel and

consonant sounds.

Vowels. English has 16 vowel sounds (Avery &

Ehrlich, 1992), whereas Japanese has just five vowel

sounds (see Table 4.). Therefore, Japanese learners of

English need to be trained to acquire this new sound

inventory based on phonological differences.

Table 4. List of Vowel Sounds of English and Japanese

Vowels of American English	/iː//i//e//æ//ɑ//ɔ//u//uː//ə//ei//ou//ai//au//ɔi//ɔː//ʌ/ (16)
Vowels of Japanese	/i//e//a//o//u/ (5)

Sources: Avery, P., & Ehrlich, S. (1992). Teaching
American English pronunciation. Oxford, UK: Oxford
University Press; Fukasawa, T. (2001). A guide to perfect
English pronunciation. Tokyo: ALC Press.

Thompson (1987) suggested some common pronunciation

mistakes for Japanese learners of English. They are as

follows:

(1)   /ɔː/ and /əu/ are pronounced as /oː/;

(2)   /æ/ and /ʌ/ are pronounced as /a/;

(3)   /ə/ is pronounced as /ɑː/;

(4)   Diphthongs ending in /ə/ are pronounced with /ɑː/;

(5) /ɪ/ and /u/ are sometimes devoiced (whispered);

and /uː/ is unrounded. (pp. 213-214)

Similarly, Avery and Ehrlich (1992) suggested some common errors of vowel sounds for Japanese speakers. Initially, Japanese speakers pronounce vowel sounds that are between the tense and lax vowels of English because the distinction does not exist in the Japanese language sound system (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992). Secondly, the distinction of these sounds /e//æ//ʌ//ɑ//ə/ is problematic for Japanese speakers (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992). Also, according to Fukasawa (2001), mastering the schwa sound /ə/ is the most important in learning vowel sounds for Japanese speakers based on the fact that both of these sounds do not exist in the Japanese sound system. Also, it is difficult to decode some sounds from the multiple ways they are spelled. In addition, based on the fact that the schwa sound /ə/ is the most frequently used vowel of all (Crystal, 1995), schwa sounds should be emphasized in a classroom.

Table 5. List of Consonant Sounds of English and Japanese

Consonants of English	/p//b//m//f//v//θ//ð//t//d//s//z//n//l//r//ʃ/ /ʒ//tʃ//dʒ//k//g//ŋ//w//j//h/ (24)
Consonants of Japanese	/p//b//t//d//k//g//m//n//r//s//z//h//j//w/ (14)

Sources: Avery, P., & Ehrlich, S. (1992). Teaching American English pronunciation. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press; Fukasawa, T. (2001). A guide to perfect English pronunciation. Tokyo: ALC Press.

Consonants and Consonant Patterns. Like the vowel sounds, the consonant sound system of English is also more complex than Japanese. English has twenty-four consonant sounds (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992), whereas Japanese has fourteen consonant sounds (See Table 5).

As a result, Japanese learners of English need to learn a new consonant inventory. Thompson (1987) suggested some typical errors of Japanese learners of English. They are:

(1)   /l/ and /r/ are pronounced as a Japanese /r/, which

    is between the English /r/ and /l/;

(2)   /h/, /f/ and /ʃ/ are confused one another;

(3)   /θ/ and /ð/ are pronounced as /s/ and /z/ or /ʃ/

    and /dʒ/;

(4)   /v/ is pronounced as /b/;

(5)   /g/ is pronounced as /ŋ/ between vowels; and

(6)   The distinctions of /t/ and /tʃ/, /d/ and /dʒ/ and

/z/, /s/ and /ʃ/ or /z/ and /dʒ/ are quite difficult

for Japanese speakers. (pp. 213-214)

Because listening comprehension and pronunciation training

are interrelated (Brown, 1992; Morley, 1991), the

pronunciation difficulties described above are also

obstacles for listening comprehension (see Tables 4 and 5).

Therefore, Japanese learners of English need to construct

the English sound system through both listening and

pronunciation activities to surmount the above

disadvantages.

Also, Tables 6 and 7 show minimal-pair lists of vowel

and consonant sounds based on the phonological challenges

that Japanese speakers have (Fukasawa, 2000). According to

Oller and Ziahosseiny (1970), it is difficult for learners

to learn the subtle distinctions between the target and

their first language, or within the target language.

Therefore, exercises that use minimal-pair lists are quite

profitable for Japanese speakers when acquiring an English

sound system. Indeed, minimal-pair drilling of individual

sounds is the traditional way, but this provides the most

reliable training (Gilbert, 1995).

Table 6. List of Vowel Sounds that are Difficult for
Japanese Speakers to Discriminate

Vowels	Examples
/iː/ /i/	beat/bit, bead/bid, feel/fill, seat/sit
/i/ /e/	lit/let, bit/bet, sit/set, pit/pet
/e/ /æ/	bed/bad, send/sand, set/sat
/æ/ /ʌ/	track/truck, shatter/shutter, jangle/jungle, stamp/stump, ramp/rump, flank/flunk, flash/flush, drag/drug, crash/crush, fan/fun
/əːr/ /ʌ/	bird/bud, hurt/hut, curt/cut, curl/cull
/ɑːr/ /əːr/	star/stir, heart/hurt, far/fur, car/cur park/perk, lark/lurk, shark/shirk, cart/curt, par/purr
/ɑːr/ /ɔːr/	card/cord, barn/born, part/port
/ʌ/ /ɑ/	cut/cot, hut/hot, luck/lock, fund/fond, nut/not, putt/pot, rub/rob, dull/doll, jug/jog
/ɔː/ /ɑ/	naught/not, awed/odd, stalk/stock
/uː/ /u/	pool/pull, fool/full, cooed/could
/ɔː/ /ou/	saw/sew, ought/oat, caught/coat
/iər/ /eər/	rear/rare, beer/bear, fear/fare

Source: Fukasawa, T. (2001). A guide to perfect
English pronunciation. Tokyo: ALC Press. p. 204

Table 7. List of Consonant Sounds that are Difficult
for Japanese Speakers to Discriminate

Consonants	Examples
/θ/ /s/	think/sink, thaw/saw, faith/face
/f/ /θ/	free/three, first/thirst, roof/Ruth
/ð/ /z/	then/Zen, breathe/breeze, clothe/close
/v/ /ð/	van/than, clove/clothe, lively/lithely
/v/ /z/	gave/gaze, novel/nozzle, vest/zest
/f/ /h/	fault/halt, fear/hear, fool/who'll
/b/ /v/	berry/very, boat/vote, curb/curve
/s/ /ʃ/	see/she, mess/mesh, Swiss/swish
/tʃ/ /tr/	chew/true, chip/trip, chap/trap
/dʒ/ /dr/	junk/drunk, jinx/drinks, Jew/drew
/z/ /dz/	bees/beads, size/sides
/m/ /n/ŋ/	beam/bean, sum/sun, rim/ring
/ŋ/ /ŋg/	singer/single, longing/longer, hanger/hunger
/n/ /ŋ/	ran/rang, thin/thing, banned/banged, sun/sung, win/wing, kin/king, ban/bang, fan/fang, tan/tang
/l/ /r/	lock/rock, lead/read, fly/fry, light/right, lip/rip, loyal/royal, cloud/crowd, clash/crash, glass/grass, jelly/jerry, clown/crown, elect/erect
/jiər/ /iər/	year/ear, yeast/east, yell/L
/wu/ /u/	woos/ooze

Source: Fukasawa, T. (2001). A guide to perfect
English pronunciation. Tokyo, Japan: ALC Press. p. 204

English consonant clusters are also problematic for Japanese learners (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992; Thompson, 1987). Japanese learners tend to break up consonant clusters by inserting a vowel sound because the Japanese language has no consonant clusters, but only a simple consonant + vowel order system. Also, Tarone (1980, cited in Gass & Selinker, 2001) described that second language learners of English tend to simplify English syllables. Similarly, Japanese learners tend to trail a vowel sound after a final consonant in some words. To sum up, Japanese learners need to learn consonant clusters and the syllabic system of English, which are quite new concepts for Japanese speakers.

Word-Stress. Word stress refers to one strong syllable that sounds longer, louder, and higher in pitch than the other syllables (Miller, 2000). Word stress is important for communication in English because English speakers generally store vocabulary items by their stress patterns (Levelt, 1989, cited in Gilbert, 1995). Therefore, the stressed syllable which is not clear or the wrong syllable being stressed causes great difficulties for speech communication. The Japanese language, however, does not have a stress system, but a pitch-accent system.

As a result, it is quite difficult for Japanese speakers to both recognize and make a stressed syllable, which is marked primarily by length and loudness (Fukasawa, 2001). Moreover, Gilbert (1995) asserted that if learners do not learn the stress pattern for a new word, they cannot recognize the word in spoken form. Also, according to Brown (1977; cited in Gilbert, 1995), the ability to identify stressed syllables is essential for listening comprehension. Therefore, it follows that understanding word stress is an essential step for not only speaking, but also listening comprehension.

Word Linking. Word linking such as reduction, assimilation, contracted form, and liaison is also an obstacle for learners of English. Table 8 shows some examples of word combination phenomena.

These linking sounds are peculiar to spoken language. As a result, when listening, learners are often unable to understand sentences; however, they can be understood in the written forms. This is true because Japanese English education tends to focus on formal English; therefore, these sound features are often ignored in a classroom. In order to foster authentic listening comprehension skills,

these sound phenomena should be thoroughly taught to learners.

Table 8. Examples of Word Linking

Category	Examples	Pronunciation
Assimilation	We'll *miss you.*	[míʃju]
Assimilation	The *dogs yelped.*	[dɔ́ːgʒjélpt]
Reduction	Choc<u>o</u>late	[tʃɔ́(ː)k(ə)lit]
Reduction	Jus<u>t</u> now.	[dʒʌ́s(t)náu]
Reduction	Len<u>d</u> me.	[lén(d)miː]
Reduction	Call <u>h</u>im.	[kɔ́ːl(h)im]
Contracted form	You *should've* told him.	[ʃúdəv]
Contracted form	*I'd* better hit the road.	[aid]
Liaison	Will you *top it up?*	[tʌ́pitʌ́p]
Liaison	*That's a lot of* nonsense.	[ðǽtsə] [lɑ́təv]
Liaison	*He is as* strong *as* ever.	[hiːzəz] [əzévər]

Source: Fukasawa, T. (2001). <u>A guide to perfect English pronunciation.</u> Tokyo, Japan: ALC Press.

<u>Supra-Segmental-Level Differences</u>

<u>Rhythm.</u> English is termed as a stress-timed language, whereas Japanese is termed as a syllable-timed language, which means that the syllables in Japanese are all the same length. As a result of this fact, Japanese speakers' pronunciation of English words and sentences tends to lack the vowel reduction necessary for English rhythm (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992). In sum, Japanese learners

need to acquire stress-timed rhythm in order to both listen to and speak English.

Intonation and Thought Groups. Intonation is one of the key issues for understanding a spoken language. These melodic signals help listeners infer what is new information and what will follow in conversation (Gilbert, 1995). Also, Gilbert (1995) suggested that the awareness of thought groups is important for listening comprehension. "Thought group" refers to a spoken phrase heard as an intonational unit. Each thought group has a focus word, which is the most important information (Miller, 2000). Gilbert (1995) recommended that learners should be trained to listen for acoustic emphasis of focus words and listen selectively, rather than paying equal attention to every word. To sum up, thought-group training for listening comprehension is invaluable for learners to learn to think in terms of thoughts, not individual words.

Difference of Frequency between English and
   Japanese Sounds

Sanada (1999) described that the sound frequency difference between English and Japanese is also problematic for listening comprehension. Table 9 shows frequency differences of major languages in the world.

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Frequency in an American English sound is mainly between 1000 and 4000 Hz, and moreover a British English sound reaches 12000 Hz; whereas the frequency in a Japanese sound is mainly between 200 and 1500 Hz (Murase, 1996).

Table 9. Frequency Differences of Major Languages

Languages	Hertz 125	250	500	1000	1500	2000	3000	4000	12000
British English						▬	▬	▬	▬
American English			▬	▬	▬	▬			
French	▬			▬					
German	▬	▬	▬	▬	▬				
Italian						▬	▬		
Spanish	▬	▬			▬				
Russian	▬	▬	▬	▬	▬	▬	▬		
Japanese	▬	▬	▬						

Source: Murase, K. (1996). *Saikyo-no Gaikokugo Gakusyu-hou* (Invincible foreign language learning). Tokyo: *Nihon Jitugyou-Syupan*.

This fact indicates that Japanese speakers need to be given special training to activate an ability to recognize high frequency sounds. According to some researchers such

as Sanāda (1999) or Murase (1996), classical music such as
Mozart may help learners improve the ability to receive
high frequencies because this music includes a multitude
of high frequency sounds. The use of classical music in
second/foreign language learning is not a recent
innovation. For example, classical music is used in
Suggestopedia. In this teaching approach, classical music
such as Mozart, Bach, and Tchaikovsky is used as
background music (BGM) during a teacher's recitation, and
this rhythm and intonation can enhance language learning
(Tazaki, 2000).

Japanese English *(Katakana)* Word Pronunciation

One more specific problem for Japanese speakers is a
Japanese English word referred to a *Katakana* word.
Japanese has a numerous number of loan words from Chinese,
English, and other Western languages (Blair, 1997).
According to the survey by the Japanese National Language
Research Institute in 1964, while the number of loan words
from Chinese comprise about ninety percent of all the loan
words, about nine percent are occupied by loan words from
English (Blair, 1997). However, most of these English-
origin loan words may not retain original English
features. Table 10 presents a list of Japanese English

Table 10. A List of Negative Pronunciation Transfers
from Japanese English

Word	Japanese Pronunciation	English Pronunciation
Travel	toraberu	trǽvəl
Trouble	toraburu	trʌ́bl
Vaccine	wakutʃɪn	væksíːn
Virus	uirusu	váɪ(ə)rəs
Vitamin	bitamin	váɪtəmɪn
Iron	airon	áɪən
Vinyl	biniːru	váɪnl
Report	repoːto	rɪpɔ́ːt
NATO	natoː	néɪtou
Cook	kokku	kúk
Profile	purofiːru	próufaɪl
Liver	rebaː	lívə
Theme	teːma	θíːm
Mania	mania	méɪniə
Zebra	zebura	zíːbrə
Coyote	kojoːte	káɪout(i)
Gourmet	gurume	gúəmeɪ
Organ	orugan	ɔ́əg(ə)n
Label	raberu	léɪb(ə)l
Hyena	haiena	haɪíːnə
Debut	debjuː	déɪbjuː
Allergy	arerugiː	ǽlədʒi
Energy	enerugiː	énədʒi
Genre	ʒanru	ʒɑ́ːnrə
Egypt	edʒɪputo	íːdʒɪpt
Fanfare	fanfaːre	fǽnfeə
Ultra	urutora	ʌ́ltrə

Source: This is the original material by the author.

words that include negative sound modifications. Loan words tend to be reduced phonologically and orthographically, and are often abbreviated (Suzuki, 1987, cited in Blair, 1997). Therefore, Japanese learners of English should be given instructions to prevent the misuse of Japanese English words not only for speaking, but also for effective listening comprehension.To sum up, scientific phonological training is indispensable for Japanese learners of English because of fundamental linguistic differences. Moreover, according to Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995), phonological knowledge is also important for learners to construct meaningful utterances and to recognize the differences between the target language and their native language. Knowing phonological features of the target language is also essential for listening comprehension. Therefore, sufficient amounts of phonological lessons based on the differences between Japanese and English sound systems need to be given to Japanese learners of English.

Computer-Assisted Language Learning

Rationale for Using Computers in Language Learning

The evolution of computer technology at the end of the 20th century changed the second/foreign language learning environment. These days, computers are not only valuable tools for language learning, but also essential items in the workplace. According to one survey (Mainichi Newspaper, 2002), the diffusion of personal computers in Japanese households as of March, 2002 reached 57.2 percent. Also, another survey (Asahi Newspaper, 2002) showed that the use of the Internet in Japan has reached about 56 million people, which is second only to the United States. The same survey showed that 44 percent of people in Japan have Internet-connected computers (Asahi Newspaper, 2002). These data indicate that the computer has been quite popular in Japan. This suggests that there may be a technological foundation for utilizing computers for language teaching in Japan. Contrary to this fact, only 20.6 percent of Japanese English teachers in junior high school have utilized computers at least once per term (Ito, 1999). However, in order to achieve more effective language education, the use of computers is indispensable. Therefore, language teachers have to know how to use

computers effectively in language learning as well as
acquire enough computer skills to utilize these
technologies effectively for their lessons.

History of Computer-Assisted Language Learning

The use of the computer in language learning began in
the 1960's (Lee, 2000). The development of computer-
assisted language learning (CALL) for almost a half
century can be mainly divided into three stages:
behaviorist CALL, communicative CALL, and integrative CALL
(Lee, 2000).

Behaviorist CALL refers to repetitive language
drills, the so called "drill-and-practice" method. It was
dominant in CALL from the 1960's to the 1970's. It was
based on behaviorist learning theory such as operant
conditioning theory. In short, a computer was regarded as
a mechanical tutor (Lee, 2000). Large-sized time-sharing
system computers were mainly used in this approach, a
system which cost a great deal of time and money to
develop and maintain (Tazaki, 2000).

Communicative CALL was dominant from the 1970's to
the 1980's. This approach suggested that CALL should focus
more on using forms than on the forms themselves (Lee,
2000). This was based on cognitive theories, which

recognized that learning was a creative process of discovery, expression, and development (Lee, 2000). Therefore, learners were encouraged to generate original utterances themselves and were taught grammar implicitly. Also, personal computers had begun to be used as main tools in the communicative CALL approach.

Integrative CALL is based on the socio-cognitive view that emphasizes real language use in a meaningful, authentic context (Lee, 2000). Both integrating the various skills of language learning such as listening, speaking, writing, and reading, and integrating technology more fully into language teaching, are the main goals of this approach (Lee, 2000). Multimedia-networked computers are also main tools in the integrative CALL.

Types of Computer-Assisted Language Learning

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) is a subset of a large field that is organized in accordance with the way computer technology is used. It is important for teachers to understand this terminology accurately in order to design and deliver CALL lessons.

First of all, computer-based instruction (CBI) is a broad term which refers to almost all kinds of computer use in education such as drill and practice, tutorials,

simulations, instructional management, supplementary exercises, programming, database development, writing using word processors, and other applications (Cotton, 1997). Both computer-assisted instruction (CAI) and computer-managed instruction (CMI) are kinds of CBI.

Computer-managed instruction (CMI) refers to the use of computers to organize learners' data and to make instructional decisions (Cotton, 1997). In short, a teacher can use CMI to guide students in appropriate learning resources. The data stored by CMI is used to evaluate learners' progress and improve the instructional plans for the teacher.

Computer-assisted instruction (CAI) refers to the use of a computer as a tool to help teachers and learners achieve learning goals (Bourne, 1990). This includes drill-and-practice, tutorial, or simulation activities. CAI is often used as a supplement to traditional, teacher-directed instruction (Cotton, 1997).

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) is a more specific term, which refers to the use of computers to assist second or foreign language instruction. In short, CALL is a CAI applied to second or foreign language learning.

Lastly, multimedia computer-assisted language

learning (MCALL) refers to the combination of multimedia

and CALL. MCALL can provide a data-rich and intellectually

stimulating learning environment (Soo & Ngeow, 1998). Soo

and Ngeow (1998) described that because traditional CALL

software focuses on teaching about language rather than

showing authentic instances of language interaction,

multimedia is a much more powerful medium than CALL. In

other words, although the computer itself may be not

suitable for teaching creative skills of language, good

authentic examples can enhance creative learning (Soo &

Ngeow, 1998). Therefore, MCALL can create a far more

creative language learning environment than can non-

multimedia-based CALL. In other words, MCALL can establish

a higher-order learning situation.

Advantages of Computer-Assisted Language Learning
    (CALL)

The computer has an almost unlimited potential for

facilitating language learning. Initially, the learning

rate is faster with CAI than with conventional instruction

(Cotton, 1997). According to Capper and Copple (1985), CAI

users sometimes learn as much as 40 percent faster than do

students with teacher-directed instruction only. In

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addition, retention of learned content by CAI is much better than that by traditional instruction (Cotton, 1997). These facts indicate that CALL is a quite effective learning approach for language learning.

Secondly, learners have more positive attitudes and motivations in a CAI environment than in an environment of conventional instruction (Cotton, 1997). These learner preferences are due to some features of the computer such as the following:

- Computers... Are infinitely patient and never get tired, frustrated, or angry;

- Allow students to work privately;

- Never forget to correct or praise;

- Do not embarrass students who make mistakes;

- Make it possible to experiment with different options;

- Give immediate feedback;

- Give a sense of control over learning;

- Are more objective than teachers; and

- Free teachers for more meaningful contact with students. (Cotton, 1997, pp. 7-8)

Also, according to Soo (1999), multimedia computers allow learners to choose their individual learning styles. This might possibly be the greatest benefit of all. Integrating audio, visual, and tactile input simultaneously, which is hard for human teachers, makes it possible to let learners choose their preferences based upon what seems to be most interesting to them.

According to Wyatt (1984), CALL has three instructional roles: instructor, collaborator, and facilitator. The role of instructor refers to the practice activities such as drill-and-practice programs and tutorial programs. Drill-and-practice programs are given to students who are assumed to have already received and been introduced to the topic. On the other hand, tutorial programs are given to students who are assumed to have little or no prior introduction to the topic. Therefore, tutorial programs provide introduction, extra instruction, and practice for learners. Both drill-and-practice programs and tutorial programs teach students in a highly preplanned fashion; the students just follow the directions and produce the predetermined language forms and responses (Wyatt, 1984).

Secondly, a key characteristic of collaborative CALL is that the initiative is turned over to the student or group of students. Sometimes the end result of the activity will be predetermined, and sometimes it will be completely unpredictable. Moreover, the path to the final goal and the language used by learners will vary quite widely because they will depend on the learners' individual decisions (Wyatt, 1984). In other words, learners have to manage their own learning by means of their own decisions.

The role of facilitator is that the computer simply serves as a tool in other language learning activities (Coburn, Kelman, Roberts, Snyder, Watt, & Weiner, 1982). In short, computers are not main tools in this approach. The use of word processors only for writing assignments in a writing class is one example. Each of these roles is so important for language learning that CALL is quite suitable to language instruction. In short, CALL is a versatile tool because it is easy to select appropriate instruction in accordance with learners' preference or objectives.

Limitations of Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

Technophobia is a big obstacle for teachers and learners. It refers to negative attitudes toward computers. According to a survey by Weil and Rosen (1997), 30-80 percent of people feel some sort of anxiety about using computers. These anxieties include things such as the following:

- Confusion caused by computer jargon,

- A fear that learning computer skills is too difficult,

- A fear of making mistakes that cannot be corrected later,

- A more generalized anxiety about the role of computers in everyday life,

- Dehumanizing effects of computers, and

- Possibility of lack of control. (Johnston, 1999, p. 341)

Because these anxieties are very deep and difficult to eliminate, raising students' comfort level is essential for an effective CALL environment. Beller-Kenner (1999)

suggested guidelines for training to increase learners'

comfort levels. They are as follows:

- Make objectives meaningful;

- Teach technical elements on a need-to-know basis;

- Demonstrate all software;

- Choose an appropriate level of challenge, or let

  students choose the level; and

- Give students enough time to practice. (p. 370)

Summarily, giving clear directions and comfortable

activities to learners lets learners take risks without

any fear.

Using Computers to Improve Listening
Comprehension Ability

Multimedia software has become very popular in second

or foreign language education. Because the exciting,

interactive nature of multimedia software can help

learners feel more confident as they tackle their

unfamiliar and difficult language acquisition (Northup &

Tracy, 1998), teachers can facilitate their lessons by the

use of multimedia software. Current innovative multimedia

software can be quite useful to engage learners in active

listening tasks. Two good software programs are introduced

here: "Communicate & Connect English" (2000) and "Learn to Speak English" (2002).

"Communicate & Connect English" combines fun, exciting multimedia technology with multiple learning methods and simple techniques to build fluency. This software includes video pronunciation lessons in which learners can check their pronunciation through comparative voice displays while speaking into a computer microphone. The computer gives feedback immediately and shows students how closely their pronunciation approaches the target sounds. The response can give learners confidence in their pronunciation. It includes role-playing video and interactive conversation lessons. With this multimedia software, learners can participate in these lessons positively, getting positive feed back for their pronunciation.

On the other hand, "Learn to Speak English" (2002) also includes speech recognition, voice recording, and playback technology. Moreover, it includes a talking dictionary and cultural movies. A talking dictionary is quite helpful to understand how each word sounds. And, the cultural movies can help learners to understand the target language culture. Both of the software programs offer

additional Internet lessons and resources. These sites

provide much supplemental information to compensate for

the limited capacity of the software.

Software evaluation is also important because each

teacher has to choose multimedia software in accordance

with the students and the learning environment. However,

it is not so easy to select appropriate software without

any criteria. According to Bradin (1999), criteria for

software evaluation are divided into two steps:

feasibility and quality. Figure 2 shows these steps.

As Figure 2 indicates, teachers have first to

consider the possibility of using the software in their

particular lab environment. The feasibility considerations

needed to check this are as follows:

- Will the software run on your computer and platform?

- Can the software be made available to many students?

- Does the software require Internet access?

- Can you afford the software? (Bradin, 1999, p. 162)

First of all, teachers have to check the requirements

for the software such as Macintosh or Windows. If needed,

a review copy of many types of software is available to

try. In addition, whether the software is available in

Figure 2. The Steps of Software Evaluation

Source: Bradin, C. (1999). CALL issues: Instructional aspects of software evaluation. In J. Egbert, & E. Hanson-Smith (Eds.), CALL environments (pp. 159-175). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc. p. 174

other labs such as libraries or students' personal computers should be considered if requiring their access to it after class hours. Secondly, some software requires very fast Internet connections and a great deal of random-access memory (RAM). In Japan, the broadband connection, which makes a fast access possible, has been coming into wide use quite rapidly. According to one survey (Asahi

Newspaper, 2002), as of summer 2002, about 4.3 million

people in Japan have broadband connections. As the

diffusion of broadband rises, web sites needing a fast

connection will probably increase. Therefore, teachers

must consider the capacity of their computer labs. Lastly,

cost is an important consideration. Teachers need to keep

in mind how much of their budgets can be spent on

software. Also, purchasing a site license, not a single

copy, is necessary to use the software on several

computers.

The next step is about quality and appropriateness.

These three elements: content, format, and operation

should be considered (Bradin, 1999). Content refers to

whether or not the goal of the software is consistent with

teachers' and learners' learning goals, whether the level

of the software is appropriate for learners, whether the

content is accurate and interesting, and whether or not it

is flexible for learners.

Format refers to whether the interface (the program's

appearance to the user) is consistent enough that learners

can focus on the task. It includes the quality of the

graphics and the use of pictures for appropriate

pedagogical reasons. Hanson-Smith (1999) also suggested

that one problem of multimedia software programs is the overuse of its special sound and animation effects, which creates an atmosphere in which learners are amused or entertained rather than taught.

Operation refers to the ease of use for learners. In short, what learners need to complete their tasks has to be explained clearly or be available without printed manuals, which may not be available for each learner. Also, whether the software allows texts to be printed is desirable because learners are often eager to have printed materials (Bradin, 1999). Learners' control over computers, computers' interaction, and adequate feedback from computers should also be considered.

In addition to multimedia software, the Internet is also a great tool for listening comprehension. There are numerous resources on the Internet for listening activities. For example, many web pages provide audio files and corresponding transcripts, which are quite useful for listening exercises. Learners may need to download some software such as RealPlayer, QuickTime, or WindowsMediaPlayer, but these are free to download on most Web sites. For example, Voice of America (http://www.voa.gov/) lets users hear its broadcasts on the Internet by

RealPlayer. Moreover, many TV and radio stations offer

their broadcasts in spoken forms on the Internet (see

Table 11).

Table 11. Authentic Resources for Listening Activities

Voice of America's home page	http://www.voa.gov/
MTV Online	http://www.mtv.com/
CNN Interactive	http://www.cnn.com/
USA Today	http://www.usatoday.com/
The Interactive Movie Database	http://www.imdb.com/

Source: Hanson-Smith, E. (1999). Classroom practice: Using
multimedia for input and interaction in CALL environment.
In J. Egbert, & E. Hanson-Smith (Eds.), CALL environments
(pp. 189-215). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to
Speakers of Other Languages, Inc. p. 199

By the use of these resources, teachers can let students

listen to authentic news programs, and do a variety of

exercises such as dictation or discussion. Also, some

sites offer resources of current movies in a variety of

forms such as digitized video clips or transcripts. As an

example, Internet Movie Database (http://www.imdb.com/)

offers summaries and transcripts of movies. Teachers can

use the information for their listening activities.

In addition, many educators provide educational web

sites for ESL or EFL learners and teachers. For instance,

American English Pronunciation Practice in Interesting

Things for ESL Students (http://www. manythings.org/)

offers a minimal pair of practices and quizzes, and

exercises through English songs using FlashPlayer. In

addition, other sites such as English Listening (http://

www.englishlistening. com/) and ESL-Lab (http://www.esl-

lab.com/) also offer many listening activities. These

lessons use generally integrated audio and visual effects,

and give immediate feedback to learners. These features

provide assistance for learners to develop their skills.

Computer-Assisted Learning for Other Language
  Abilities

Reading. Internet access makes it possible to read

various materials about any topic. However, for language

teachers, choosing and providing authentic and appropriate

materials for their students are primary tasks. One

example, Project Gutenberg (http://www.gutenberg.net/), is

a great archive for learners and teachers which offers

copyright-free materials on-line. In addition, these web

sites described above such as CNN or USA Today (See Table

11) are also good resources for reading materials.

Moreover, English Online (LEO) (http://www.aec.ukans.edu/

LEO/) provides many learning materials, integrated

reading, and listening activities. Lastly, The Internet

TESL Journal Home Page (http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/ links/) offers effective instructional lesson plans. These lesson plans are generally designed to integrate all language skills through Internet-connected activities.

Writing. CALL also has potential for writing activities. For example, Writing: Purdue's Online Writing Lab (http://owl.English.purdue.edu/) provides handouts of writing exercises. These resources are very useful for language teachers to create their writing lessons. In addition, chat rooms and list-serves are also great tools for learners. Because EFL learners, such as Japanese students, have very limited opportunities to use the target language, it is quite difficult for them to handle English as a tool for communication. Therefore, communication via chat rooms and list-serves can facilitate learners' communicative competence. Also, learners can be motivated to acquire more communicative English competence because they realize that the true goal of learning English is interactive practicing communication skills, not just memorizing language knowledge for examinations.

Many sites from major web servers to individual home pages offer a variety of chat rooms. They are good places

to communicate with native-English speakers. However, they are not designed specifically for EFL learners. As a result, low-proficiency learners of English may have difficulties participating in these rooms. On the other hand, some web sites such as Dave's ESL cafe (http://www.pacificnet.net/~sperling/eslcafe.html/) and English Club (http://www.englishclub.com/) provide chat rooms for ESL learners. These are quite learner-friendly because these sites are designed for ESL learners.

Teachers' Role in Computer-Assisted Language
    Learning

CALL has changed the role of teachers in the classroom. Soo and Ngeow (1998) asserted that the teacher in CALL is "no longer a transmitter of knowledge; rather he or she has become a mentor and a manager of the learning environment to aid his or her students in constructing knowledge" (p. 2). CALL must be a learner-oriented environment, but not a teacher-oriented one. Finally, the teacher's primary task is creating an effective and comfortable learning environment for learners and providing them with opportunities to experience actual and authentic target language input

through computers along with appropriate learner

encouragement.

In conclusion, the use of CALL should be encouraged

with a focus on these two advantages: facilitating

language learning and encouraging computer literacy. Most

important, CALL can give Japanese learners of English

meaningful reasons to use English. Providing meaningful

situations to employ the target language is indispensable

for language acquisition; however, it might be difficult

in a homogeneous society such as Japan. It is optimistic

to believe that CALL can give this solution for all

learners and teachers. The only question is whether or not

teachers can manage computers effectively.

Project-Based Language Learning

Rationale for Project-Based Language Learning in
   Japan

Education in Japan is at a turning point. The present

can be characterized as the third reform, following

establishment of the first public education system during

the Meiji era (1868-1912) and the second reform after

World War II (Fujita, 2000). In the spring of 2002, the

government curriculum guidelines were changed drastically

intending to overcome many educational problems. There

were two goals of reform: education free of pressure and creative learning. More specifically, the number of lessons and the contents were reduced substantially and a five-day school week was introduced to all the public schools in Japan. These revisions were intended to renovate the traditional educational system based on rote learning. Also, a "comprehensible studies" curriculum of about 100 credit hours a year is allotted for all the schools from elementary to high school (Fujita, 2000, p. 50). This new teaching approach is intended to foster students' creativity. According to the Government Curriculum Guidelines for High Schools (1999), the comprehensible studies can be described as follows:

1. Cross-subject, creative, and comprehensible learning in accordance with each school, and community;

2. Problem-solving learning;

3. Learning how to learn and how to solve problems creatively;

4. Learning through a community such as a volunteer, research, experiment, practice, presentation, and discussion activity; and

5. Learning based on a variety of learning styles such as a collaborative or independent study.

It follows that these features are compatible with project-based learning (PBL) because Moss (1998) defined project-based learning as "an instructional approach that contextualizes learning by presenting learners with problems to solve or products to develop" (p. 1). Moreover, integrating the use of English into PBL makes it possible to create a meaningful language learning environment. Therefore, project-based language learning should be encouraged for acquiring both English competence and creative learning styles.

Benefits of Project-Based Language Learning in
   Japan

Both comprehensible studies and project-based learning were not designed for language learning. However, these approaches have great potential in that domain. Fried-Booth (1997) recommended that project-based learning could work as a bridge between using English in class and English in real-life situations outside of class. Especially, in countries with a roughly and eventually homogeneous population such as Japan, in which people have only limited needs to use English as a real communication tool, connecting a target language and its real use is indispensable for developing communicative competence.

During project-based language learning, because learners

find they need skills to plan, organize, negotiate, and

make their points in the target language (Moss, 1998),

they can have more positive learning motivation than

during traditional learning situations, whose learning

objective is mainly success on examinations. The same

skills used for project-based language learning are also

important for living successful lives (Moss, 1998). It is

often said that Japanese people are not good at creative

thinking during work, which is quite important skills for

international business. Therefore, the development of

these skills through schooling meets the requirement to

raise young people better prepared for a creative future.

What is Project-Based Learning?

Project-based learning (PBL) is based on the

progressivists' theory that "children learn best through

experiences in which they have an interest, and through

activities that allow for individual differences"

(Wrigley, 1998, p. 14). Therefore, PBL emphasizes the need

for learner-centered education. This is quite important

concept for language learning. More specifically, Moss

(1998) defines that the principles of project-based

learning as follows:

1. Building on previous work;

2. Integrating speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills;

3. Incorporating collaborative team work, problem solving, negotiating and other interpersonal skills;

4. Requiring learners to engage in independent work;

5. Challenging learners to use English in new and different contexts outside the class;

6. Involving learners in choosing the focus of the project and in the planning process;

7. Engaging learners in acquiring new information that is important to them;

8. Leading to clear outcomes; and

9. Incorporating self-evaluation, peer evaluation, and teacher evaluation. (p. 5)

PBL designed according to these principles can produce good results for learners in terms of encouraging their academic development and their independent and creative learning styles.

Process of Project-Based Learning

Project-based learning mainly consists of five basic
phases: selecting a topic, making plans, researching,
developing products, and sharing results with others
(Wrigley, 1998). First of all, a teacher decides the topic
of a project based on the interests and concerns of the
learners. Brainstorming potential topics is one way to
help students find their topics. Possibly, through class
discussion, a teacher and students may be able to design
new types of projects that are appropriate for project-
based learning and are interesting to the students. The
most important thing is to let students be in on the
decision making for the project from the beginning (Moss,
1998).

Secondly, after having selected a topic, learners
plan the project, conduct research, and develop their
products collaboratively. Collaborative work is essential
because individuals' strengths and preferred ways of
learning improve the work of the team as a whole
(Lawrence, 1997), and facilitate the development of
learners at low levels of language proficiency (Moss,
1998). Students may need to be taught specific language
skills such as interview skills, note-taking skills, or

research skills to complete project tasks (Moss, 1998).

Also, multimedia technologies can be great tools in the

processes of PBL such as planning, developing, and

presenting projects (Penuel & Means, 1999).

Thirdly, the results of the project have to be shared

in various ways. Schack (1993) suggested that sharing

results with authentic audiences can be a great motivation

for students. In addition, reporting results in an

effective form is essential for a successful project. In

short, teachers need to teach students to communicate

through written, oral, and visual means: slide shows, oral

presentations, graphics, skits, photographs, videos,

debate, and computer programs such as PowerPoint.

Possibility of Project-Based Language Learning in
    Japan

Project-based language learning for ESL learners has

been studied by many researchers. However, project-based

language learning in homogeneous societies such as Japan,

which has limited target language use, has not often been

researched. Therefore, project-based language learning in

a homogeneous society should be reviewed.

The Use of Internet Resources.   Information

resources, such as the World Wide Web, play a critical

role in project-based learning (Land & Greene, 2000).

Because about 85 percent of the electronically-stored

information in the world is English (Crystal, 1997), both

English and electronic literacy are essential to success

in almost all works of life. Therefore, teachers should

encourage their students to get information from English

web sites. Also, teachers have to teach students how to

navigate Internet sources, search for information, and

critically evaluate and interpret the contents (Shetzer &

Warschauer, 2000). These are the most crucial set of

electronic literacy skills in both target languages and

native languages.

Interview with Native-English Speakers. An interview

is an effective way to get information in PBL. Doing

interviews with native-English speakers can create

opportunities to use English as a meaningful communication

tool. These days, because each school has at least one

native-English-speaker as an assistant English teacher

(AET) in Japan, it is not so difficult for teachers to set

up interviews within a school. After having conducted some

interviews with the AET, students may be able to do

interviews with native-English-speakers outside a school.

This kind of real interaction with a target language

speaker is essential for EFL learners to motivate their learning.

Final Products in English. Project results are shared as final products such as written reports, oral presentation, and/or homepages on the web sites. Oral presentation is an effective communicative activity for EFL learners such as Asian learners of English because this kind of activity can create a learner-centered learning environment (King, 1999). This feature of an oral presentation can develop learners' language competence. Also, creating web sites in the target language makes it possible to build a meaningful objective to use the target language and to develop learners' language skills. With tools such as text editors for writing Hypertext Markup Language (HTML) or web page creation software, students can create their own web sites to express themselves (Shetzer & Warschauer, 2000). One great advantage of web sites is that students may be able to receive rapid attention and feedback from all over the world (Shetzer & Warschauer, 2000).

Assessments of Project-Based Learning

Assessment is not only important but also difficult for PBL because of its dynamic nature. According to Roth-

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Vinson (2000), the aims of assessment for PBL are as follows:

1. Helping teachers develop more complex relationships with students by providing feedback to them,

2. Engaging students directly in the evaluation of their own work,

3. Helping teachers plan their next steps, and

4. Helping students plan their projects. (p. 38)

Based on these aims, assessment for PBL can be conducted by teachers, peers, or oneself (Moss, 1998). Teachers can evaluate students' skills and knowledge through observation based on some criteria. Also, learners can reflect on their own learning process and results and that of their peers using questionnaires, checklists, and/or portfolios. Small group discussion with guided questions can be also used as assessment (Moss, 1998). To sum up, teachers have to choose an appropriate assessment in accordance with their learners' language proficiency and disposition.

In conclusion, language teachers should focus more on PBL as a language teaching method. Through PBL, students can develop their practical language competence and

realize the need of English language as a communication tool because it can create meaningful language use environments and activities. Also, the activities of PBL can integrate all the language skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing into one task. Moreover, the collaboration work of PBL is so powerful that students can compensate for their weaknesses in a group in order to complete one task together. Therefore, the PBL activities for teaching English are essential to foster advanced communicative English competence in English as a foreign language (EFL) situation.

In summary, this chapter has provided an overview of five keywords in this project. In the section "Information-Processing Model of Listening Comprehension," the human mental process of information in listening was studied for the purpose of improving classroom listening activities. The section "Learning Strategies in Listening Comprehension," provided an overview of learning strategies helpful for listening comprehension. In the section "Phonological Contrast between English and Japanese Affecting Listening Comprehension," the fundamental differences between English and Japanese were investigated. In the section "Computer-Assisted Language

Learning," the advantages of computer technology for language learning were shown along with its pedagogical considerations. Lastly, in the section "Project-Based Language Learning," the possibility of PBL as a language teaching tool was explored.

The next chapter will provide a theoretical framework based on listening comprehension that synthesizes all the keywords provided in this chapter. This, in turn, will be the basis for design of the curriculum unit to follow.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The purpose of this project is to develop an

effective listening training for high school EFL learners

in Japan. However, this project intends not only to

develop learners' listening skills, but also to foster

their communicative competence. Towards this aim, the five

keywords described in Chapter Two are essential

pedagogical components. For example, it is indispensable

for listening teachers to understand learning strategies

and the information-processing model in order to make

listening activities effective and meaningful. The use of

CALL and PBL can facilitate language learning by employing

positive learning techniques. Lastly, phonological studies

can provide essential knowledge for teachers as they

create activities to overcome specific and fundamental

listening and pronouncing problems in English on the part

of native speakers of Japanese.

Language Learning Model in This Project

Figure 3 shows the relationship of the five concepts

in this project. In this figure, listening comprehension

competence is defined as an essential foundation for

```
                    ┌─────────────────────────────┐
                    │  Communicative Competence   │
                    └─────────────────────────────┘
                                 ▲
                                 │
    Key: →   Promote             │        ┌──────────────┐
         --- Transfer            │        │  Learners'   │
                                 │  ┌─────│  motivation  │
                    ┌────────────┴──┤     └──────────────┘
                    │ Project-Based │◄─┘         ▲
                    │ Language      │            │
                    │ Learning with │───────►┌──────────────┐
                    │ Computers     │        │ Meaningful   │
                    └───────────────┘        │ language     │
                         ▲                   │ learning     │
                         │                   │ situation    │
         ┌───────────────┼───────────────────┴──────────────┐
    ┌─────────┐       ┌──────────┐                    ┌──────────┐
    │ Reading │-------│ Speaking │----------          │ Writing  │
    └─────────┘       └──────────┘                    └──────────┘
         ▲                 ▲                                ▲
          \                │                               /
       ┌──────────────────┴────────────────────────────────┐
       │  Listening Comprehension Competence                │
       └────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                          ▲
       ┌──────────────────┴──────────────────────────────────┐
       │ ┌───────────────┐ ┌──────────────┐ ┌──────────────┐ │
       │ │Listening      │ │Learning-     │ │Phonological  │ │
       │ │Activities     │ │Strategy-Based│ │Contrast-Based│ │
       │ │Based on       │ │Listening     │ │Sound Training│ │
       │ │Information-   │ │Activities    │ │              │ │
       │ │Processing     │ │              │ │              │ │
       │ │Model          │ │              │ │              │ │
       │ └───────────────┘ └──────────────┘ └──────────────┘ │
       │    Based on:        Based on:         Based on:      │
       │ Pre-, while-, post- Metacognitive,  Syllablic       │
       │ listening stages,   Cognitive, and  system          │
       │ including top-down & Social/Affective Allophones     │
       │ bottom-up processing strategies     Stress system   │
       │                                     Sentence rhythm  │
       └──────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘

              Assisting Listening Activities
          ▲                  ▲                    ▲
           \                 │                   /
            \                │                  /
       ┌──────────────────────────────────────────┐
       │ Computer-Assisted Language Learning       │
       └──────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Figure 3. Key Components of a Learning Model that
          Promotes Listening Competence

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all the other language skills such as speaking, reading, and writing. Initially, listening activities based on the information processing model, learning strategies, and phonological contrast training can promote learners' listening comprehension competence naturally and effectively. As listening ability increases, learners can also develop other language skills such as reading, speaking, and writing based on their listening skills.

Secondly, project-based language learning (PBL) plays a key role in this language learning model. PBL can connect all the language skills into one task in which learners can develop their holistic language skills in a realistic situation. In other words, PBL creates a meaningful learning situation for EFL learners, which gives them great motivation to learn.

Lastly, computer-assisted language learning (CALL) facilitates almost all the kinds of language learning activities. For example, phonological contrast training by CALL is more effective than that by audiotape or compact disc. Listening activities through the Internet make it possible to motivate learners because of their quick response and visual effect. Moreover, the computer is an essential tool in PBL from research to presentation.

Importance of Listening Comprehension Competence

As described before, listening comprehension competence is prior to all other skills. Some theories can confirm this fact. Firstly, Krashen (1985) described that "comprehensible input is the essential ingredient for language acquisition" (p. 4). Comprehensible input refers to the understandable input that is slightly more advanced than the learner's current level. In his theory, the more comprehensible input learners can gain in listening activities, the more advanced language competence they can attain. However, without sufficient and effective sound training so as to overcome the phonological barrier between Japanese and English, Japanese native speakers can hardly gain any comprehensible input in English. Therefore, Japanese learners of English should be given considerable amount of listening training before learning other language skills.

Krashen (1985) also stated that there is a "silent period" among immigrant children (p. 9). According to this theory, children faced with a new language are typically silent for a long time. At a glance, they seem not to be learning a new language. However, this period is quite important for building up competence by listening through

comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985). After a silent

period of several months, they begin to speak in the new

language as the result of comprehensible input for a long

time, and learn other language functions such as reading

and writing based on their listening competence.

Therefore, at the early stages of language learning,

learners should be given considerable comprehensible

listening activities in order to build up the foundation

of the target language. This is the most natural and

rational process of language learning.

Figure 4. Relationship between Speaking and Listening

Source: Tazaki, K. (2000). *Gendai eigo kyoujyu-hou souran
(A review of modern English teaching approaches)*. Tokyo,
Japan: Taisyu-kan Press. p. 185

Nord (1981) also insisted on the importance of

listening. Figure 4 shows the relationship between

speaking (production) and listening (reception). This

figure indicates that all the productive abilities are

founded on the receptive ability. Summarily, real speaking

and other productive competence require a firm foundation

of listening competence.

Listening: | Acoustic Effect | → | Acoustic Image | → | Concept |

Speaking: | Concept | → | Acoustic Image | → | Speech Action |

Reading: | Descriptive Visual Effect | → | Descriptive Visual Image | → | Acoustic Image | → | Concept |

Writing: | Concept | → | Acoustic Image | → | Descriptive Image | → | Descriptive Action |

Figure 5. Speech Circuit

Source: Tazaki, K. (2000). *Gendai eigo kyoujyu-hou souran* (A review of modern English teaching approaches). Tokyo Japan: Taisyu-kan Press. p. 30

Similarly, according to Tazaki (2000), the speech

circuit analyzed psychologically by Palmer shows further

evidence (see Figure 5). This figure indicates the fact

that the acoustic image is a universal step for all the

four language skills. Namely, the acoustic image is indispensable not only for listening but also for reading, writing, and speaking. Therefore, listening activities should be focused on most of the four language skills so as to construct the basis of acoustic image.

Role of the Information-Processing Model

Listening comprehension competence is developed through the three essential factors: the information-processing model, learning strategy, and phonological contrast training. At first, the information-processing model can make it possible to create the most effective listening activities physiologically. The way to manage the information is a complex cognitive process. However, teachers have to be familiar with it in order to facilitate students' learning. Namely, the listening activity based on the information-processing model can help learners gain much more comprehensible input from the spoken text than the ordinary listening activities.

To put it concretely, the three stages of listening activities: pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening, can lead listeners to a better understanding.

Also, appropriate activities must be selected for each stage, which facilitate learners' understanding.

Role of Learning Strategy-Based Learning

Learning strategies are defined as the techniques to comprehend, store, and remember new information. The three learning strategies, cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective, can facilitate listening comprehension.

At first, cognitive strategies have a direct effect on learners' listening comprehension process. Cognitive strategies such as elaboration, making inferences, and summarizing are essential in understanding and remembering new information.

Secondly, metacognitive strategies contribute indirectly to listening comprehension. Metacognitive strategies such as planning, selective attention, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation are important in regulating all learning. Moreover, these metacognitive skills give learners independent learning styles, which are quite important to develop higher-level language skills.

Thirdly, social/affective strategies are indispensable skills in real communication. These

strategies are helpful for an interactive listening communication, which is the final goal of listening/comprehension competence.

The effective combination of the three types of learning strategies can help learners to cope with perpetual acoustic information. Also, learning strategies make it possible for learners to become autonomous. One of the most important things for language teachers is to make their students strategic listeners in order to facilitate their listening comprehension.

Role of Phonological Contrast-Based Training

The phonological contrast between English and Japanese is one of the barriers that is the hardest for Japanese speakers to overcome. The differences restrict the amount of comprehensible input from a spoken information because of the negative interference from Japanese language sound. Therefore, overcoming the phonological barrier is essential for Japanese speakers to improve listening comprehension competence.

The phonological contrasts such as syllable system, phonemes, and stress system must be taught consciously. However, these exercises are often boring for learners.

Accordingly, computer technology gives one solution to overcome this disadvantage. Many phonological activities are offered on the Internet, which give the repetitive exercises effectively without monotony. Similarly, many multimedia software programs offer the same kinds of exercises to teach English sounds. Also, these activities allow learners to practice only their own weak points at their own pace. Therefore, phonological training activities with computers can be used to construct the English sound system.

Role of Project-Based Language Learning

Project-based language learning (PBL) is a bridge that connects the language knowledge and skills that students learn in the classroom with its practical use and needs. PBL can integrate all the language skills such as listening, reading, writing, and speaking into integrated practical activity. Learners can try out the language knowledge and skills they have learned in actual situations, and develop their skills through these activities. Also, learners can be aware of the practical necessity of English, which means communicative competence is much more than empty knowledge of a subject. Enhanced

learning motivation in the place of examinations has been necessary for Japanese learners of English. PBL is one of the answers.

Role of Computer-Assisted Language Learning

Computer-assisted language learning relates to all the concepts described above because the use of computer technology can enhance the quality of listening activity. For example, great numbers of authentically spoken texts are available easily on the Internet, which saves the student from engaging in the bothersome task of using the audiotapes or compact discs. Moreover, the immediate feedback offered by the listening activities on the Internet enhances learners' concentration and motivation.

Also, PBL activities can expand students' potential by using the technology of computers. Research on the Internet can bring fruitful results because of a vast number of resources. In addition, presentation via computer technology can give learners more creative ways to conduct their projects. Therefore, the effective use of computers is indispensable to attain a high quality of listening activities.

Summarily, this chapter has discussed two important issues. The first part argued that listening comprehension is an essential part of all language abilities. The second part provided a theoretical framework incorporating key concepts as essential components in this project. Namely, the framework explained how each key concept enhances listening comprehension competence. The next chapter, Curriculum Design, explains the connection of the instructional lesson units based on the theoretical framework discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

CURRICULUM DESIGN

Curriculum Organization

This curriculum features an instructional unit with

six lessons. The instructional unit is designed for

Japanese high school students. The six lessons can be

divided into two parts. The first three lessons are

designed for constructing learners' English sound system.

The latter three lessons are featured for the purpose of

improving learners' listening competence through various

kinds of listening materials and activities.

The Characteristics of the Curriculum

As described before, the curriculum in this project

consists of the two parts: the construction of the English

sound system and authentic listening activities.

The first three lessons in this project are designed

for the purpose of overcoming the phonological

difficulties of English. Namely, the purpose of these

lessons is to let learners become familiar with the

idiosyncratic English sound system, with a view to

constructing a reliable English infrastructure for further

learning. Also, these lessons embrace some learning

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strategic instructions in order to improve listeners'
acoustic sensitivities.

The last three lessons are designed to let learners
participate in various kinds of listening tasks. They
provide three listening activities in accordance with the
pre-, while-, and post-listening stages, which expedite
learners' listening process. At the pre-listening stage,
students' background knowledge about the topics of
listening material is activated through a teacher's talk
or discussion, and the key vocabulary of its material is
introduced. At the while-listening stage, students work
with a work sheet in order to enhance their understanding
while listening to or watching the media. These note-
taking activities are designed to let students focus on
the main ideas of the listening passage. At the last
stage, post-listening activity, learners are involved in
activities for the purpose of the further development of
their language competence. Concretely, Lesson Four asks
students to discuss some questions about its topics while
in a group. Lesson Five has learners discuss the cultural
differences about the ways spoken language is used between
Americans and Japanese as a group. Lastly, Lesson Six lets
students engage in a project-based learning by using

English and discussing an American city. All these post-listening activities contribute to the development not only of learners' communicative competence, but also of their cognitive and academic competence.

Lastly, each lesson includes some kind of assessment. These assessments are organized to evaluate not only learners' understanding of the lesson, but also their learning process and progress. Each assessment is an essential process for learning.

The Content of Each Lesson

Lesson One

The purpose of Lesson One is to construct an English phoneme sound system via computer technology. The use of computers makes it possible to enhance learners' motivation, and let them practice at their own pace.

At first, students learn the conductive learning strategies in mastering new sounds, which help learners be sensitive to sounds. These are the fundamental skills for learners to promote listening comprehension competence.

Secondly, they practice English phonemes with the voice recognition program of multimedia software, the most

useful tool to develop a new sound inventory in the current situation.

Thirdly, students practice problematic English sounds which may sound similar for Japanese speakers via the authentic minimal-pair activity offered on the Internet. The quick responses and feedback from the screen can create a more ideal learning ambience than can the traditional minimal-pair activity.

These two sound training activities above are followed up by supplemental work sheets. Students check their competence and problems on the work sheets while listening to the sounds. These activities facilitate learners' recognition of English sounds and enable a better use of learning strategies.

Lesson Two

The purpose of Lesson Two is to understand the English sound system, which includes a syllable system, stressed syllables, and word-linking. These features of English are so endemic that Japanese speakers require time to practice them consciously. In this lesson, students learn about each phonological phenomenon: the syllable system, stressed syllable, and word-linking, and then engage in completing various tasks. Although they are

seemingly traditional exercises, these activities are essential for Japanese English learners to eradicate their Japanese sound interference, and to erect the English sound inventory.

Lesson Three

The purpose of Lesson Three is to teach learners to listen selectively through understanding problematic English sounds as seen in phrases such as thought-groups and sentence stresses. Although selective listening is essential to comprehend the spoken information effectively, it is often difficult for Japanese speakers to concentrate only on important information. This is because the fundamental rhythmic and intonational discrepancies between Japanese and English interfere with listeners' comprehension process. Therefore, after becoming familiar with the English rhythmical system, students engage in the exercises designed to listen for these main concepts. These activities make learners advanced listeners, who can manage spoken information efficiently.

Lastly, the "Listening Skill Checklist" is used to let learners check their progress in language competence. It helps learners confirm what they have learned so far,

and how these objectives can be used to advance their understanding of English.

Lesson Four

The purpose of this lesson is to let learners manage their personal emotions to precipitate their listening comprehension. The material of Lesson Four is derived from the program "Voice of America Special English" on the Internet. The listening text is quite appropriate as an introductory news program because it is modified for English learners.

This lesson makes learners realize that the English competence taught in the previous lessons can work effectively on the listening tasks. As a result, they gain confidence to listen to English and are motivated to learn English.

Lesson Five

The subject of Lesson Five is an American presidential address about the catastrophe of September 11. The visual image from the Internet not only assists listeners' comprehension of its context, but also enhances their awareness of the cultural differences between America and Japan through the study of speeches.

Lesson Six

The listening material of Lesson Six is a cultural movie program of multimedia software. It provides learners rich information about the city of San Francisco. After this listening activity, students engage in a brainstorming discussion in a group for their research project. The research project activity integrates all the language abilities into one project and develops learners' cognitive and academic intelligence. Lastly, the two kinds of assessment sheets in this lesson are designed to evaluate students not only by the results of their projects but also by their group research process.

CHAPTER FIVE

ASSESSMENT

Purpose of Assessment

Assessment is essential for teachers to mastermind
effective foreign/second language learning. According to
Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995), "assessment is a process to
determine a learner's performance or knowledge in his/her
current level, and its result is used to modify or improve
the learner's performance or knowledge" (p. 176). Namely,
the purpose of assessment is not only for grading
students, but also for evaluating their learning process
and achievement so as to facilitate their further
learning.

Types of Assessments

Myriad kinds of assessments are used in classrooms to
grade students and evaluate their progress. Diaz-Rico and
Weed (1995) stated that the assessments are categorized as
these three types: performance-based assessment,
standardized tests, and teacher observation and
evaluation.

Performance-Based Assessment

Performance-based assessment is testing directly what is taught in the classroom. The procedures can be easily integrated into classroom activities (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). The methods of performance-based assessment are divided into these two main types: structured and unstructured. Structured methods include such as teacher-designed examinations, questionnaires, surveys, and an observation checklist.

On the other hand, one example of unstructured methods is a portfolio assessment. A portfolio assessment requires that learners compile samples of their work to show their progress. Writing samples, student self-assessments, audio and video recordings, photographs, and teacher notes about students are some examples of portfolio assessment. The aims of portfolio assessment are "to maintain a long-term record of students' progress, to provide clear and understandable measures of student productivity, to offer opportunities for improved student self-image as a result of showing progress and accomplishment, to recognize different learning styles, and to provide an active role for students in self-assessment" (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995, p. 181).

Standardized Tests

Standardized tests for second or foreign language teaching provide methods for applying a common standard of proficiency or performance in diverse kinds of local conditions or student abilities (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). Norm-referenced tests and criterion-referenced tests are both included into the field of standardized tests. Norm-referenced tests compare learner scores against larger population in which the test has been standardized.

Criterion-referenced tests, on the other hand, are principally to find out how much of a clearly defined sphere of language skills or materials students have learned. Namely, the purpose of criterion-referenced tests is to assess how much the learners achieve in connection with the material, in lieu of to a national sample.

Teacher Observation and Evaluation

Teacher observation and evaluation is also a method to assess learners' competence. Its assessment encompasses these two main methods: observation-based assessment and teacher-made tests. The purpose of observation-based assessment is to record individual differences and a cooperative or collaborative group working in all types of interactional situations with a view to expediting

learners' progress. Multiple observations, which are either formal or informal, make it possible to assess learners' variety and progress.

Teacher-made tests are frequently used as a standard of grading. Although these tests are popular because of the ease of construction and administration, the disadvantage is the tendency to make "discrete-point" tests in which the questions ask students for specific items of grammar or vocabulary (Diaz-Rico & Weed, p. 183). Canale (in Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995) provided good communicative test criteria for the purpose of wiping out these drawbacks as follows:

(1) tests should put to use what is learned;

(2) the focus is on the message and function, not just on the form;

(3) there is group collaboration as well as individual work;

(4) respondents are called on to resolve authentic problems in language use, as opposed to contrived linguist problems; and

(5) testing looks like learning. (p. 183)

The reliable test allows no room for bias. However,
teachers often make the tests based on their own past
experiences. Therefore, these criteria stated above should
be considered for teachers when to produce assessment
materials.

Summarily, whatever assessments are employed in a
classroom, the main role of assessment is as a navigator
for further learning. Therefore, assessment is needed to
measure not only how the learning objectives have been
achieved, but also what problems and weakness that
students have.

Assessments of Listening Comprehension

Assessment of listening competence is not as apparent
as other abilities such as reading and writing because its
process cannot be observed directly. As a result, many
listening activities are often given to learners without
any valid procedures of assessment. However, effective
assessment is indispensable to enhance efficacy of
listening activities.

Many considerations are necessary to develop
listening assessment because of its unique aspects. A
teacher assessing listening activities has to know the

differences between listening and reading assessment to avoid confusing them.

First of all, less information, which includes both quantity and quality, can be recalled from listening whereas more is gained from reading (Thompson, 1995). Also, Shohamy and Inbar (1991) stated that incidental or irrelevant information to the main idea has a low probability of being recalled after listening.

Secondly, the heavy-processing load of listening causes listeners to lose concentration much more quickly than they might during reading. Based on this fact, Thompson (1995) insisted that having two or three minutes of oral passages is more desirable for listening assessment.

The above evidence indicates that a teacher cannot develop listening comprehension tests in the same way as reading comprehension tests. Thompson (1995) suggested that a teacher had to select the listening items by listening to the passages, not reading the transcripts, and must not use written materials for listening comprehension tests because written materials and real spoken language are quite different.

Assessment in This Unit

In the unit of this project, performance-based assessments are selectively employed in the lessons as are traditional teacher-made tests. Although performance-based assessment has not still taken a firm hold on the means of educational assessment in Japan, it is essential in order to facilitate the progress of learners' language competence. Also, teacher observation and evaluation are important to understand and diagnose the disposition of students for further improvement. In addition, these modern assessments can make it possible to equip students with new types of learning styles which are more autonomous and creative.

Standardized tests are not employed in the unit of this project. However, after completing the lessons, learners can get to know how much their holistic listening comprehension competence has improved by taking standardized tests. Namely, by what degree they can surmount the challenge of English sounds and manipulate learning strategies for ameliorating their listening comprehension.

To sum up, assessment is a compass for the voyage called language learning. As such, it must be accurate and

applicable. However, it is especially difficult to evaluate listening comprehension because of its complex nature. Therefore, a teacher using listening comprehension has to be familiar with valid methods of listening assessment to effectively improve and facilitate students' listening comprehension competence.

In the previous four chapters, all the concepts in this project were explained. These concepts are quite important to establish an effective language learning process. Not only listening ability, but also the other language competence can be developed only when the input of the target language is given appropriately. Therefore, it is essential for language teachers to create a developmentally appropriate language learning environment based on the concepts suggested in this project.

Hereafter, the instructional lesson plans are provided as an appendix. All the key concepts are integrated in the lessons, and every lesson is constructed for the purpose of promoting an effective language learning process.

APPENDIX A

LESSON PLANS

The Titles of Each Lesson

The Construction of an English Sound Inventory

(Lessons 1-3)

Lesson One: English Phonemes

Lesson Two: English Syllables & Stressed Syllables

Lesson Three: Thought Groups and Selective Listening

Authentic Listening Lessons

(Lessons 4 - 6)

Lesson Four: English News

Lesson Five: English Speech

Lesson Six: The American City

Lesson One
English Phonemes

Objectives:
1. To practice English phonemes via computers
2. To become familiar with self-monitoring, repetition, and auditory representation strategies
3. To practice problematic English phonemes via Flash Player program

Materials:
Focus Sheets 1-1, 1-2, 1-3; Work Sheets 1-1, 1-2; Assessment Sheet 1; Self-evaluation Sheet 1; Computers installed Flash Players; Communicate & Connect, English (multimedia software); Audiotape

Task Chain 1: Introducing a sound inventory of English
1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 1-1 and explains the differences between English sounds and Japanese sounds, and what students should learn.
2. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 1-2 and explains the strategies that are helpful to master the English sounds.
3. The teacher demonstrates how to use the strategies and let students practice the strategies.
4. The teacher lets students turn on the computers and start the software "Communicate & Connect, English."
5. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 1-1 and lets students practice English phoneme sounds and check their own pronunciation via voice-recognition programs using Work Sheet 1-1, and helps them if they need it.

Task Chain 2: Minimal-pair practice via computers
1. The teacher lets students connect their computers with the Internet, and open the Web Site "American English Pronunciation Practice" (http://www.manythings. org/pp/).
2. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 1-2, and lets students complete Software Lessons 4, 8, 10, 12, 16, 19, and 24 (See Focus Sheet 1-3).
3. The teacher lets students utilize self-monitoring strategies, using Work Sheet 1-2, and gives some help if they need it.

Task Chain 3: Assessment
1. The teacher distributes Assessment Sheet 1 and lets students complete exercises listening to the audiotape.
2. The teacher collects Assessment Sheet 1, and Work Sheets 1-1 and 1-2.
3. The teacher distributes Self-evaluation Sheet 1 and lets students evaluate their progress.

Assessment:
1. The teacher can evaluate students' abilities to recognize English sounds through Assessment Sheet 1.
2. Through Work Sheet 1-1 and 1-2, the teacher can recognize the specific English sounds that are difficult for students to distinguish.
3. The teacher can assess students' understanding of this lesson through Self-evaluation Sheet.

Grading Scale for Assessment Sheet 1

Score	Grade
96-100	A+
91-95	A
86-90	B+
71-85	B
61-70	C+
51-60	C
00-50	Incomplete

Focus Sheet 1-1

English Sound Inventory

You must learn some new sound system because English sounds are quite different from Japanese sounds.

1. Vowel Sound Contrasts

Vowels of American English	/iː//i//e//æ//ɑ//ɔ//u//uː//ə//ei//ou//ai//au//ɔi.//ɔː//ʌ/ (16 sounds)
Vowels of Japanese	/i//e//a//o//u/ (5 sounds)

2. Consonant Sound Contrasts

Consonants of English	/p//b//m//f//v//θ//ð//t//d//s//z//n//l//r//ʃ//ʒ//tʃ//dʒ//k//g//ŋ//w//j//h/ (24 sounds)
Consonants of Japanese	/p//b//t//d//k//g//m//n//r//s//z//h//j//w/ (14 sounds)

(Sources: Avery & Ehrlich, 1992, p. 183; Fukasawa, 2001, p. 200)

Focus Sheet 1-2
Self-monitoring, Repetition
and Auditory Representation
Strategies for Listening Comprehension

These learning strategies below are essential techniques
to master the sounds of English.

Become familiar with these strategies by trying to use
them in the following exercises.

1. Self-monitoring Strategy
Self-monitoring strategy means correcting your speech for
accuracy in pronunciation or intonation.
Directions:
   1. Listen to the target sounds or phrases carefully.
   2. Repeat the sounds, and compare them with the
      original sounds carefully.
   3. Correct your pronunciation.

2. Repetition Strategy
Repetition strategy means imitating a language model,
including overt practice and silence rehearsal. To use
this strategy, repeat what a native speaker says, and
imitate native speakers' pronunciation, intonation, and
accent.
Directions:
   1. Repeat immediately after the target sounds or
      phrases.
   2. Imitate the pronunciation, intonation, and accent
      as much as possible.

3. Auditory Representation Strategy
Auditory representation strategy means retaining the sound
or similar sound for a word, phrase, or longer language
sequence; in other words, storing words or phrases by how
they sound.
Directions:
   1. Listen for several phrases and repeat them
      immediately.
   2. Note down phrases.
   3. Repeat the phrases.
   4. Close eyes, and repeat by referring to the auditory
      representation.

Work Sheet 1-1
English Phoneme Check Sheet

Directions: Practice English sounds via the sound-recognition multimedia program, "Communicate & Connect, English."

1. Check either "easy" or "difficult" in accordance with the difficulty, and practice the sounds that are difficult for you.
2. Write down any comments that you come up with (For example, tips on pronouncing or listening).

16 American English Vowel Sounds

Phonemes	/iː/	/i/	/e/	/æ/	/ɑ/	/ɔ/	/u/	/uː/
Easy								
Difficult								
Comments								
Phonemes	/ə/	/ei/	/ou/	/ai/	/au/	/ɔi/	/ɔː/	/ʌ/
Easy								
Difficult								
Comments								

24 English Consonant Sounds

Phonemes	/p/	/b/	/m/	/f/	/v/	/θ/	/ð/	/t/
Easy								
Difficult								
Comments								
Phonemes	/d/	/s/	/z/	/n/	/l/	/r/	/ʃ/	/ʒ/	/tʃ/
Easy								
Difficult								
Comments								
Phonemes	/dʒ/	/k/	/g/	/ŋ/	/w/	/j/	/h/
Easy								
Difficult								
Comments								

Work Sheet 1-2
Minimal Pair Checklist

Directions: Use this list to check your ability to distinguish similar English sounds.

1. Practice these similar sounds using the learning strategies in Focus Sheet 1-2.
2. Circle either Yes or No in accordance with your listening recognition.
3. Write down any comments that you come up with. (For example, the difficulties that you had, the knacks for distinguishing these sounds)

Lesson Number	Target Sounds	Self-checking
Lesson 4 & 16	/l/ /r/	Can you distinguish these sounds clearly? (Yes/No) Comments:
Lesson 8	/b/ /v/	Can you distinguish these sounds clearly? (Yes/No) Comments:
Lesson 10	/θ/ /s/	Can you distinguish these sounds clearly? (Yes/No) Comments:
Lesson 12	/s/ /ʃ/	Can you distinguish these sounds clearly? (Yes/No) Comments:
Lesson 19	/ʌ/ /æ/	Can you distinguish these sounds clearly? (Yes/No) Comments:
Lesson 24	/f/ /h/	Can you distinguish these sounds clearly? (Yes/No) Comments:

See the Quick Menu to find other pages on this site.

Minimal Pair Practice & Quizzes

Each file has four MP3-encoded minimal pairs and is about 40Kb.

- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 1: 13-30, ... (84Kb - the largest file)
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 2: ferry-very, ... (40Kb)
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 3: late-let, ... (37Kb)
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 4: lake-rake, ... (40Kb)
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 5: fond-found, ... (40Kb)
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 6: these-Z's, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 7: said-sad, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 8: best-vest, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 9: not-note, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 10: thick-sick, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 11: bus-boss, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 12: see-she, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 13: made-mad, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 14: run-rung, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 15: look-luck, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 16: climb-crime, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 17: hot-hat, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 18: they-day, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 19: run-ran, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 20: lugs-lungs, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 21: not-nut, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 22: thought-taught, ...

- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 23: eat-it, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 24: few-hue, ...

Songs & Poems

- Row, Row, Row Your Boat
- There was a young lady from Niger.

Tongue Twisters

Listen and practice each phrase slowly, then practice them quickly.

- How much wood would a woodchuck chuck?
- Rubber baby buggy bumpers
- She sells seashells by the seashore.

This is part of Interesting Things for ESL Students.

http://www.manythings.org/pp/

Assessment Sheet 1

1. Listen to each sound and circle the correct sound.

      1. boat/vote

      2. curb/curve

      3. best/vest

      4. right/light

      5. lice/rice

      6. long/wrong

      7. thick/sick

      8. think/sink

      9. path/pass

      10. mouse/mouth

      11. fun/fan

      12. bug/bag

      13. cut/cat

      14. run/ran

      15. seas/she's

      16. sheet/seat

      17. sip/ship

      18. funny/honey

      19. fear/hear

      20. force/horse

(Five points for each question) Score:_____/100

Self-evaluation Sheet 1

Name:					
Description	Score				
I understand English vowel sounds and can recognize them well.	5	4	3	2	1
I understand English consonant sounds and can recognize them well.	5	4	3	2	1
The use of strategies helped me recognize English sounds.	5	4	3	2	1
I am familiar with self-monitoring, repetition, and auditory representation strategies.	5	4	3	2	1
I enjoyed the class and learned a lot.	5	4	3	2	1

5: excellent
4: good
3: acceptable
2: needs improvement
1: needs more attention in class

Lesson Two
English Syllables and Stressed Syllables

Objectives:
1. To practice the English syllable system
2. To become familiar with stressed syllables in English words
3. To train the phenomenon of word linking

Materials:
Focus Sheets 2-1, 2-2, 2-3, and 2-4; Work Sheets 2-1, 2-2, and 2-3; Assessment Sheet 2, Self-evaluation Sheet, audiotape

Task Chain 1: Learning about the English syllable system
1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 2-1 and explains the English syllable system.
2. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 2-1 and lets students complete the questions.
3. The teacher gives the answers.

Task Chain 2: Learning stressed syllables in English words
1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 2-2 and explains the stressed syllable in English.
2. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 2-2 and lets students complete the exercises.
3. The teacher gives the answers.

Task Chain 3: Learning word-linking in English
1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 2-3 and explains the word-linking phenomenon in English.
2. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 2-3 and lets students complete the exercises.
3. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 2-4 and explains the answers.

Task Chain 4: Assessment
1. The teacher distributes Assessment Sheet 2 and lets students complete the questions.
2. The teacher collects all the Assessment Sheets.
3. The teacher distributes Self-evaluation Sheet 2 and lets students evaluate their progress.

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Assessment:
1. The teacher can evaluate students' understanding of English syllable, stressed syllable, and word-linking phenomenon through Assessment Sheet 2.

2. The teacher can assess students' understanding and progress through Self-evaluation Sheet 2.

Grading Scale for Assessment Sheet 2

Score	Grade
96-100	A+
91-95	A
86-90	B+
71-85	B
61-70	C+
51-60	C
00-50	Incomplete

The English Syllable System

Syllable: A syllable is a small word or part of a word that gets one beat. Each syllable has one vowel sound.

Japanese syllable system:
Japanese words mainly consist of pairs of consonants (C) + vowels (V) or vowels alone.

Examples: Karaoke (Ka-ra-o-ke), Kabuki (Ka-bu-ki), Osaka (O-sa-ka)

English syllable: A syllable system in English words is much more complicated than that in Japanese words.

Examples: forward (for-ward), pattern (pat-tern), Important (im-por-tant), calculation (cal-cu-la-tion)

Work Sheet 2-1

Directions: Listen to the audiotape and count the number of syllables.

1. part (   )

2. following (   )

3. number (   )

4. dictionary (   )

5. useful (   )

6. word (   )

7. repetition (   )

8. determines (   )

9. pencil (   )

10. expression (   )

11. group (   )

12. understanding (   )

13. pronounce (   )

14. sound (   )

15. correctly (   )

16. presentation (   )

17. experience (   )

18. think (   )

19. consonant (   )

20. contain (   )

(Source: Candace, M. 1994, p. 25)

Focus Sheet 2-2
Stressed Syllables

1. In English, words of more than one syllable have a
   stress, or accent, on one of the syllables. The
   stressed syllable sounds longer, higher, and stronger
   than the other syllables in the word.

Examples:
1. army (ar-my), 2. campaign (cam-paign), 3. accident,
(ac-ci-dent) 4. suspicious (sus-pi-cious), 5. disappoint
(dis-a-ppoint), 6. ceremony (cer-e-mon-y), 7. arithmetic
(a-rith-me-tic), 8. recognition (re-cog-ni-tion)

The difference between stressed and unstressed syllables
is one of the most significant features in English. You
have to be sensitive to the stress or accent in English
words.

2. Some words in English can be used as either nouns or
   verbs. The difference in stress indicates the
   difference in usage: for the nouns and verbs below, the
   noun has the stress on the first syllable, while the
   verb has the stress on the second syllable.

Examples:
1. con-duct (noun), con-duct (verb)
3. in-sult (noun), in-sult (verb)
4. per-mit (noun), per-mit (verb)
5. pro-gress (noun), pro-gress (verb)

3. The above noun-verb stress system is not always the
   case. In many words, the noun and verb stress is
   identical.

Examples:
1. ac-cess (noun), ac-cess (verb)
2. men-tion (noun), men-tion (verb)
3. down-load (noun), down-load (verb)

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Work Sheet 2-2
Stressed Syllables

Directions: Listen to the audiotape carefully.
Circle the syllable that is stressed.

1. at-ten-tion
2. ex-am-ple
3. pre-sent
4. in-crease
5. prog-ress
6. sub-ject
7. in-tro-duce
8. nec-es-sar-y
9. mis-take
10. dis-cus-sion
11. ques-tion
12. au-di-ence
13. con-fi-dent
14. un-der-stand
15. dif-fi-cult
16. re-la-tion-ship
17. op-por-tu-ni-ty
18. ac-a-dem-ic
19. com-pre-hen-sion
20. sit-u-a-tion
21. ap-pro-pri-ate
22. pro-nun-ci-a-tion
23. par-tic-i-pate
24. pro-fes-sion-al

(Source: Candace, M. 1994, p. 27)

Focus Sheet 2-3
Word-Linking

1. Assimilation:
Some sounds are assimilated into adjacent sounds.
Examples:

Is she your sister? [íʃʃi]

Need you go? [níːdʒu]

I *asked you* a question. [ǽsktʃu]

2. Reduction
Some sounds are omitted in some contexts.

I finished it *just now.* [dʒʌ́snáu]

That present *surprised them.* [səpráizðəm]

That *old man* is my grandpa. [óulmǽn]

3. Contracted form
Contracted forms sound like one sound.
Examples:

Who'd like to play tennis? [huːd]

I've forgotten her address. [aiv]

You *might've* known *she'd* refuse. [máitəv] [ʃiːd]

4. Liaison
Some sounds are connected with adjacent sounds.
Examples:

It'll *clear up* soon. [klíərʌp]

I *wonder if* it's true. [wʌ́ndərifits]

Enough is enough. [inʌ́fizinʌ́f]

(Source: Fukasawa, 2001, pp. 76, 84, 102, 106, 120, 124, 164, and 166)

Work Sheet 2-3
Word Linking

Directions: Listen to the audiotape carefully and fill in the blanks.

1. I _____ _____ _____ few hours every day for reading.

2. We have to _____ _____ _____ _____ detail.

3. I don't want to be _____ _____ _____ _____ the wheel.

4. Did you _____ _____ the report?

5. He's _____ strong _____ _____.

6. I must _____ _____ _____ American literature.

7. That's more _____ _____ _____ _____.

8. He'll _____ _____ _____ tomorrow.

9. No _____ _____ _____ _____ conversation.

10. He went _____ _____.

11. I can't see them from _____ _____ am.

12. I'll love you _____ _____ ever.

13. If _____ _____ had more time!

14. It's time you learned to _____ _____ _____ _____ feet.

15. We'll _____ _____.

16. I can _____ _____ thoughts.

17. _____ be nice, I think.

18. What on earth _____ think _____ doing?

19. _____ gone when I got back home.

20. I'd rather you _____ _____ _____.

Focus Sheet 2-4
Answers

1. I <u>set aside a</u> few hours every day for reading.
2. We have to <u>map it out in</u> detail.
3. I don't want to be <u>just a cog in</u> the wheel.
4. Did you <u>hand in</u> the report?
5. He's <u>as</u> strong <u>as</u> ever.
6. I must <u>brush up on</u> American literature.
7. That's more <u>I can arrange</u>.
8. He'll <u>call on us</u> tomorrow.
9. No <u>cutting in on our</u> conversation.
10. He went <u>far away</u>.
11. I can't see them from <u>where I</u> am.
12. I'll love you <u>forever and</u> ever.
13. If <u>only I</u> had more time!
14. It's time you learned to <u>stand on your own feet</u>.
15. We'll <u>miss you</u>.
16. I can <u>read your</u> thoughts.
17. <u>That'll</u> be nice, I think.
18. What on earth <u>d'you</u> think <u>you're</u> doing?
19. <u>It'd</u> gone when I got back home.
20. I'd rather you <u>didn't tell her</u>.

(Source: Fukasawa, 2001, pp. 74, 76, 78, 80, 84, 86, 90, 94, 102, 108, 122, 124, and 166)

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Assessment Sheet 2

I. Listen to the audiotape and count the number of
syllables.

                1. baby ( )
                2. do ( )
                3. conversation ( )
                4. engineer ( )
                5. sanitary ( )
                6. adventure ( )

II. Listen to the audiotape and circle the stressed
syllables.

                1. med-i-ca-tion
                2. ma-chine
                3. im-i-tate
                4. de-lib-er-ate
                5. con-sti-tu-tion
                6. com-pu-ter
                7. con-cen-trate
                8. reg-is-tra-tion

II. Listen to the audiotape and fill in the blanks.
1. _____ _____ hands above your head.
2. _____ _____ at me like that!
3. I can't _____ _____ with _____ _____ that.
4. _____ _____ to some more rice.
5. Is this the _____ _____ looking for?
6. I _____ stand it.

                (5 points for each question) _____/100

(Sources: I & II from Orion, G, F. 1997, pp. 20-22; III
from Fukasawa, T. 2001, p. 94 and 128)

Self-evaluation Sheet 2

Name:					
Description	Score				
I fully understand the English syllable system.	5	4	3	2	1
I fully understand stressed syllables in English words.	5	4	3	2	1
I understand the phenomenon of word linking.	5	4	3	2	1
I can pay attention to these sound phenomena above when listening to English.	5	4	3	2	1
I enjoyed the class and learned a lot.	5	4	3	2	1

5: excellent
4: good
3: acceptable
2: needs improvement
1: needs more attention in class

Lesson Three
Thought Groups and
Selective Listening

Objectives:
1. To become familiar with thought groups, focus words, and sentence stress
2. To listen for the main ideas selectively

Materials:
Focus Sheets 3-1, 3-2, 3-3, and 3-4; Work Sheets 3-1, and 3-2; Assessment Sheet 3, Self-evaluation Sheet 3, audiotape

Task Chain 1: Thought groups and focus words
1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 3-1 and explains thought groups and focus words in English sentences.
2. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 3-1 and lets students complete the exercises.
3. The teacher gives the answers.

Task Chain 2: Sentence Stress
1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 3-2 and explains sentence stress in English.
2. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 3-2 and lets students listen for the topics and main ideas selectively.
3. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 3-3 and explains the answers.

Task Chain 3: Assessment
1. The teacher distributes Assessment Sheet 3 and lets students complete the exercises.
2. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 3-4 and explains the answers.
3. The teacher collects all the Assessment Sheets.

Task Chain 4: Self-assessment of listening skills
1. The teacher distributes Self-evaluation Sheet 3.
2. The students evaluate the listening skills that they learned in the previous lessons.

Assessment:
1. The teacher can evaluate students' understanding of this lesson through Assessment Sheet 3.
2. The teacher can evaluate students' listening skill readiness through Self-evaluation Sheet 3.

Grading Scale for Assessment Sheet 3

Score	Grade
96-100	A+
91-95	A
86-90	B+
71-85	B
61-70	C+
51-60	C
00-50	Incomplete

Focus Sheet 3-1
Thought Group and Focus Word

1. Thought Groups:
A thought group is a spoken phrase heard as an
intonational unit. Longer sentences are divided into
thought groups. Each thought group has a focus word, which
indicates the most important information and highlights
new information. Each thought group is followed by a
slight pause or a change in pitch.

Examples: We want to <u>talk</u> to you /so leave us a <u>message</u>.
    Mary made an <u>appointment</u> /with the <u>dentist</u> on Monday.
    After the <u>movie</u>, /they went to a <u>bar</u> /to have <u>beer</u>.
                            (Source: Chen, C. 1996, p. 14)

How to recognize thought groups:
    A. Thought-groups generally start on a higher pitch
       and then drop at the end.
    B. To clearly mark the end of the group, there are
       several intonational signals:
       1. pause
       2. a drop in pitch
       3. lengthening of the last stressed syllables

However, during rapid speech, pauses are not so common.
                    (Source: Gilbert, J. 1995, p. 102)

2. Focus Words:
Each thought-group has one focus word, which is emphasized
in it. Focus words are the most important or new
information in the contexts. Therefore, you have to pay
attention to focus words rather than other words so that
you can understand the meaning of the context you are
listening.

Example:
    X: Where shall we <u>eat</u>?
    Y: Let's eat in a <u>restaurant</u>.
    X: <u>Which</u> restaurant?
                    (Source: Gilbert, J., 1995, p. 107)

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Work Sheet 3-1
Thought Groups and Focus Words

Directions: Listen to the audiotape carefully. Try to
listen for each thought-group and these distinctions. Put
slashes between the thought groups, and circle the focus
words.

1. Attention all employees. The power outage in plant
   number two has been resolved. However, our main
   computers are still down. We will be closing the
   production line early today so that technical services
   can correct the problem. Plan to leave by 2:30 p.m.
   unless told otherwise by your supervisor. Please make
   sure all manufacturing equipment is turned off before
   you leave. Thank you.

2. Good morning everyone. As you know, we have been
   holding interviews for a new editor to join our team.
   Ms. Patricia Wright has been chosen for the position.
   She will begin her orientation program this week and
   will be on staff by the end of the month. Ms. Wright
   has a good deal of experience in our field, both here
   and abroad. She worked for a major publication in Hong
   Kong for over two years before returning to this
   country.

(Source: Arbogast, B., Ashmore, E., Duke, T., Jerris, K,
N., Locke, M., & Shearin, R., 2001, p. 98)

Focus Sheet 3-2
Sentence Stress

Sentence Stress:
There are stressed and unstressed words in all the English sentences. Stressed words are called content words, which provide most of the meaning. Therefore, you don't have to pay equal attention to every word in order to understand the meaning.

Example:
Directions: Listen to the incomplete dialogue below. Even though more than half the words are missing, can you guess what the dialogue is about?

I. Kathy lost _____ handbag _____ _____ restaurant _____
_____ _____ careless. _____ placed _____ handbag _____
_____ floor. _____ _____ finished eating _____ completely
forgot _____ _____ _____ left _____ restaurant.

This dialogue is about _____.

II. Customer: _____ _____ possible _____ fly _____ Los
Angeles _____ Sunday?
Agent: Yes. _____ _____ _____ couple _____ flights.
One_____ _____ 9:30 _____ _____ other _____ _____ 3:15.
Customer: What _____ _____ fare _____ coach?
Agent: _____ round-trip fare _____ $318.00 plus tax. _____
_____ want _____ make _____ reservation?

This dialogue is about _____.

(Sources: I. Orion, G, F., 1997, p. 41; II. Grant, L., 1999, p. 101)

Work Sheet 3-2
Listening for Main Topics

Directions:
Listen to the audiotape. Focus on thought groups and stressed words, and try to grasp the main ideas or topics. Circle the appropriate answers.

I. What is this message about?
   a. Making an appointment for a driving exam
   b. Confirming a medical check appointment
   c. Canceling a physics exam

II. What is this announcement about?
   a. A flight is delayed because of the bad weather.
   b. A flight is canceled because of thunderstorms.
   c. A flight is delayed because of mechanical troubles.

III. What is this announcement about?
   a. A company administrator will go on a business trip on this Thursday.
   b. A company administrator will have some training sessions from this Thursday.
   c. A company administrator will introduce the dress code to all the workers from this Thursday.

Focus Sheet 3-3
Transcripts and Answers

I. Ms. Giovanni, this is Janet from Dr. Rossi's office calling to remind you of your annual physical exam tomorrow at 10:30. Please be on time. The appointment should take about an hour.
     Answer: (b)

II. This is to announce the new departure time for Flight 109 to Jakarta. Severe thunderstorms delayed the connecting flight from Tokyo. The plane is on the ground and is being serviced. Departure time is now scheduled for 8:30. Meal vouchers will be available for passengers scheduled on this flight. Passengers are asked to please be back to the gate by 8:00 for boarding.
     Answer: (a)

III. Though we have no official dress code for traveling while on business, employees should remember that their physical appearance affects customers' impressions of our company. Beginning this Thursday, I will offer the first in a series of three workshops on business dress and conduct for travel in foreign countries. I hope the sessions will be informative and thought provoking.
     Answer: (b)

(Source: Arbogast, B., Ashmore, E., Duke, T., Jerris, K, N., Locke, M., & Shearin, R., 2001, pp. 98-99)

Assessment Sheet 3

Directions: Listen to the audiotape, paying attention to the main ideas and topics, and answer the questions.

I. Directions:
Listen to the audiotape carefully, and put slashes between the thought groups.

Once upon a starless midnight there was an owl who sat on the branch of an oak tree. Two ground moles tried to slip quietly by, unnoticed. "You" said the owl. "Who?" they quavered, in fear and astonishment, for they could not believe it was possible for anyone to see them in that thick darkness.

II. Directions:
Listen to the audiotape, and answer the questions. Remember that you do not have to pay equal attention to every word, but focus on focus words or content words in order to grasp the main ideas.

1. (1) Where does this talk probably take place?
    a. In a restaurant kitchen.
    b. At an appliance repair company.
    c. On a factory floor.
    d. At a dry cleaner.

    (2) What should the user do if the items do not come out clean?
    a. Stack them on the cart.
    b. Wash them by hand.
    c. Put them through the machine again.
    d. Contact customer service.

2. (1) Who is the speaker most likely addressing?
    a. A potential buyer.
    b. A construction crew.
    c. A house cleaner.
    d. A group of tourists.

(2) Which part of the house has been renovated recently?
 a. The kitchen.
 b. The bedroom.
 c. The garage.
 d. The stairways.

(3) What is mentioned as a possible disadvantage of the house?
 a. The distance from the house to town.
 b. The size of the building.
 c. The price of making improvements.
 d. The condition of the structure.

3. (1) What problem is the speaker addressing?
 a. Conference meeting schedules have changed.
 b. The demand for programs is greater than the supply.
 c. Some items have been removed from the information desk.
 d. The guest speaker for the conference has not arrived.

(2) What will happen in the afternoon?
 a. Guests will be able to register.
 b. New meeting times will be announced.
 c. The opening session will begin.
 d. More programs will be available.

4. (1) Who is speaking?
 a. A political candidate.
 b. A weather forecaster.
 c. A radio-show host.
 d. A newspaper reporter.

(2) What is Ms. Valmont's job?
 a. Computer programmer.
 b. Government official.
 c. Journalist.
 d. Publisher.

(3) What will be heard next?
 a. Last week's election results.
 b. A political commentary.
 c. A candidate's speech.
 d. Local news stories.

Question I: four points for each slash
Question II: four points for each question
<div style="text-align: right">Score: ____ /100</div>

I.   Once upon a starless midnight / there was an owl /
     who sat on the branch of an oak tree./ Two ground
     moles / tried to slip quietly by,/ unnoticed./ "You"
     / said the owl./ "Who?" / they quavered, / in fear
     and astonishment,/ for they could not believe / it
     was possible / for anyone to see them / in that thick
     darkness./ (Source: Chen, C. 1996, p. 13)

II. (1) This dishwasher might look intimidating, but it's
     really quite easy to use. Start by taking an empty
     dish rack and load the dishes so that none of them
     are touching each other. Place the rack at the
     opening of the machine and hit the power switch so
     that the rack automatically feeds through the
     machine. Check the dishes when they come out on the
     other side and if they aren't completely clean, run
     the rack through the machine again. When they're
     done, take the dishes out and stack them on the dish
     cart. (Source: Arbogast, B et al., 2001, p. 98)
          Answers: (1)a (2)c

     (2) As you can see, the house is in excellent
     condition. It's worth far more than the asking
     price. The present owners carried out some
     renovation work recently and put in a whole new
     bathroom and kitchen. They were careful to retain
     the charming character of the house, as I'm sure
     you'll appreciate. When you go upstairs, you'll see
     how cozy the bedroom is. The house is a bit small,
     but you could easily build an extension over the old
     garage. The property is in a very desirable location
     - just minutes away from the train station, a
     supermarket, and some restaurants.
          (Source: Arbogast, B et al., 2001, p. 99)
          Answers: (1)a (2)a (3)b

     (3) Ladies and gentlemen, some of you have been
     asking for additional conference programs.
     Unfortunately, we can't give anyone an extra program
     until we're sure that we have enough for the
     conference guests who haven't arrived yet. If you've
     lost yours and need to check your meeting schedules,

you can use the copies that we have at the information desk. Those of you who still need an extra program can check with us this afternoon. By then, we will have additional copies.

(Source: Arbogast, B et al., 2001, p. 98)
Answers: (1)b (2)d

(4) This is Radio Talk Today. My name is Vanessa Evans and this afternoon we'll be talking with Sylvie Valmont about last week's election results. Ms. Valmont is a newspaper journalist and author of several books on politics and political parties. We'll be discussing her views on why some candidates fared well in the elections and why others didn't live up to expectations. She'll also tell us about the changing future of political parties in our country. But, before I bring on Ms. Valmont, here's the local and regional news and weather forecast for the weekend. (Source: Arbogast, B. et al., 2001, p. 337)
Answers: (1)c (2)c (3)d

Self-evaluation Sheet 3
Listening Skill Checklist

Directions: Use the following checklist of listening skills.

1. Sounds.
Circle the problem English sounds. Write examples of words with problem consonants or vowels.

   Vowels
   /iː//i//e//æ//ɑ//ɔ//u//uː//ə//ei//ou//ai//au//ɔi//ɔː//ʌ/

   Consonants
   /p//b//m//f//v//θ//ð//t//d//s//z//n//l//r//ʃ/
   /ʒ//tʃ//dʒ//k//g//ŋ//w//j//h/

2. Syllable system.
Are you familiar with the English syllable system?
(Yes/No)

3. Stressed syllable.
Can you distinguish the stressed syllable from others clearly? (Yes/No)

4. Word-linking.
Can you understand the connected English words in a sentence? (Yes/No)

5. Thought groups.
Can you listen for each thought-group? (Yes/No)

6. Focus words and selective listening.
Can you listen for the main ideas or topics? (Yes/No)

Lesson Four
English News

Objectives:
1. To become familiar with the affective strategy
2. To listen to an authentic English news program
3. To think and discuss critically about the topic

Materials:
Focus Sheets 4-1, 4-2, 4-3; Work Sheets 4-1, 4-2;
Assessment Sheet 4, Self-evaluation Sheet 4, Internet-connected Computers

Task Chain 1: Pre-listening activity
1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 4-1 and explains the affective strategy.
2. The teacher demonstrates the strategy.
3. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 4-2 and introduces the key vocabulary and discusses the topic for the following listening activity.

Task Chain 2: While-listening activity
1. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 4-1.
2. The teacher writes the home page address on the blackboard, and lets students open this page (See Focus Sheet 4-3).
3. The students listen to the news program without its caption while completing the exercises in Work Sheet 4-1.
4. The teacher gives the answers of Work Sheet 4-1.

Task Chain 3: Post-listening activity
1. The students listen to the same news again with its caption.
2. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 4-2, and lets students discuss the questions in a group.

Task Chain 4: Assessment
1. The teacher distributes Assessment Sheet 4 and lets students complete the exercises.
2. The teacher collects Assessment Sheet 4 and Work Sheet 4-1.
3. The teacher distributes Self-evaluation Sheet 4 and lets students evaluate their progress.

Assessment:
1. The teacher can evaluate students' understanding of this lesson through Assessment Sheet 4.
2. The teacher can evaluate students' current listening competence through Work Sheet 4-1.
3. The teacher can assess students' progress through Self-evaluation Sheet.

Grading Scale for Assessment Sheet 4

Score	Grade
96-100	A+
91-95	A
86-90	B+
71-85	B
61-70	C+
51-60	C
00-50	Incomplete

Focus Sheet 4-1
Affective Strategy

Affective strategy is managing personal emotion to get attention to tasks. It is useful especially when you know the words but still do not understand.

1. Don't panic. Remember that you are not alone. Your classmates are probably having difficulty too.

2. Continue to take notes even though they may not be perfect. Any nouns and verbs you manage to write down will be useful later when you start asking questions to determine exactly what you missed.

3. Don't give up. Continue to concentrate on the topic. Try not to let your mind wander. Thinking about something you do understand about the topic usually helps.

4. When you feel lost, listen for key nouns and verbs in the next few sentences. These words carry most of the meaning.

5. Also jot down any negative terms such as "never" and "not." Without these words, your notes may appear to say the opposite of what the speaker intended.

6. Try repeating to yourself the sentence or sentences you cannot seem to understand. If this does not help, try punctuating the sentence differently or changing the rhythm, stress, or intonation patterns as you repeat it to yourself. Sometimes this is all it takes to jump from the muddle of incomprehension to the "Aha!" of understanding.

7. Familiarize yourself with the speaker's topic ahead of time. If this is an academic class, complete the assigned readings before the lecture. If there are no assigned readings or is the readings are very difficult, try to find some general information on the topic from an encyclopedia, a magazine, or a textbook from a lower-level course.
   (Source: Ferrer-Hanreddy & Whalley, 1996, p. 116)

Focus Sheet 4-2
New Vocabulary

1. orbit

2. object

3. for a price

4. permit

5. civilian

6. vehicle

7. desire

8. industrial

9. purpose

10. official

11. agency

12. measure
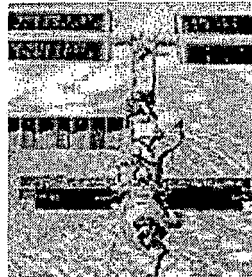
13. average

14. candidate

15. excellent

SCIENCE REPORT - March 14, 2002: Space Tourism

By Mario Ritter

This is the VOA Special English SCIENCE REPORT.

Would you like to orbit the Earth inside the International
Space Station? Now you can take a space holiday — for a price.
This is due to a recent decision by top space officials of the
United States, Russia, Canada, Japan and the European Space
Agency.

Last April, American businessman Dennis Tito reportedly paid
between twelve-million and twenty-million dollars to spend one
week on the International Space Station. NASA had strongly
objected to the Russian plan to permit a civilian on the costly
research vehicle. After two years of negotiations, space
officials have agreed on a process to train private citizens to
take trips to the International Space Station.

NASA recently agreed to conditions that will permit Russia to
sell trips to the space station. The trips are planned by an
American company called Space Adventures Limited of Arlington,
Virginia. The company calls itself "the world's leading space
tourism company." The company has sold a space trip to Mark
Shuttleworth, a South African businessman. In April, Mister
Shuttleworth will be launched into space from the Baikonur
Cosmodrome in Kazakhstan.

Experts say the change in policy at NASA shows a new desire to
use space vehicles for business and industrial purposes. In a
speech to Congress last year, NASA official Michael Hawes said
that the space agency had not considered civilian travel as one
of the industries it wanted to develop. However, Mister Hawes
said that private space travel could now be done as long as
safety measures are observed carefully.

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Yet, the average citizen will not be able to travel into space in the near future. Space Adventures Limited sells a training program for space flight that costs two-hundred-thousand dollars. That price does not include the cost of the trip to the International Space Station. That holiday in space costs twenty-million dollars.

Candidates for adventure space travel trips must be in excellent health and must pass difficult health tests. They must receive a lot of training. However, Special English can help you prepare for a space holiday. This is because all successful candidates who wish to travel to the International Space Station must be able to read and speak English.

This VOA Special English SCIENCE REPORT was written by Mario Ritter.

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Work Sheet 4-1
While-Listening Activity

Space Tourism:
Directions: You are going to listen to some information about one science news, Space Tourism. As you listen, take notes on the information using the list below.
Remember, the main ideas are written on the left. You have to complete the details on the right.

Main Ideas	Details and Examples
A. Dennis Tino paid much money for one-week space travel.	1. Dennis Tino is an _____ business man. 2. Dennis Tino paid between _____ and _____ dollars. 3. At first, NASA was against the Russian plan to take a civilian to the space station.
B. Recently, NASA agreed to the Russian plan to sell trips to the space station.	An American company called _____ _____ Limited is planning this travel.
C. Experts' views of the NASA's policy.	NASA' policy is that private space travel can be carried out as long as _____ _____ are observed carefully.
D. The difficulties of space travel for the average citizen	Space travel costs: a. The training program for space flight = _____ dollars. b. The total price = _____ dollars.
E. Conclusion.	The candidates must have the ability to speak and write _____.

Work Sheet 4-2
Group Discussion

Directions: Discuss the following topics in a group, and write down your results.

1. Do you want to go on a space trip?

2. How do you think that the American businessman, Dennis Tino, paid a huge sum of money for just one-week space travel?

3. How much do you pay for the space travel?

4. Choose the five items that you want to take to the space, and explain the reasons logically.

Assessment Sheet 4

I. Directions: Fill the appropriate alphabets in accordance with the meanings or definitions of each word into the blanks.

1. orbit ( ); 2. excellent ( ); 3. for a price ( );
4. permit ( ); 5. civilian ( ); 6. vehicle ( );
7. desire ( ); 8. industrial ( ); 9. purpose ( );
10. candidate ( )

a. applicant; b. wish, greed; c. aim, goal; d. citizen;
c. vessel; d. manufacturing, technical; e. approve;
f. quite a price; g. wonderful
h. the path taken by an artificial satellite or spacecraft around the earth

II. Directions: Circle True or False.
1. Dennis Tino is a Russian businessman. (T/F)
2. Dennis Tino paid two hundred thousand dollars for a space travel. (T/F)
3. At first, NASA was against the space travel plan. (T/F)
4. All space travelers must be able to speak English. (T/F)
5. All common citizens will be able to take a space trip easily near future. (T/F)

Question I: five points for each
Question II: ten points for each

___/100

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Self-evaluation Sheet 4

Name:					
Description	Score:				
I know the right way to listen to news programs in English.	5	4	3	2	1
I am familiar with affective strategy.	5	4	3	2	1
I can control my attention and emotion during listening.	5	4	3	2	1
I could discuss critically about the topic.	5	4	3	2	1
I enjoyed the class and learned a lot.	5	4	3	2	1

    5: excellent
    4: good
    3: acceptable
    2: needs improvement
    1: needs more attention in class

Lesson Five
English Speech

Objectives:
1. To listen to a formal English speech
2. To become familiar with the note-taking strategy
3. To discuss the cultural differences between Japan and America in the way of speech

Materials:
Focus Sheets 5-1, 5-2, 5-3; Work Sheets 5-1, 5-2; Assessment Sheet 5, Self-evaluation Sheet 5, Internet-connected computers

Task Chain 1: Pre-listening activity
1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 5-1, explains the note-taking strategy, and demonstrates it.
2. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 5-2 and introduces the keywords and new vocabulary.

Task Chain 2: While-listening activity
1. The teacher writes the homepage address on the blackboard and lets students open this page (See Focus Sheet 5-2).
2. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 5-1 and lets students watch the presidential address without its caption while completing Work Sheet 5-1.
3. The students compare the answers of Work Sheet 5-1 in a group.
4. The teacher gives the answers.

Task Chain 3: Post-listening activity
1. The students watch the same speech again with its caption.
2. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 5-2 and lets students discuss the differences and similarities between American and Japanese speeches in a group.
3. The students present the results of their discussion to the class.

Task Chain 4: Assessment
1. The teacher distributes Assessment Sheet 5-1 and lets students complete the questions.
2. The teacher collects Assessment Sheet 5 and Work Sheet 5-1.

3. The teacher distributes Self-evaluation Sheet 5 and lets students evaluate their progress.

Assessment:
1. The teacher can evaluate students' understanding of this lesson through Assessment Sheet 5-1 and their presentation.
2. The teacher can evaluate students' current listening competence through Work Sheet 5-1.
3. The teacher can assess students' progress through Self-evaluation Sheet 5.

Grading Scale for Assessment Sheet 5

Score	Grade
96-100	A+
91-95	A
86-90	B+
71-85	B
61-70	C+
51-60	C
00-50	Incomplete

Focus Sheet 5-1
Note-taking strategy

Note-taking helps a listener concentrate on listening, and retain the information after listening.
1. Prepare to take notes: The notes must be short and clear.
2. Listen to keywords: When taking notes, it is not necessary to write every word you hear. Try to listen to the most important ideas or focus on key words.
3. Use abbreviations and symbols: Use shorten words and symbols in order to save time and allow a focus on the important ideas.

The list of some symbols

=	equal, means	@	each
≠	not the same	?	question
#	number	+/&	plus, in addition
<	is smaller/less than	%	percent
>	is larger/more than	$	money
~	approximately	↑	rise, increase, go up
{	include	↓	decrease, go down
∴	therefore, as a result	→	cause

The list of abbreviations

w/	with	w/o	without
btwn	between	e.g.	for example
am	morning	pm	afternoon, evening
i.e.	that is	yr.	year
re:	concerning, regarding	mo.	month
etc	and so on	wk.	week
vs.	versus	no.	number
ch.	chapter	pd.	paid
p./pp.	page	ft.	foot
Ib.	pound	hr.	hour

Focus Sheet 5-2
Keywords for the Topic and
Important Vocabulary

Key Words: Have you ever heard these phrases?

1. World Trade Center (WTC)
2. September 11
3. Al Qaeda Regime
4. Afghanistan

New Vocabulary:

1. military 2. strike 3. terrorist 4. installation

4. regime 6. staunch 7. pledge 8. grant

9. intelligence 10. disrupt 11. recruit 12. terror

13. pay a price 14. burrow 15. comprehensive

16. relentless 17. generosity 18. ally 19. faith

20. enemy 21. barbaric 22. criminal 23. profane

24. religion 25. murder 26. commit 27. accumulation

28. conflict 29. neutral 30. outlaw

31. at one's peril 32. threat 33. pursue 35.fulfill

36. precaution 37. enforcement 38. sacrifice

39. dedicate 40. represent 41. touching 42. generation

43. waver 44. falter 45. prevail 46. bless

Focus Sheet 5-3
Presidential Address

For Immediate Release
Office of the Press Secretary
October 7, 2001

1:00 P.M. EDT
THE PRESIDENT: Good afternoon. On my orders, the United
States military has begun strikes against al Qaeda terrorist
training camps and military installations of the Taliban regime
in Afghanistan. These carefully targeted actions are designed
to disrupt the use of Afghanistan as a terrorist base of
operations, and to attack the military capability of the
Taliban regime.

We are joined in this operation by our staunch friend, Great
Britain. Other close friends, including Canada, Australia,
Germany and France, have pledged forces as the operation
unfolds. More than 40 countries in the Middle East, Africa,
Europe and across Asia have granted air transit or landing
rights. Many more have shared intelligence. We are supported
by the collective will of the world.

More than two weeks ago, I gave Taliban leaders a series of
clear and specific demands: Close terrorist training camps;
hand over leaders of the al Qaeda network; and return all
foreign nationals, including American citizens, unjustly
detained in your country. None of these demands were met. And
now the Taliban will pay a price. By destroying camps and
disrupting communications, we will make it more difficult for
the terror network to train new recruits and coordinate their
evil plans.

Initially, the terrorists may burrow deeper into caves and
other entrenched hiding places. Our military action is also
designed to clear the way for sustained, comprehensive and
relentless operations to drive them out and bring them to
justice.

At the same time, the oppressed people of Afghanistan will know
the generosity of America and our allies. As we strike
military targets, we'll also drop food, medicine and supplies
to the starving and suffering men and women and children of
Afghanistan.

The United States of America is a friend to the Afghan people,
and we are the friends of almost a billion worldwide who

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practice the Islamic faith. The United States of America is an enemy of those who aid terrorists and of the barbaric criminals who profane a great religion by committing murder in its name.

This military action is a part of our campaign against terrorism, another front in a war that has already been joined through diplomacy, intelligence, the freezing of financial assets and the arrests of known terrorists by law enforcement agents in 38 countries. Given the nature and reach of our enemies, we will win this conflict by the patient accumulation of successes, by meeting a series of challenges with determination and will and purpose.

Today we focus on Afghanistan, but the battle is broader. Every nation has a choice to make. In this conflict, there is no neutral ground. If any government sponsors the outlaws and killers of innocents, they have become outlaws and murderers, themselves. And they will take that lonely path at their own peril.

I'm speaking to you today from the Treaty Room of the White House, a place where American Presidents have worked for peace. We're a peaceful nation. Yet, as we have learned, so suddenly and so tragically, there can be no peace in a world of sudden terror. In the face of today's new threat, the only way to pursue peace is to pursue those who threaten it.

We did not ask for this mission, but we will fulfill it. The name of today's military operation is Enduring Freedom. We defend not only our precious freedoms, but also the freedom of people everywhere to live and raise their children free from fear.

I know many Americans feel fear today. And our government is taking strong precautions. All law enforcement and intelligence agencies are working aggressively around America, around the world and around the clock. At my request, many governors have activated the National Guard to strengthen airport security. We have called up Reserves to reinforce our military capability and strengthen the protection of our homeland.

In the months ahead, our patience will be one of our strengths -- patience with the long waits that will result from tighter security; patience and understanding that it will take time to achieve our goals; patience in all the sacrifices that may come.
Today, those sacrifices are being made by members of our Armed Forces who now defend us so far from home, and by their proud

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and worried families. A Commander-in-Chief sends America's sons and daughters into a battle in a foreign land only after the greatest care and a lot of prayer. We ask a lot of those who wear our uniform. We ask them to leave their loved ones, to travel great distances, to risk injury, even to be prepared to make the ultimate sacrifice of their lives. They are dedicated, they are honorable; they represent the best of our country. And we are grateful.

To all the men and women in our military -- every sailor, every soldier, every airman, every coastguardsman, every Marine   -- I say this: Your mission is defined; your objectives are clear; your goal is just. You have my full confidence, and you will have every tool you need to carry out your duty.

I recently received a touching letter that says a lot about the state of America in these difficult times -- a letter from a 4th-grade girl, with a father in the military: "As much as I don't want my Dad to fight," she wrote, "I'm willing to give him to you."

This is a precious gift, the greatest she could give. This young girl knows what America is all about. Since September 11, an entire generation of young Americans has gained new understanding of the value of freedom, and its cost in duty and in sacrifice.

The battle is now joined on many fronts. We will not waver; we will not tire; we will not falter; and we will not fail. Peace and freedom will prevail.
Thank you. May God continue to bless America.

(Source: http://www.whitehouse.gov/news/releases/2001/10/ 20011007-8.html)

Work Sheet 5-1
Listening and Taking Notes

Directions: You are going to listen to one speech about
9.11. As you listen, take notes on the information using
the list below. Remember, the main ideas are written on
the left. You have to complete the details on the right.

Main Ideas	Details
President, George W. Bush, is addressing.	Mr. Bush is talking about his order of attacking _____ Terrorist training camps.
More than two weeks ago, Mr. Bush sent a series of demands to Taliban leaders.	The demands are: (1) close _____ _____ _____. (2) hand over _____ of the al Qaeda network. (3) return all foreign people.
Mr. Bush is speaking from the treaty Room of the White house.	The treaty Room is the place where American presidents have worked for _____.
National precautions	All law _____ and intelligence agencies are in operation. The airport security has been strengthened by many _____.
The American military	According to Mr. Bush, members of American military are _____, and _____ the best of their country.
A touching letter	Mr. Bush received a letter from a ____ grade girl.
Conclusion	Mr. Bush concludes his speech by saying "_____ and _____ will prevail."

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Work Sheet 5-2
Differences of the Way of Speech

Directions: Discuss the differences and similarities in
the ways of speeches between Japan and America.
(For example, speaking with gestures, eye-contact, speech-
tone, or speech structures)

American Way of Speech   Japanese Way of Speech

Differences   Similarities   Differences

Notes: You can write here about anything you realize the
American culture or Japanese culture.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Assessment Sheet 5

I. Directions: Fill the appropriate alphabets in
   accordance with the meanings or definitions.

1.regime   ( )   2.staunch   ( )   3.pledge   ( )
4.waver   ( )   5.disrupt   ( )   6.burrow   ( )
7.relentless   ( )   8.generosity   ( )   9.ally   ( )
10.faith   ( )   11.outlaw   ( )   12.conflict   ( )
13.prevail   ( )   14.at one's peril   ( )
15.threat   ( )   16.sacrifice   ( )   17.represent   ( )
18.dedicated   ( )   19.touching   ( )   20.falter   ( )

a. battle, fight   b. blackguard   c. win, surpass
d. reliable   e. the country that are cooperating
f. moving, impressive   g. draw back   h. hesitate
i. fear   j. a self-sacrificing attitude
k. by one's own responsibility   l. express, show
m. belief   n. swear   o. destroy
p. lie hidden, conceal oneself   q. cruel, brutal
r. open-minded, permissives   s. victim, a heavy price

II.Circle True or False.

1. One of the aims of this military action is to destroy
   the use of Afghanistan as a terrorist base of
   operation.(T/F)

2. Mr. Bush gave some demands to Taliban leaders, and a
   few of these demands was met.(T/F)

3. The name of today's military operation is Infinite
   Freedom.(T/F)
4. According to Mr. Bush, the homeland security of the
   United States has been strengthened.(T/F)

5. The touching letter that Mr. Bush received was from a
   four-year old girl.(T/F)

Question I: three points for each

Question II: eight points for each
                                  ___/100

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Self-evaluation Sheet 5

Name:					
Description	Score				
I understand how to listen to an English speech well.	5	4	3	2	1
I am familiar with the note-taking strategy.	5	4	3	2	1
I understand the cultural differences in speeches between Japan and America.	5	4	3	2	1
I made myself understood during the discussion.	5	4	3	2	1
I enjoyed the class and learned a lot.	5	4	3	2	1

    5: excellent
    4: good
    3: acceptable
    2: needs improvement
    1: needs more attention in class

Lesson Six
The American City

Objectives:
1. To review the listening strategies that students already learned
2. To watch the cultural movie about San Francisco
3. To learn the American culture through the group research
4. To develop students' language skills through the group research

Materials:
Focus Sheets 6-1, 6-2, 6-3, 6-4; Work Sheets 6-1, 6-2; Group Member Evaluation Sheet 6, Evaluation Form 6, Internet-connected computers, Learn to Speak English (multimedia software (2002))

Task Chain 1: Pre-listening Activity
1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 6-1 and lets students review the listening strategies students learned before.
2. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 6-2 and introduces the keywords and new vocabulary for the following listening activity, and discuss American cities.

Task Chain 2: While-listening Activity
1. The teacher lets students turn on the computers and start the software: Learn to Speak English (See Focus Sheet 6-3).
2. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 6-1 and lets students watch the cultural movie about the city of San Francisco without its caption while completing Work Sheet 6-1.
3. The students compare the answers of Work Sheet 6-1 with a partner.
4. The teacher gives the answers.

Task Chain 4: Post-listening Activity (Brainstorming)
1. The teacher lets students watch the movie again with its caption.
2. The teacher makes 4-5 person groups and distributes Work Sheet 6-2.
3. Students ask the questions each other in a group.
4. Students present his/her results to the class.

Task Chain 5: Post-listening Activity Two
1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 6-4 and explains that students will do a research about one of the American cities that they like in a group, and present their results to the class in English two weeks later.
2. The teacher helps students in order to encourage their work.
3. After their presentation, students evaluate other members of their group by Group Member Evaluation Sheet 6.

Assessment:
1. The teacher can evaluate students' whole language abilities through their presentation using Evaluation Form 6.
2. The teacher can evaluate students' current listening competence through Work Sheet 6-1.
3. The teacher can evaluate the effectiveness of each student in a group research through Group Member Evaluation Sheet.

Grading Scale for Evaluation Form 6

Score	Grade
38-40	A+
34-37	A
30-33	B+
25-29	B
20-24	C+
15-19	C
00-14	Incomplete

Focus Sheet 6-1
Review of Listening Strategies

1. Self-monitoring Strategy
Listen to the target sounds or phrases carefully. Repeat
the sounds, and compare them with the original sounds.
Correct your pronunciation.

2. Repetition Strategy
Repeat what a native speaker says.
Imitate native speakers' pronunciation, intonation, and
accent.
Practice again and again.

3. Auditory representation Strategy
Listen for several phrases and repeat them immediately.
Note down phrases.
Repeat the phrases.
Close eyes, repeat by referring back to the auditory
representation.

4. Affective Strategy
Don't panic. Don't give up.
Continue to take notes.
Listen for key nouns and verbs. Jot down any negative
terms.
Become familiar with the speaker's topic ahead of time.

5. Note-taking Strategy
Listen for the main ideas and keywords.
Use abbreviations and symbols to help retain information.
Listen for repeated terms or ideas.

Focus Sheet 6-2
Keywords and New vocabulary

Keywords:
1.San Francisco
2.Golden Gate Bridge
3.Hippy

New Vocabulary

1. nestle

2. rolling

3. foggy

4. dramatic

5. landmark

6. breathtaking

7. vistas

8. quaint

9. majestic

10.dock

11.fountain

12.excursion

13.aquarium

14.immigrant

15.descendent

16.captivate

17.architecture

18.Hispanic

19.heritage

20.attraction

21.magnificent

22.treasure

San Francisco is known as America's most loved city. It is located on the San Francisco Bay and nestles among the rolling hills of northern California. The mornings are often foggy and the afternoons bright, cool, and sunny. The dramatic Golden Gate Bridge is one of America's most famous landmarks.

San Francisco has a breathtaking beauty. There are beautiful vistas to be seen from its high hills. There is the beautiful rocky coast. There are quaint harbors, waterfronts, and docks. There are majestic sailboats to be seen everywhere. Parks, fountains, gardens, and old buildings make each excursion a pleasure. Ponds, lakes, zoos and aquariums are easily found.

You will want to visit Haight-Ashbury district. In the 1960s this area was the center of America's Hippy mavement.

America's most famous Chinatown is in San Francisco. It is a monument to the contributions the Chinese immigrants of the past and their descendents of today have made to our country.

Your eye will be captivated everywhere you look. Be sure to take day trips to Monterrey, Santa Cruz, and Big Sur to appreciate the wonders of northern California.

You will be charmed by the beautiful Spanish architecture, a reflection of California's strong Hispanic heritage.

Relax and go surfing, sailing, and swimming. Then eat at some of the world's best seafood restaurants in San Francisco. And, if you want to shop, there are few places where you will find a greater variety than here.

You must ride on San Francisco's great attraction, the cable cars. And, drive its hilly, winding streets. You will be thrilled with the city's magnificent Victorian houses, its museums, its buildings, its art treasures, and its striking architecture. San Francisco, America's most loved city.

(Source: Learn to speak English, 2002)

Directions: Circle the appropriate words while watching the cultural movie about San Francisco.

1. San Francisco is located on the San Francisco Bay and among the hills of (Northern/Southern) California.

2. The mornings of San Francisco are often (rainy/foggy) and the afternoons bright, (hot/cool), and sunny.

3. There are (modern/quaint) harbors, waterfronts, and docks in San Francisco.

4. In the 1960s, the Haight-Ashbury district was the center of America's (Hippy/women's liberation) movement.

5. The (Japantown/Chinatown) in San Francisco is the most famous in America.

6. There is a lot of (Spanish/Greek) architecture in San Francisco.

7. The great attraction in San Francisco is (the locomotives/the cable cars).

8. There are many magnificent (Renaissance/Victorian) houses, its museums, its buildings, and its art treasures.

Work Sheet 6-2
Brainstorming Discussion

Ask your partners these questions below, and take notes
the answers.

1. Have you ever been to San Francisco?

2. Have you ever been to the United States?

3. Where and how did you like it?

4. Where is the most impressive place where you've been?

5. Why?

Focus Sheet 6-4
Group Research Project about American Cities

Directions: You are going to do a research about one of
the cities in America in a group. You will have two weeks
to prepare for your project. You are supposed to present
the results of your research to the class. Each member
must speak out for at least few minutes. Also, some kinds
of visual aids should be included. The style of visual
aids is your choice. You should be creative.

Step 1: Discuss the American cities in a group, and decide
the city that you research.

Step 2: Gather the information of your target city.

You can use the following sources:

(1) Books -- go to the library, and ask a librarian to
    look for the book that you need. Recommended book:
    Falk, R. (1993). Spotlight on the USA. Oxford
    University Press

(2) Internet -- You can find many helpful sites on the
    Internet. You should use the search engines to look
    for the appropriate sites. Recommended search
    engines: http://www.yahoo.com/ http://altavista.com/
    http://www.excite.com/ http://www.infoseek.com/
    http://www.lycos.com
(3) Interview the assistant English teachers (AET) from
    the United States.

Step 3: Create the final product.
You can present your results in any medium such as a
poster, video, and computer (PowerPoint, Homepage).

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Group Member Evaluation Sheet 6

Group Name: _____

The member's name: _____
1. The member willingly assisted other group members.
            Yes   So-so   No
2. The member contributed ideas to the group.
            Yes   So-so   No
3. The member spoke in a friendly manner.
            Yes   So-so   No
4. The member listened politely.
            Yes   So-so   No
5. The member asked for help from other group members.
            Yes   So-so   No
6. The member stayed on task.
            Yes   So-so   No

The member's name: _____
1. The member willingly assisted other group members.
            Yes   So-so   No
2. The member contributed ideas to the group.
            Yes   So-so   No
3. The member spoke in a friendly manner.
            Yes   So-so   No
4. The member listened politely.
            Yes   So-so   No
5. The member asked for help from other group members.
            Yes   So-so   No
6. The member stayed on task.
            Yes   So-so   No

The member's name: _____
1. The member willingly assisted other group members.
            Yes   So-so   No
2. The member contributed ideas to the group.
            Yes   So-so   No
3. The member spoke in a friendly manner.
            Yes   So-so   No
4. The member listened politely.
            Yes   So-so   No
5. The member asked for help from other group members.
            Yes   So-so   No
6. The member stayed on task.
            Yes   So-so   No

The member's name: _____
1. The member willingly assisted other group members.
                Yes   So-so   No
2. The member contributed ideas to the group.
                Yes   So-so   No
3. The member spoke in a friendly manner.
                Yes   So-so   No
4. The member listened politely.
                Yes   So-so   No
5. The member asked for help from other group members.
                Yes   So-so   No
6. The member stayed on task.
                Yes   So-so   No

The member's name: _____
1. The member willingly assisted other group members.
                Yes   So-so   No
2. The member contributed ideas to the group.
                Yes   So-so   No
3. The member spoke in a friendly manner.
                Yes   So-so   No
4. The member listened politely.
                Yes   So-so   No
5. The member asked for help from other group members.
                Yes   So-so   No
6. The member stayed on task.
                Yes   So-so   No

Evaluation Form 6
Group Research Evaluation Form

Presenters: _____   Topic: _____
Speech Time: _____   Score: _____ /40

The scoring scale is as follows: 4=Excellent, 3=Good,
2=Fair, 1=Poor, 0=Very poor

I. Delivery						
Volume	Did the students speak loud enough?					
Score		4	3	2	1	0
Gesture	Did the students use their hands?					
Score		4	3	2	1	0
Eye Contact	Did the students often make eye contact with audience?					
Score		4	3	2	1	0
Pronunciation	Did the students' pronunciations interfere with you understanding their oral presentation?					
Score		4	3	2	1	0
Intonation	Did the students use higher pitches as well as stress on the words that carry information in the presentation?					
Score		4	3	2	1	0
Fluency	Were the students fairly fluent with The presentation?					
Score		4	3	2	1	0

II. Organization	
Introducti	Was there a thesis statement of some kind that let you know what the presentation was going to be about?
Score	4 3 2 1 0
Body	Did the body develop the thesis statement in the introduction?
Score	4 3 2 1 0
Conclusion	Did the conclusion relate to the introduction and the body?
Score	4 3 2 1 0

III. Visual Aids	
Visual Effects	Were effective visual aids used?
Score	4 3 2 1 0

Comments:

APPENDIX B

USEFUL WEB SITES FOR ENGLISH LEARNING

ESL/EFL Web Sites

English Listening
http://www.englishlistening.com/
This site provides various kinds of listening files
designed for ESL/EFL learners.

Karin's ESL PartyLand
http://www.eslpartyland.com/
This site features a quiz center, discussion forums,
lesson plans, links, and more.

Interesting Things for ESL Students
http://www.manythings.org/
This site offers slang dictionary, quizzes, games,
pronunciation activities, and more.

Free English Lessons
http://www.free-english.com/
This site offers free software for ESL learners and
teachers.

English Club
http://www.englishclub.com/
This site provides listening, speaking, reading, writing,
pronunciation activities, business English, chat room, and
more.

Activities for ESL Students
http://a4esl.org/
There are over 1000 activities on this site to help
ESL/EFL learners study English.

Dave's ESL Café on the Web
http://www.pacificnet.net/~sperling/eslcafe.html
Part of ESL program at California State University of
Northridge. It provides many activities such as Idiom, and
slang, and chat room for ESL learners.

Writing: Purdue's Online Writing Lab
http://owl.English.purdue.edu
This site provides instructional handouts of punctuation,
spelling, and writing research papers and citing sources.

Randall's ESL Cyber Listening Lab
http://www.esl-lab.com/
This site offers many activities for ESL/EFL learners.

Lingua Center Homepage
http://www.iei.uiuc.edu/free.html
This site contains grammar, vocabulary, interactive
listening activities, and test preparation activities for
such as TOEFL, TOEIC, GRE, and GMAT.

StudyCom English
http://www.study.com/
This site offers the chat room for English learners.

Learning English Online, the LEO Lab
http://www.aec.ukans.edu/leo/
This site is offered by the applied English center at the
university of Kansas.

Project Gutenberg
http://www.gutenberg.net/
This site is a great archive, which offers Copyright-free
reading materials.

ESL Resource Links
http://www.otan.dni.us/webfarm/emailproject/ESOL.htm
This is a useful ESL Link.

Dictionary.Com
http://www.dictionary.com/
This site is an online dictionary link.

Media Resources

Voice of America's Home Page
http://www.voa.gov/

MTV Online
http://www.mtv.com/

CNN Interactive
http://www.cnn.com/

USA Today
http://www.usatoday.com/

Voice of America Special English
http://www.voanews.com/specialenglish/
This is the special program in the VOA to be arranged for
ESL/EFL learners. The difficulty of vocabulary in this
program is limited within 1500, and its speech is
comparatively slow and clear.

Net Tools/Search Engines

Alta Vista: Main Page
http://www.altavista.digital.com/
Search Engine

Internet White Pages
http://home.netscape.com/home/internet-whitepages.html

Yahoo
http://www.yahoo.com/

Infoseek
http://www.infoseek.com/

Lycos
http://lycos.cs.cmu.edu/

Music and Movie Database

The Intaractive Movie Database
http://www.imdb.com/

Digital Traditional Folk Song Database
http://www.deltablues.com/dbsearch.html
This is a searchable database of over 5,622 songs.

Grendel's Lyric Archive
http://homepage.seas.upenn.edu/~avernon/lyrics.html
This is a database of song lyrics.

International Lyrics Server
http://www.lyrics.ch/search.htm
This is a database of albums, artists, or songs.

Music Links
http://www.orst.edu/~healeyd/music_links.html

Magazines and Newspapers

The Internet TESL Journal
http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/
This is an online journal, which contains articles,
research papers, lessons, handouts, and links for ESL
teachers, and various kinds of activities for ESL learners.

ESL Magazine
http://www.eslmag.com/
This is a bi-monthly magazine serving ESL/EFL teachers and
other professionals.

EFL WEB Home Page
http://www.u-net.com/eflweb/
This is the online magazine for learners and teachers of
English as a foreign language.

TESL-EJ
http://www-writing.berkeley.edu/TESL-EJ/index.html
This site provides research papers and articles of TESL.

TIME World Wide Home Page
http://www.time.com/
This site offers the authentic reading materials.

The Japan Times
http://www.japantimes.com/
This is the English version of Japanese newspaper.
It is comparatively easy to read for Japanese EFL learners
because these articles are mainly dealing with Japanese
affairs.

The Japan Times Bilingual Weekly
http://www.japantimes.com/shukan-st/start.htm
This site is the online version of the bilingual newspaper
designed for Japanese EFL learners.
The articles are edited in easy English, and explained in
Japanese.

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