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Curriculum design for strategy-based listening in English as a foreign language

Tia-Ying Hong

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CURRICULUM DESIGN FOR STRATEGY-BASED LISTENING
IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
in
Education

by
Tao-Ying Hong
December 1997
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Approved by:

Lynne Diaz-Rico, First Reader

Deborah Stine, Second Reader
ABSTRACT

This project presents a synthesis of listening processing research and adds interpretations of cognitive skills, social functions, and learning strategies which can assist learners' listening comprehension. From these perspectives, a theoretical model of listening comprehension is developed from the review of literature, and two units of instruction are based on the model. In addition, a variety of assessments for listening comprehension are integrated into the curriculum.

The purpose of the project is to provide Taiwanese students and teachers with a strategy-based instruction in listening skill in order to reconsider the current pedagogy for listening comprehension in Taiwan, which is not in accordance with students' needs. Strategy-based listening emphasizes students' learning processes and promotes listening skill, which is the central feature of the project. The teachers' role in strategy-based listening is as a facilitator, a communicator, and a strategy trainer.

The first chapter provides a background of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Taiwan. This chapter summarizes the problems with current listening pedagogy; the second chapter reviews recent studies about listening skills; the third chapter builds a model of strategy-based listening derived from the review of literature; the fourth chapter offers assessments to evaluate students' outcomes; and the last chapter provides the design of the project based on increasing listening skills with strategy training. Finally, two units are presented that incorporate the theoretical framework.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

My sincere appreciation goes to my parents, and my siblings. Without their support and listening, I could not finish either this project or my graduate studies. For many years, their love has constantly warmed me and given me strength to overcome all difficulties.

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Finally, I am grateful to Bill and June Pugh, the American family whom I have lived with during my participation in the master’s program. Because of their cooperation and friendship, I was able to concentrate on my studying during the program.
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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Background of English Learning in Taiwan

English has always been the top choice of foreign languages to learn for most people in Taiwan. There are several reasons why Taiwanese like to learn English. First of all, at all levels of education from junior high to the university, English is one of the required or elective courses. Second, in order to pass the entrance exams to senior high schools, colleges, universities and even graduate schools, students need to master English because English is one of the subjects of the exams. Third, many technical books are written in English, so learning English is the best way to obtain knowledge. Fourth, people need to require fluent English to pass most examinations to work for the government. Fifth, as Taiwanese people look at the job-wanted columns in the local newspapers, half of jobs require fluent English. In the first round of interviews at many companies, English is tested.

During the past forty years, rapid economic growth has caused Taiwan to change from an underdeveloped into a developed country. Today, many foreign and local companies want to hire employees to handle their international business who can speak two or three languages. Because international business is central to the economic situation in Taiwan, and because English is the international language of the world, it is critical to be fluent in English. However, English as a foreign language (EFL) is learned by people who may need the language for certain purposes such as academic, business or jobs but who live in Taiwan where English has no official status.
The Comparison of School Systems between the United States and Taiwan

Taiwan has a multi-level school system that is more complicated in comparison to the school system found in the United States. The contrast between the United States and the Taiwan systems becomes obvious at the United States high school level. In the United States, all senior high schools provide comprehensive education, while in Taiwan, there are three types of senior high schools: the senior high school, the senior vocational high school and five-year junior colleges. The senior high school is a general school which provides students with the academic proficiency they need in order to attend advanced schools. The senior vocational high school and five-year junior colleges provide students with productive knowledge and skills so that they can be employed immediately after graduation. Unlike the United States, every year when Taiwanese students prepare to graduate from junior schools, senior schools, and colleges, they have to take entrance exams in order to advance to higher education (see Figures 1.1 and 1.2).

Recently, the Ministry of the Education, which is in charge of the Taiwanese educational system, found that many courses in senior vocational schools and five-year colleges overlap, so the Ministry of the Education decided to promote many five-year colleges into technical or business schools. Because of this, the academic level of the five-year college is now nearly equal to that of universities.

A Review of English Instruction in Taiwan

In Taiwan, the Ministry of the Education decides which courses and textbooks are required.
Figure 1.1. The School System in the U.S.

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- Junior/Community College (2 years)
- Senior High School (3 years)
- High School (6 years)
- Middle School (4 years)
- High School (4 years)
- University (4 years)
- Graduate School
- Professional School (It depends)

Kindergarten
Preschool
Elementary School
Figure 1.2. The School System in Taiwan

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- Kindergarten
- Preschool
- Elementary School
- Junior High School (3 years)
- Senior High School (3 years)
- Senior Vocational School (3 years)
- University (4 years)
- College (3 years)
- College (2 years)
- Graduate School
- Graduate School

Entrance Exams (or called Ent.)
There are two kinds of English courses in Taiwan. First, an English course providing reading and translation skills is a required course in every junior and senior high school and it is required (or can be elective) in colleges. The other one is a language lab class which is not required in junior schools but required or elective in senior schools. In the language lab, students listen to tapes and practice by themselves. The language lab class meets once or twice a week, for fifty-minutes in some senior high schools and vocational schools, while the English course is usually two times a week in senior vocational high schools, but five times a week in junior and senior high schools.

The Huge Change of English Learning Environment in Taiwan

Recently, the Ministry of the Education has provided a series of curriculum reforms. For example, English courses will now start in fourth grade, the language lab class will be required or elective in junior high schools, and also students may apply to schools according to their academic achievement instead of having to pass the entrance exams. Most people are looking forward to these changes.

Today, most parents in Taiwan feel that it is very important for their children to learn English in order to get better jobs in the future. Many parents now have the ability to send their children to study abroad to English speaking countries or send their children to private language institutes after school. These private language institutes provide curriculum for students ranging in age from children to adults. Many parents believe that their children need to get extra training after school to learn English. Parents send their children to private language institutes because these schools hire teachers who are native English speakers. Additionally, these schools design their own curricula, which are more
activity-oriented and more interesting than schools’ English classes. There is no doubt that these private language institutes provide choices for students to learn English which schools cannot provide in Taiwan.

Actually, learning English is no longer considered as difficult as before because there are a variety of authentic sources to learn English. Examples included magazines, radio, movies, and cable TV.

**The Target Level of the Project**

The project is designed for students from tenth to twelfth grade in senior vocational high school. Senior vocational schools provide students with productive knowledge and skills so that they can engage in actual productive work after graduation. Most courses emphasize practical training. Students also have to take general courses such as English and Chinese.

**Problems of Listening Skill for EFL Students in the Senior Vocational School**

Although it is easier for students to learn English in Taiwan today because of the educational reformation, private language institutes, and authentic materials and information, there are still some problems that need to be solved, such as the problem areas that there are few tasks and activities to increase listening comprehension, no real theory to guide listening, little social contact in daily life with English speakers, and lack of specific strategies training to help student in listening.

**Few Tasks and Activities to Increase Listening Comprehension**

Because the entrance exams and schools’ exams do not test students’ listening and speaking, most teachers do not use a particular curriculum for listening skills. In the
language lab class, teachers often ask students to put headphones on and keep listening to tapes over and over. In a fifty-minute period of the language lab class, comprehensible input is not emphasized. Instead, repetition and imitation comprise the main training. Students prepare to memorize the whole dialogue. Teachers serve as monitors, listening to students, correcting pronunciation errors, and answering questions. In general, no further explanation or interaction is integrated in the language lab class to help students' participation. Those traditional methods only provide limited comprehensible input and keep students from learning real-world English.

No Real Theory to Guide Listening

During the past years, the audio-lingual approach dominated the listening instructions in Taiwan. Today, the situation has been changed, because teachers did not pay attention to listening theories. They believe that the teaching of listening does not require any theory, unlike the teaching of reading and grammar skills. Because language lab class will start at junior high schools and fourth grade students will learn not only reading, writing and grammar skills in English, but will also focus on listening and speaking skills, these reforms have increased teachers' interest to find theories to fit listening instruction. At this point, however, many teachers still focus on audio-linguistics. So far there are no real principles to guide listening instruction.

Little Social Contact in Daily Life with English Speakers

Taiwanese students have little social contact with English in daily life. Because listening is usually taught in the language lab using one-way activities, students barely
have the chance to listen to English elsewhere. Only a few students are highly motivated and active in learning English; these few are able to read independently, and listen to absorb information from the mass media. However, because there are always Chinese subtitles in movies and programs on cable TV, most people get used to reading Chinese captions instead of listening to English. Authentic contact with real English is sorely needed.

Lack of Specific Strategy Training to Assist Students’ Listening

Chang, Chang, Ku (1995), and Yen (1988) stress that lack of integration of specific strategies into current instruction has caused Taiwanese students feel panic in listening. Listening must be comprehensible, and students need to learn strategies to enhance comprehension.

Learners are passive with poor attitudes and motivation. In the language lab, learning to listen means to follow teachers’ direction. Most of time, teachers only ask students to listen to tapes and do not care about the students’ attitudes. Students do not know how to become motivated. When they listen, resistance forms in their minds because they lose their interest. Therefore, they do not want to listen anymore, and finally they refuse to pay attention. Unfortunately, the majority of EFL students are not aware of the power of language learning strategies to facilitate their learning. If teachers can integrate strategies into instruction and students can learn specific strategies for self-motivated, self-managed learning, students would be more motivated. Without teachers’ additional help and guidance, not every student automatically comes up with strategies.
The Objective of the Project

Listening is a very natural part of learning one’s native language. As soon as a newborn baby arrives in the world, it starts listening. According to Asher’s study (1977), the average child has spent a minimum of 17,520 hours listening to his/her native language by age six; in contrast, at the end of one full year of language instruction, students have listened to 320 hours or less of the target language. For students, learning a foreign language in the classroom is totally different from acquiring the native language in the environment. A review of instructional patterns of past years shows that audiolingual-instructed students are encouraged to listen to audio tapes over and over until they understand; this method has dominated the language lab class in Taiwan for many years. There is no doubt that the audio-lingual approach has contributed to language learning in Taiwan, because most linguists who support audio-lingual instruction believe that the more students listen to audio tapes, the more progress they can make. Nevertheless, other researchers have found that the audio-lingual approach is not enough to provide the best instruction for students. Terrell (1982) criticizes the audio-lingual approach with this observation:

Students in an audio-lingual approach usually have excellent pronunciation, can repeat dialogs and use memorized prefabricated patterns in conversation. They can do pattern drills, making substitutions and changing morphemes using various sorts of agreement rules. What they very often cannot do is participate in a normal conversation with a native speaker. (p. 121)
In other words, listening, repeating and imitating are the most important part of the audio-lingual approach. Unfortunately, developing listening skills is not simply a matter of putting students in the language lab, following all the steps of the audio-lingual approach, and then having students completely concentrate on listening. In general, although methodology in listening skills has been neglected for many decades, the focus has definitely shifted to an emphasis on communication competence.

Recently, the study of second language acquisition has shifted from the focus from the language itself to an emphasis on the learners. The significance of individual differences in learner activity has become the central issue in SLA (second language acquisition). Listening is no longer viewed as a passive skill. In fact, listening in everyday life involves problem-solving activities and is a highly active skill. Moreover, in adult L2 (second language) learning, individual differences make the listening process complex.

As a matter of fact, instructors might agree that no matter how hard they try to find the best instruction for the students, students' negative attitudes, lack of strategies, and poor focus still interfere with effective teaching and learning.

The importance of listening comprehension has been increased to achieve parity with other facts of language proficiency. The search for new methods for teaching and learning listening skills is the focus of this project. Murphy (1985) investigates the strategies that good language learners use in listening comprehension. O’Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989) offer an extensive statement that:

Listening comprehension is an active and conscious process in which the listener constructs meaning by using cues from contextual information and from existing
knowledge, while relying upon multiple strategic resources to fulfill the task requirements. (p. 434)

This project will integrate the study of cognitive models of listening in order to seek a new theoretical foundation to apply to the domain of listening.

**The Significance of the Project**

Because students in vocational schools persist in ignoring the importance of listening comprehension, English disability remains a weakness. In this way, they cannot get better jobs, cannot continue studying in advanced education, and cannot even comprehend textbooks. Since English is increasingly important in the job market in Taiwan, providing students with effective ways to strengthen their listening skills of English is the purpose of the study.

As discussed, listening skills have been ignored in senior vocational schools in Taiwan. Therefore, this project attempts to synthesize several significant studies in order to understand the listening process, with the goal of designing a suitable curriculum for senior vocational students. One important purpose is to make the language lab class become more useful and to provide comprehensive input.

The ultimate goal of the project is to develop a well-designed curriculum with meaningful activities and assessments to facilitate students’ listening comprehension.
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Before the design of a curriculum in listening skills, several domains need to be investigated, such as: information process applied to listening, the role of comprehensible input, the role of cognitive skills in listening, the role of social functions in listening, and the kind of strategies needed to improve listening comprehension.

The Listening Process and Comprehension

In recent years, second language acquisition (SLA) model building has become increasingly sophisticated in applying information processing theory to the domain of listening comprehension. Many researchers conceptualize listening as a series of steps of information processing. Cook (1991) notes that “listening comprehension depends on the storing and processing of information by the mind” (p. 59). Rubin (1990) also points out that “listening consists of processing information which the listener gets from visual and auditory clues in order to define what is going on and what the speakers are trying to express” (p. 309).

In a second language (L2), adults’ learning is more complicated than that of children. According to Nagle and Sanders (1986),

The wealth of influential variables makes modeling the adult L2 learning process quite complex, since the adult language learner affective makeup and conscious awareness of language rules can greatly influence, positively or negatively, L2 achievement. (p. 9)
What is the relationship between memory and information processing? How does information processing work? Information processing involves perception, short term memory, and long term memory. In addition, there are many complicated processes between the two types of memory storage. What is the link between information processing and listening comprehension? How can the teachers help students to improve listening comprehension?

**Memory and Information Processing**

Memory, to most people, often means remembering information for a long period of time. Anything stored in the mind for any length of time involves some form of memory, which is involved in all aspects of sentence processing. Thus, as Cook explains,

...Listeners remember the beginning of the sentence while processing the end; they retrieve the pattern and meanings of words from their memory, and they work out the relationship of the sentence to its context form information in their memory.

(1991, p. 50)

Listeners store the meaning of the sentence in their memories so that they can recall it later. All of the information that is processed may not be stored in the mind because the different types of information in the sentence has to be processed in different ways and at different levels of memory.

When sounds go into the listener's auditory system, they immediately stay in a sensory store about a second. As Call (1985) describes, “at this point, the listener imposes order on this succession of sounds of sounds by means of previously learned patterns which segment the sound stream of the language into meaningful units” (p. 766). Thus
the sensory store is the first step of the short term store. If sounds are recognized in the sensory store, they will be continued and processed.

The starting point of processing information is the short term memory system, which consists of the sensory register, and the executive decision maker. According to Cook (1991), short-term memory (STM) refers to “the memory used for keeping information for periods of time up to a few seconds” (p. 49). For example, STM is used for remembering a phone number while dialing it. Short information is stored in STM quite briefly, but it is then usually forgotten. Cook found L2 adult learners similar to native-speaking children in processing complex linguistic input. The test of STM is the number of digits that can be remembered. Cook’s data showed that adult native speakers’ STM could store around 7 digits at a time, i.e., called ‘STM span.’ However, in some cases, a second language memory span is reduced. Cook’s STM tests (1997) found that at the beginning level of English L2, learners could remember 5.9 digits, on the average. At an advanced level they could remember 6.7 (native speakers’ STM span on this test was from 7 to 8) (see Figure 2.1). Cook also found that L2 learners’ spans increased as their English improved, yet was still slightly below native speakers’ normal span even at advanced stages.

In short, the short term memory system is not an independent part of the mind but is related to pronunciation and to language used. Call (1985) notes that “short-term memory, by using syntactic rules to chunk incoming linguistic data, plays a central role in the extraction of meaning and potential long-term retention of meaning from spoken language” (p.767).
Figure 2.1. Short Term Memory Spans In Adult EFL Learners (Cook, 1991)

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beginners</td>
<td>5.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>6.7</td>
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<td>Natives</td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Digit</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8</td>
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</table>

Human memory distinguishes between short-term memory and long-term memory. When information is temporarily stored in the initial sensory and short-term, activities such as scanning, searching, and comparing may relate it to other information in long-term storage, resulting in comprehension. Cook (1991) indicates that two factors, however, impede the processing of new information in the short term memory system: trace decay (fading of the sensory input) and interference from newly arriving input. On the other hand, rehearsal (conscious and unconscious repetition) may strengthen an item’s retention (Nagle & Sanders, 1986).

As mentioned, the short term memory span for EFL/ESL learners average 5 to 7 digits. The question is: what stops the processing of more than seven or eight digits in L1 and fewer than that in the L2? The answer involves processing in the executive decision maker (working memory). Baddeley (1972) describes the executive decision maker as “the memory system used for holding and manipulating information while various mental tasks are carried out” (as cited in Nagle & Sanders, 1986, p. 17). In other words, working memory is used for processing information while the mind works on various tasks.

Attention, arousal, monitoring, controlled and automatic processing deal with input, but there is a sort of general control mechanism called an executive decision maker. Nagle and Sanders (1986) emphasize that
... the choice made by the executive, involving activation and direction of attention and the degree to which various long-term stores will be accessed, is subject to variable such as task complexity, content, time constraints, and affective factors.

(p. 18)

McLaughlin, Rossman, and McLeod’s (1983) study defines attention as that which “involves the application of mental energy to processing tasks and may range from focusing on specific features of input to controlled processing for retrieval” (p. 141). It is described as the directing of attention to specific input (or output) items.

Thus, attention (energy) is an important variable. Too much information can overload the attention system, causing a breakdown in processing. Samuels and LaBerge (1983) emphasize that “a limited amount of attention is available; tasks may be divided into smaller processing units when attention capacity is exceeded” (p. 50).

Arousal, an increase of activities in the nervous system, is a major factor in activating attention. Baddeley (1972) presents evidence that “an increase in the level of arousal may lead a subject to concentrate on a smaller number of environmental cues” (as cited in Nagle & Sanders, 1986, p. 17). Researchers have found that L2 learners have increased correctness in performance when asked to pay attention to a specific task, “the arousal situation” (Hamilton, Hockey, & Quinn, 1972; Hulstijn & Hulstijn, 1984). Thus, arousal may activate attention, encourage appropriate controlled processing and monitoring, and have a significant effect on comprehension.

Controlled processing and automatic processing are two bridges between the executive decision maker and long-term memory. As Shiffrin and Schneider (1977)
explain, “controlled processing utilizes a temporary sequences of nodes activated under
control of, and through attention by, the subject” (p.156). Certain tasks may encourage
this type of processing, a processing that is not necessarily conscious at all times.
Automatic processing is a “sequence of nodes that nearly always becomes active in
response to a particular input configuration and is active without the necessity of active
control or attention by the subject” (Shiffrin & Schneider, 1977, p. 157).

Automatic processes require sufficient training to develop, since they depend upon
a relatively permanent set of node associations. This training is provided by controlled
incidentally in normal communication activities, while most controlled processing occurs
in performing new language skills which require a high degree of focal attention” (p.
143). Skills develop during language processing in order to deal with complex tasks.
McLaughlin, et al. (1983) note that this involves “building up a set of well-learned,
automatic processes so that controlled processes will be freed up for new tasks” (p. 144).

If appropriate automatic processes are not available or are not activated in a given
comprehension task, the amount of attention and information is decreased or disturbed,
and input processing becomes slow and ineffective. Therefore, Nagle and Sanders (1986)
say that “automatic processing is critical to comprehension because too much controlled
processing may lead to overloaded and breakdown” (p. 16).

Long term memory has more capacity and duration than short term memory.
Richards (1987) states that “permanent, or long-term memory works with meaning, not
with form” (p. 162). In other words, the information carried may or may not pass into
long term memory, but the exact words and rules are seldom stored for a long period of
time. Once the meaning has been absorbed and located in the long term memory, the
exact words and rules are forgotten (Richards, 1987).

The last part is synthesis. According to Nagle and Sanders (1986), “the basis for
meaning is the synthesis of retrieved knowledge and the individual judgment
(inference) about unfamiliar data” (p. 18).

The closed loop system carries the results from synthesis back to the executive
decision maker. The feedback goes over and over in the whole processing system while
new information is input. Call (1985) calls this a “closed loop system” because “the
information is kept in the executive decision maker by being audibly or silently
articulated” (p. 767). Information in process, whether familiar or not, is fed back to the
executive decision maker, which may reprocess if necessary. Because processing takes
place in such a short period, too much information cannot be held. It must be repeated
over and over to keep the information in the executive decision maker from fading. When
people try to remember something, they repeat it over and over to themselves, as with
phone numbers; sometimes audibly, sometimes not. They are articulating the sounds,
even if they do not say them.

Information Processing and Listening Comprehension

In short, sounds are processed from short term memory and the executive decision
maker into long term memory and synthesis (see Figure 2.2). Finally, the meanings of
sentence are built in long term memory, but not the actual words or grammar rules. As
Call (1985) points out, "comprehensible input is essential to developing the ability to produce the target language fluently" (p. 765).

Information processing involves the recognition of component parts of the language (words, verb groups, simple phrases) once they have been perceived. Recognizing linguistic elements, while essential to the process, is not sufficient for comprehending what is heard; listeners must be able to retain these elements in short-term memory long enough to interpret the utterance to which they are attending. Native language words are held in short-term memory only long enough for the listener to organize them into clauses and to extract the meaning that they convey (Call, 1985; Cook, 1975, 1977, 1991). As soon as the listener has interpreted the clause, to some degree, the process stops forming memory in order to make room for incoming sounds. Foreign language input seems to be processed in the same way, but language learners may not be able to recognize each word of an utterance as it is spoken, or may not be able to hold long utterances in mind long enough to interpret them. The reason may be, as Rivers and Temperley (1978) point out, that short-term memory for target language words is often overloaded, causing words to be purged before they can be organized and interpreted.

The act of listening to and understanding a spoken language can be described as a series of processes through which the sounds associated with a particular utterance are converted into meaning. Call (1985) describes,

As the sounds impinge on the auditory system of the listener, they are briefly retained for about one second in a sensory... At this point, the listener imposes order on this succession of sound by means of previously learned patterns which
Attention may stimulate rehearsal and retention in sensory memory, narrowing of locus or monitoring, and initiation of controlled processing.

Arousal, triggered by affective factors, task demands, context, or complexity of input, may activate attention.

Learner (Nagy & Sanders, 1986, p. 19)

Figure 2.2. A Model of Listening Comprehension Processing in the Adult Language
segment the sound stream of the language into meaningful units. (p. 766)

Once the patterns that the sounds form have been recognized, they pass into short-term memory and form the words. As known, the capacity of short-term memory is limited to about 6±2. In language processing, units are usually defined syntactically as words, phrases, or clauses, once sounds have entered short-term memory and have been patterned into appropriate syntactic units. They are retained only long enough to be interpreted semantically before they are purged from memory in order to make room for new input (Call, 1985).

Jarvella (1971) offers evidence that only the last-heard sentence (or clause) can be recalled verbatim. Thus, short-term memory, by using syntactic rules to chunk incoming linguistic data, plays a central role in the extraction of meaning and potential long-term retention of meaning from spoken language.

The information processing system of the mind is the bridge to comprehension. Richards (1987) has demonstrated the way in which information processing is involved in listening comprehension:

1. The listener takes in raw speech and holds an image of it in short-term memory.

2. An attempt is made to organize what was heard into constituents, identifying their content and function.

3. As constituents are identified, they are used to construct propositions, grouping the propositions together to form a coherent message.
4. Once the listener has identified and reconstructed the propositional meaning, these are held in long-term memory, and the form in which the message was originally received is deleted. (p.162)

The Implication of Information Processing and Listening Comprehension Instruction

Because most learners experience frustration in learning to listen to a foreign spoken language, to increase understanding, language instruction needs to be based on comprehension input. Nagle and Sanders (1986) point out that “at the beginning stage, the teacher may make the input comprehensible by associating it with visual cues and/or demonstrated actions” (p. 21).

Language learners can benefit from guidance in directing their attention to input in profitable ways. Teachers should be aware of the ways in which appropriate language input processing results in “stimulating rehearsal and retention between the short-term store, conscious/unconscious narrowing of focus, appropriate monitoring, and subdividing complex input” (Nagle & Sanders, 1986, p. 21), because a breakdown of the comprehension process may result when there is too much information given that causes the processing system to overload, leading to failure of comprehension.

Overprocessing input results in a loss of information from new input, which cannot be processed because the system is already fully occupied by prior input. Instead of giving excessive attention to details, Nagle and Sanders (1986) suggest that “students need to develop strategies for dealing with contextual clues which will help them decipher the meaning of an utterance” (p. 21). Brown and Yule (1983) also propose that “the aim of a
listening comprehension exercise should be for the student to arrive successfully at a reasonable interpretation” (p. 55).

Since comprehension becomes more efficient as knowledge increases, it depends not only on the learner decoding, inferring, and predicting of information, but also on the teacher’s effective instruction. In the classroom, teachers can guard against system overload by limiting the number of new items of information with which the learner has to deal at one time, and by giving learners more time to process new material. Successful language processing may influence the learner’s effective operation on the target language. Nagle and Sanders (1986) emphasize that “listening comprehension activities facilitate the natural development of linguistic knowledge in a setting which is affectively conductive to language acquisition” (p. 22). Also, Terrell (1982) suggests that “listening instructional activities need to include both two-way interactive listening activities and tasks and one-way reactive ‘listening-and-do’ activities and tasks” (p. 121).

Improving ESL/EFL Learners’ Listening Skills

As known, listening involves the process of selecting and interpreting information from auditory cues. There are several processes in listening that can influence these activities. Teachers can choose these to incorporate into instruction in order to assist learners’ listening. (see Table 2.1)

Table 2.1. Sample of Listening Process (Duzer, 1997, p. 3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sample of Listening Process (Duzer, 1997, p. 3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>The listener determines a reason for listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Takes the raw speech and deposits an image of it in short-term memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Attempts to organize the information by identifying the type of speech event (conversation, lecture, radio ad) and the function of the message (persuade,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Predicts information expected to be included in the message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Recalls background information (schemata) to help interpret the message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Assigns a meaning to the message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Checks that the message has been understood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Determines the information to be held in long-term memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Deletes the original form of the message that had been received into short-term memory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Listening Should be Relevant with Authentic Materials and Activities**

Here is a guide when incorporating listening development into ESL/EFL classes (Mendelsohn, 1994; Morley, 1991; Peterson, 1991; Richards, 1987).

Listening should be relevant. Because learners listen with a purpose and listen to things that interest them and reach their goals, learners will keep a high degree of motivation and attention. For example, if learners at work need to be able to understand new policies and procedures introduced at meeting, in class they should be helped to develop the abilities to identify main ideas and supporting ideas, to indicate comprehension and ask for clarification (Duzer, 1997).

Materials should be authentic. Despite the fact that there has been argument about what materials are better for learning to listen, some studies support that the use of authentic materials in listening and reading becomes more meaningful and more powerful input to encourage students’ production (Cook, 1991; Rumelhart, 1980; Long, 1989). Students need to practice listening to the speech they will actually encounter in the real world so that they sill be able to understand and respond to what English speakers say. Because most EFL students are hardly exposed to the target language outside the classroom, materials should be carefully selected. The authentic materials can be applied
into any kind of text, one-way lecture or two-way communication. Underwood (1989) provides a list of authentic speech in teaching listening (see Table 2.2).

Table 2.2. The Features of Authentic Speech (Underwood, 1989, p. 100)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Natural rhythm</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Natural intonation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural pronunciation (i.e. not especially carefully enunciated)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some overlap between speakers (including interruptions)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal rate of delivery (sometimes fast, sometimes slow)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relatively unstructured language, which is used spontaneously in speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incomplete sentences, false starts, hesitations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Background noises and, sometimes, background voices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural starts and stops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less densely packed information than in written language</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Authentic can be both in language and in task. According to Duzer (1997), "the language should reflect real discourse, including hesitations, rephrasing, and a variety of accents" (p. 5). Although the language needs to be comprehensible and there is an assumption that teachers should wait until students have become advanced learners to begin using authentic materials, it does not mean that the language should be constantly modified or simplified to make it easier for the level of the listener. Researchers have recognized that authentic materials can be used in the early learners so that the associated tasks are easy to be carried out successfully (Cook, 1991; Rumelhart, 1980; Long, 1989). Level of the difficulty can be controlled by the selection of the task. Use of authentic material, such as TV, radio broadcasts, movies, can increase transferability to listening outside of the ESL/EFL classroom context (Duzer, 1997).

Teachers should avoid using activities that tend to focus on memory rather than on the process of listening or that simply give practice, rather than help learners develop
listening ability (Duzer, 1997). For example, having students listening to a passage immediately followed by true/false questions might not help learner comprehension. Therefore, “pre- and post-listening task activities should focus attention on what to listen for, and to assess how accurately they succeeded” (Duzer, 1997, p. 6). Finally, students can transfer the listening skills to the world beyond the classroom.

Three Steps in a Listening Lesson

If teachers plunge students straight into the listening text, it would be extremely difficult for students. So how can listening instruction help students to learn English? Underwood (1989), Richards (1987), and Duzer (1997) recommend that listening instruction should set up three listening stages: pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening, in order to facilitate the development of learners’ listening ability.

Current research and theory indicate that instruction should provide a silent or a pre-listening period that can give learners the opportunity to store new information in their memories (Underwood, 1989; Dunkel, 1991; Richards, 1987). When students sit in a classroom and the teacher says “listen to this,” and then switches on the cassette player or read aloud, students may have no idea what to expect. They are unable to understand because of lack of certain kinds of knowledge necessary for them to comprehend. It would be helpful to provide considerable pre-listening support so that students could be linked with the next stage of listening itself (Underwood, 1989). This also can keep learners from processing the overloaded task before learners are ready to listen to the next step. Pre-listening work can consist of a range of activities, including “the teacher giving background knowledge, the students reading something relevant, the students looking at
pictures, discussion of the topic/situation, a question and answering session, or written exercises” (Underwood, 1989, p. 31).

The second step is while-listening. In this stage, students should be involved in getting information and immediately doing something about the tasks (Duzer, 1997). Developing the skills of listening for comprehension is the aim in this stage. While-listening work should be chosen carefully, relate to students’ interest, and involve authentic materials.

After the while-listening period, the following productive task works to enhance rather than inhibit language acquisition (Duzer, 1997). The post-listening activities embrace all the work related to the while-listening stage. These activities should help students to evaluate success in carrying out the tasks and to integrate listening with the other language skills. The teacher should encourage practice in class or outside of the classroom whenever possible. At this stage, students can be the boss and practice in pairs or small groups (Duzer, 1997).

Choosing Appropriate Listening Tasks

Knowledge of the listening process and factors that affect listening enables teachers to select or create listening texts and activities that meet learner’s needs (Duzer, 1997). There are a number of activities to choose for developing listening skills. Lund (1990) has categorized a list of nine items (see Table 2.3).

Table 2.3. Sample of Listening Tasks (Lund, 1990, p. 6)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Doing</td>
<td>The listener responds to physically such as in Total Physical Response</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Choosing | The listener selects form alternatives such as pictures, objects, texts, or actions.
---|---
Transferring | The listener transforms the message such as drawing a route on a map, or filling in a chart.
Answering | The listener answers questions about the text.
Condensing | The listener takes notes or makes an outline.
Extending | The listener goes beyond the text by continuing the story or solving a problem.
Duplicating | The listener simply repeats or translates the message.
Modeling | The listener performs a similar task, e.g. gives instructions to a classmate after listening to a model.
Conversation | The listener is an active participant in a face to face conversation.

**Cognitive Skills in Listening**

Listening is a cognitive process that is restricted in the second language. Listening, like speaking and reading, occurs in a context rather than in isolation. The listening process is an active mental process in which information needs to be meaningful and comprehensible. This involves various types of cognitive skills. The meaning of a text is found not just in the sentences themselves, but is derived from the previous knowledge stored in the listener’s long-term memory and the processes through which the listener operates it. For several reasons, the existing knowledge is combined with organized new information to stimulate learners’ positive learning process and retention of new information. Omaggio offers three types of background knowledge:

1. The individual knowledge of the linguistic code.
2. The individual knowledge of world, including one store of concepts and expectations based on prior experience.
3. Knowledge of discourse structure, or how various types of authentic discourse, such as conversation, radio broadcasts, literary texts, newspaper accounts, fables, political speeches, and the like. (1986, p. 97)

For example, I open the garage door and see my parents’ car is gone. Anybody else could notice the same thing. However, to me, this empty garage means my family has gone somewhere. The same scene can be interpreted in different ways according to one’s background information and predictions. Schema theory emphasizes the role of prior knowledge in comprehension. For many years, researchers have confirmed that using schema theory in instruction is a significant way to improve L2 students’ reading skill (Omaggio, 1986; Cook, 1991; Rumelhart, 1980). Schema theory can also facilitate students in listening comprehension. First of all, what is schema theory, and what are some practical contributions of schema theory to the domain of listening comprehension?

Background Knowledge and Schema Theory

Cook (1991) says that “a schema (pl. schemas or schemata) is the background knowledge on which the interpretation of a text depends” (p. 54). To make sense of a particular information requires use of listener’s background knowledge. The more is known about the topic, the more listeners can comprehend. Actually the sentence itself does not change when the topic is known, but the interpretation process changes as connection is made with prior knowledge. Rumelhart (1980) explains the association between schema theory and cognitive process:

A schema theory is basically a theory about knowledge. It is a theory about how knowledge is represented and about how that representation facilitates the use of
the knowledge in particular ways. According to schema theories, all knowledge is packaged into units. These units are the schema. (p. 34)

Rumelhart (1980) also says that "a schema theory embodies a prototype theory of meaning" (p. 34). An example based on his explanation is that there are schemas and scripts in a play. Different actors may play differently, but it does not change the essence of the play. So the schema theory allowed variation.

According to Rubin (1994) and Omaggio (1986), there are two types of schemata: textual schemata and content schemata. Textual schema is also called formal or rhetorical schema. Mendelsohn (1994) offers a definition of textual schema: "it relates to a knowledge of the structure and organization of the discourse" (p. 13). In other words, it relates to the general format followed by specific types of texts. The individual's background knowledge of the formal organizational structures of different type of texts stored in textual schemas.

In theory, the text is like a short story that should have a setting, a beginning, a development, and ending. Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) provide five different types of rhetorical organization: "collection-list, causation-cause and effect, response-problem and solution, comparison-comparison and contrast, and description attribution" (p. 554).

So the body of knowledge is about a specific situation (at the bank), particular participants (the teller, customer), goals of the situation (withdraw, deposit or invest money), and procedures (standing on a line, asking). What we know about particular situation and goals, participants, and procedures is commonly associated with comprehension (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983). For example, when making an operator-
assisted long distance telephone call, the caller expects to be asked for specific types of information such as a type of assistance required, billing number, and a name.

In short, textual schema theory is that an individual is aware of knowledge of text types, and structural organization. This knowledge is usually gained from formal learning.

Content schemata, in contrast to textual schemata, Long’s research (1989), “are derived from individual life experience” (1989, p. 33). These are also called culture schemata, and relate to the background knowledge of the content area of a text. Long (1989) provides some evidence that most L2 students like to use content schemas instead of textual schemas.

Content schema knowledge is therefore much focused on an individual’s knowledge of culture, familiar topics, and previous experience of the world. The information needed to understand many utterances is therefore not explicitly present in the utterance. This means that many of the connections between events need not be specified when we talk about them, since they are already known and can be inferred, but if we lack a relevant cultural background knowledge, comprehension may be difficult (Long, 1989).

**Bottom-up and Top-down Processing in Listening Comprehension**

As previously discussed, background knowledge is shown to improve listening comprehension. Schema theory also postulates two kinds of processing: bottom up and top down. Top-down processing is derived from cultural schema theory, and bottom-up is derived from text schema theory.

Bottom-up processing derives from the meaning of a small piece of the message.

As Morley explains (1991),
Bottom-up comprehension of speech refers to the part of the process in which the understanding of incoming language is worked out proceeding from sounds, into words, into grammatical relationship and lexical meaning. (p. 87)

Thus, bottom-up processing analyzes the listening text by building understanding from a small piece to the whole content. Basically, a majority of EFL/ESL students try to use bottom-up process to understand every single word in order not to miss any message. Many EFL/ESL students have limited vocabulary knowledge, and the information processing system do not stop to operate upon each single word so they fail to comprehend the whole of the information (Morley, 1991).

Teachers can utilize bottom-up processing as asking learners’ questions with rising intonation “You see that switch there?” to verify comprehension and recognize statements (Duzer, 1997), so learners can gain confidence in accurate hearing and comprehension of the components of the language (sound, words, intonation, grammatical structures).

By contrast, top-down processing emphasizes the whole picture, because top-down processing refers to involving background knowledge and global understanding to interpret the message. Morley (1991) states, “top-down processing is evoked from an internal source, from a bank of prior knowledge and global expectations about both language and the world” (p. 87). The learners make general predictions about the input based on higher-level knowledge. At this point, the incoming message is utilized to fit the whole meaning. Primarily, top-down processing relies on students’ experience and background knowledge. Students do not need to know every single word in the sentence, but they still can comprehend the content by means of top-down processing. The
information is retained and acted upon, and the form in which it is originally received is deleted. Long (1989) and Omaggio (1986) suggest that students need to be encouraged to listen to the whole information instead of grabbing every single word. The intermediate and advanced ESL/ESL students particularly could take advantage of top-down processing.

As O’Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989) report, the effective listeners seemed to be listening for larger chunks, shifting their attention to individual words only when there was a breakdown in comprehension, which is top-down processing; to the contrast, ineffective listeners seemed to approach listening as a task primarily requiring comprehension on word-by-word basis—which is bottom-up processing. (p. 429)

Top-down processing can be activated as the learners engaged in an activity that make a prediction about what learners already know about a topic.

Research on Schema Theory on L2 Listening Comprehension

Three empirical studies that investigated the effect of schema theory on L2 listening comprehension have provided significant findings.

Long (1989) studied the effect of cultural schemas on American college students’ Spanish listening comprehension. One passage about a gold rush in Ecuador was a culturally unfamiliar subject for students; the other one was assumed to be a familiar topic about the popular rock band U2. The result indicated that students the familiar subject comprehended much better, which depended on their cultural knowledge.
The second study was conducted by Chiang and Dunkel (1992) to investigate the effect of speech modification, prior knowledge, and listening proficiency on EFL lecture learning. Subjects were Taiwanese intermediate-level university students. Students listened to lectures on Confucius and Confucianism, which is a culturally familiar topic, and The Amish People, which was unfamiliar world knowledge. The results demonstrated that students got much higher scores on a familiar topic than on an unfamiliar one.

The third, Teng's study (1996), was to investigate the effects of cultural schemata and visual cues on Taiwanese students' EFL listening comprehension. The result also indicated that 126 10th grade students in Taiwan were advantaged by the familiar topic, the Dragon Boat Chinese Festival, instead of the unfamiliar one, Thanksgiving Day.

All the results seem to support that schema theory affects listening comprehension and students can benefit from familiar topics. Thus, Chiang and Dunkel (1992) place significant emphasis upon schema theory for listening comprehension as follows:

The basic tenet of schema theory posits that written text, or spoken discourse, does not carry meaning in and of itself. Rather, meaning occurs as a result of the interaction between the reader's or listener's prior knowledge about the world and the text or speech. (p. 350)

Using Schema Theory (Background Knowledge) to Enhance the Listening Comprehension Process

Native speakers are able to understand many utterances based upon a general awareness of how people achieve goals and from the assumption that most human
behavior is purposeful and directed toward particular ends (Long, 1989). Non-native speakers, however, may lack some textual and cultural specific schemas; their individual background may differ in degree and content from that of target language speakers, and this poses additional problems for the non-native listener (Omaggio, 1986).

Schema theory can provide a direction for listeners so that they can construct meaning from their own cognitive structure (Omaggio, 1986). Learners' interpretation of a given text will be influenced by their own background knowledge and interests. Glisan (1988) describes, “listeners construct meaning by reorganizing their previously acquired knowledge to accommodate new information and concepts... Efficient comprehenders arrive at meaning by maximizing their knowledge of the world” (p. 9).

In the preparation stage, teachers can consider providing questions to check students' background knowledge, reading, or visual context to evoke students' background knowledge before students hear passages. These will give students an idea of the passage content, and the role of the teacher serves as an advance organizer and a schema constructor (Omaggio, 1986; Glisan, 1988).

Social Functions as Motivation/Authentic Functions

Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995) note that “children first learn what language can do for them—what functions it can perform—and then encode this meaning into words and sentences” (p. 65). According to Halliday (1975), children acquire their first/second language with social or intellectual development, and so do L2 adults. Acquiring language does not just work on rules of grammar, but it is necessarily interpreted along with the environment and individual needs. Halliday (1975) states that the social function
in learning languages is “one of the essential steps in the developmental process” (p. 5).

Broadly speaking, the adult language learning shows some process features which can best be described in functional terms.

Halliday (1975) notes that “the semantic system of the adult language is very clearly functional in its composition. It reflects the fact that language has evolved in the service of certain particular human needs” (p. 16). In addition, Halliday (1978) points out that “language is a social fact” (p. 1). Language is used to exchange information among human beings. In Halliday’s explanation (1978), social functions are “to what extent we are studying language for the purpose of throwing light on language, and to what extent for the purpose of throwing light on something else” (p. 36). Therefore, the study of SLA needs to know what kinds of social functions affect L2 learners’ language acquisition.

Here, social functions include instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic, imaginative (these six functions are developed during the childhood), as well as informational, interpersonal, textual, and ideational (these four functions are developed later on).

The Instrumental Function

The instrumental function “manipulates the environment to cause events to happen” (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995, p. 65). Halliday (1975) defines that the instrumental function is “the function that language serves in satisfying the person’s material needs, of enabling him to obtain the goods and services that he wants” (p. 19). For example, “I want the…” is a general expressions relating to personal desires.
The Regulatory Function

The regulatory function “enables one to control events or the behavior of others, such as approval, disapproval, setting rules and laws” (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995, p. 65). Every child learns this function very easily because language is used to control his own behavior; and then he uses it to control or demand others to do something (Halliday, 1975). Typical examples are “Do that,” or “Don’t run.” The difference between this and the instrumental function is that in the instrumental function, focuses on the goods or services required, and it does not matter who provides them; but the regulatory function is directed toward a particular person and specific demands (Halliday, 1975).

The Interactional Function

“To get along with others and maintain social communication” (Diaz-Rico & Weed 1995, p. 65), the interactional function is used. There is a connection between “me and you.” This is language used by the child to interact with those around him, particularly his mother and others that are important to him, and it includes generalized greetings, “Hello,” “Nice to meet you,” and also responses to phone calls, as well as other specific forms (Halliday, 1975).

The Personal Function

The personal function “allows a speaker to express the personality in feelings and emotions” (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995, p. 66). This is language used to express an awareness of oneself, in contradistinction to the environment- and then to mould that self, for instance, expressions of personal feelings, interest and pleasure, and so forth (Halliday, 1975).
The Heuristic Function

The heuristic function “uses language to acquire knowledge, to explore and find about the world” (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995, p. 66). “Tell me why?” is the typical example of the function in the child. As children recognize the difference between themselves and the environment, they turn toward the exploration of the environment. The whole range of questioning forms is developed. Later on, children can categorize the objects of the physical world, and expand these into a variety of more specific meanings (Halliday, 1975).

The Imaginative Function

The imaginative function is “to allow the individual to create a personal world, freed from the boundaries of the everyday, using language for sheer pleasure” (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995, p. 66). This is language that individuals can use to create an environment of their own, as well as moving into, taking over, and exploring the world which they see around them. Children use language for creating a universe of their own and a sound, but gradually this will turn into stories, poetry, and imaginative writing (Halliday, 1975).

The Informational Function

“To allow an individual to communicate information to the world, to convey facts and knowledge” (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995, p. 65), the informational function is used. Language is used to express new information to someone who does not know about the specific information. Because the information is very sophisticated, the speaker should possess a lot of knowledge about this particular information. This function is the use of language as reference (Halliday, 1975).
The Ideational Function

The ideational function relates to the content of what is said. Halliday (1975) defines that with this, speakers express their experience of the phenomena of the external world, and of the internal world of their own consciousness. Halliday (1975) also calls the ideational function the “observer function of language” (1975, p. 66). The language represents talking about the real world.

The Interpersonal Function

Halliday (1975) states, “There is the interpersonal component of the semantic system, reflecting the function of language as a means whereby the speaker participants in the speech situation” (p. 17). Halliday (1977) also calls this function as “the intruder function of language” (p. 17). The person adopts a role in the speech situation, and also offers roles to the other participants. Every participant has the right to respond or not. During the conversation, participants can express their own opinions, their attitudes, and their personalities, and thus they can affect the rest of the participants.

The Textual Function

With this function, language is used to create text, whether oral or written (Halliday, 1975). The speaker is able to make what he/she says operational in the context without using formal structures like a sentence in a grammar book. This function emphasizes the real life into language. Halliday (1975) says “it provides texture, and without texture there is no text” (p.17).
The Pedagogical Implication of Social Functions for ESL/EFL Students

Because language is viewed as fulfilling many social functions, EFL/ESL students should learn how to use an appropriate language to fit into the particular situations and occasions. Halliday (1978) also claims that “language in the total context of the interaction between an individual and his human environment: between one individual and others” (p. 10). The integration of social functions into the language instruction thus becomes the way to help EFL/ESL students make connection with language itself.

Thus, integrating social functions into listening skills can be “asking directions” rather than the structure “yes-no” questions. The social functional style “emphasizes on the join functioning of two people in a situation” (Cook, 1991, p. 139) in terms of the interpersonal function of language. The students divide into pairs or small groups to ask and answer questions to find their needs. They can follow a model provided by the teacher but they have to solve their task (Cook, 1991). For instance, students have a map of a street showing where Jim, Cathy, and other people live. They have to find where they live by asking questions (Cook, 1991). The second is a role-play activity which provides students chances to imagine their roles in a specific setting situation (Cook, 1991). Thus students can use language to communicate with classmates rather than to memorize grammar rules or patterns. Because using language means meeting people and talking to them, Cook (1991) emphasizes “language is for forming relationships with people and for interrelating them” (p. 139).

In addition, the role of teachers is no longer to control students in a social functions class. Students have the chance to make up their own conversations and
teachers can take a step back (Cook, 1991). Students use whatever forms and strategies as long as they can solve their problems. Gradually, they will know what appropriate sentence fits the task and how to use it in the real world while teachers provide some feedback.

**Strategy-Based Listening**

Recently, there has been increasing interest in defining how learners can take charge of their own learning and in finding how teachers can help students become more autonomous. Because learning is a cognitive process that takes place not by accident, but through awareness and consciousness, the more important learning strategies are those that students need to know to ascertain what works best for them (Mendelsohn, 1994). Rubin (1990) finds that strategies are often used by successful language learners. Oxford (1990) suggests that appropriate strategies that encourage independent learning should be developed in the classroom. If strategies can be learned, students are able to keep on learning effectively and independently even when students are no longer taking language courses. Rubin’s (1990) study also indicates that “use of listening strategies can help students work with more difficult material” (p. 315).

**Definition of Learning Strategies**

Chamot (1987) defines learning strategies as “techniques, approaches, or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area information” (p. 71). In addition, Willing (1987) claims that learning strategies for listening comprehension involve a series of mental procedures,
processing, associating, and categorizing" (p. 7).

O’Malley and Chamot (1990) note that strategies are “the special thought or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information” (p. 1). So the function of strategies is to help students process and comprehend new information more effectively. Pressley, Forrest-Pressley, Elliott-Faust, and Miller (1985) offer a clearer definition:

Strategies... are composed of cognitive operations over and about the processes that are a natural consequence of carrying out a task... strategies achieve cognitive purpose and are potentially conscious and controllable activities. (p. 4)

Strategies are steps and plans to learn more effectively. People who are skilled at languages might tackle second/foreign language learning in different ways from those who are less skilled; or learners might behave in the same ways, but other ways of behaving are more efficient. One interesting thing is the Good Language Learner Strategies (GLLS) (Mendelsohn, 1994). Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco (1978) find that people who were known to be good at learning language had six broad strategies in common (1978):

1. Find a learning style that suits you
2. Involve yourself in the language learning process
3. Develop an awareness of language both as system and as communication
4. Pay constant attention to expanding your language knowledge
5. Develop the L2 as a separate system
6. Take into account the demands that L2 learning impose. (p. 4)
Learning Strategies and Listening Comprehension

As learning, as mentioned earlier, is an active process, strategies interact with appropriate input processing to enhance comprehension.

Because the range of listening strategies is relatively extensive, many researchers have begun to investigate what kind of strategies could promote more successful listening comprehension. O’Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989) provide a definition of listening comprehension that associates it with strategies:

Listening comprehension is an active and conscious process in which the listener constructs meaning by using cues from contextual information and from existing knowledge, while relying upon multiple strategic resources to fulfill the task requirements. (p. 434)

Significant Findings and Classification from the Research in Learning Strategies

In the recent literature, a variety of strategies in listening comprehension have been presented by researchers providing successful evidence of their use (Hosenfeld, 1976; Defillip, 1980; Murphy, 1987; Rubin & Thompson, 1993; Yang, 1993).

The research that has been examined on listening strategies by language learners includes the following: work on several languages; work on contrasting strategy use at several proficiency levels; work with audio or video texts; work with interactive or transactional listening; work with cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies; and work considering the relation of strategy use to text, task, and setting. As a result, most of findings found that these strategies are actually used by learners.
Hosenfeld (1976) conducted a study demonstrating that high school students learning French were benefited by strategies training about think-aloud protocol, or verbal report. Defillip (1980) worked with college French students to find that the listener strategies of both skillful and unskillful listeners were similar. According to the rank of frequency, the major listening strategies used were key word, contextual inferencing, translation, and grammar strategies. However, skillful listeners used strategies more often than unskillful listeners. Rubin and Thompson (1992) found that strategies training increased Russian students' listening proficiency; students can be taught to control use of listening strategies, and that EFL students could make choices and were able to provide a rationale for their decisions. Yang (1993) investigated 505 Taiwanese undergraduate students’ language to find their current use of, and belief in learning strategies. The research was both quantitative and qualitative. Strategies which are similar to Oxford, Talbott, and Halleck (1990) were classified using factor analysis. The findings showed students believed that six types of strategies could be helpful (see Table 2.4).

Table 2.4. Six Types of Strategies Defined by Yang (1993)

| Formal oral practice strategies focus on formal or structures |
| Compensation strategies for limited knowledge, such as making guesses |
| Social strategies such as seeking help from peers or a teacher |
| Metacognitive strategies to manage and regulate learning such as self-monitoring, self-evaluating |
| Functional practice strategies actively create opportunities to use English |
| Cognitive strategies involves direct analysis, transformation, association, or synthesis of target language |

The interesting findings are that students used functional practice strategies with less frequency than formal practice strategies. In other findings, cognitive strategies were
used the least because they were not trying to think in English, not writing notes, messages, reports, letters, or memorizing new words by grouping in English.

Murphy (1987) worked with intermediate-level ESL university students. He found out that “more proficient” listeners placed greater emphasis on “personalizing” (on elaborating form their own knowledge) and also inferred, drew conclusions, self-described, and anticipated more often than less proficient listeners. Murphy analyzed cognitive and metacognitive strategy strategies together, identifying two patterns of strategy use. The more proficient listeners tended to use a strategy called “wide distribution” referring to an open and flexible use of strategies; the less proficient listeners used “text heavy” strategies referring to a dependence on the text and a consistent use of paraphrase. Murphy proposed twelve strategies in four groups:

Recalling strategies involve paraphrasing textual information by the learners, putting what they have heard into their own words. Recalling strategies indicates that learners are attempting to recall what they heard as perfectly as possible. Murphy identifies three recalling strategies.

Speculation strategies involve introducing listener-based information. These go well beyond “recalling.” Listeners are using their imagination to help them in their listening. Murphy identifies four speculation strategies.

Probing strategies involve going beneath the surface of the information presented. There are three probing strategies.
Introspecting strategies involve listeners focusing their attention inward and reflecting on their own experiences as listeners to the selections. There are two introspecting strategies.

Table 2.5. Four Strategies Categories Defined by Murphy (1987)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recalling</td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td>Rephrasing the information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reviewing</td>
<td>Learners are changing their minds and correcting themselves concerning some information they may have misunderstood the first time they heard it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reviewing</td>
<td>Learners are changing their minds and correcting themselves concerning some information they may have misunderstood the first time they heard it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Checking</td>
<td>Checking when recalling information in order to support or verify something they had already introduced in their own comments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speculating</td>
<td>Inferring</td>
<td>Listening between the lines, pulling separate pieces of textual information together or synthesizing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Connecting</td>
<td>Drawing associations between what they hear and what they already know (note the importance of prior knowledge)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personalizing</td>
<td></td>
<td>Listeners personalize their response—they make a connection with what they already know as with connecting, but here they draw connection from their private lives or personal world view, whereas with connecting, the information would be commonly available as general knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anticipating</td>
<td></td>
<td>Listeners attempt to predict information that might be introduced at some future point in time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probing</td>
<td>Analyzing the topic</td>
<td>Trying to find out more information than has been presented to them by such means as asking questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Analyzing the conventions of language</td>
<td>Focusing on specific features of the linguistic system such as definitions of words, pronunciation, and cohesive ties while unfamiliar words coming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluating the topics</td>
<td>Listeners make comments which are judgments or critical assessments concerning the information they have heard</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Introspecting Self-evaluating comments that show that learners are trying to keep track of how well they are doing while engaged in listening
Self-describing students explain something about how they listen or what they are trying to do as they listen

Willing (1987) does not specifically focus on learning strategies in listening comprehension, but she explains learning strategies in terms of information control. That is, learners avoid becoming overloaded and overwhelmed by new information. Willing identifies specific strategies related to listening as follows:

Table 2.6. Six Strategies for Listening Defined by Willing (1987)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Selectively attending</td>
<td>Focusing on the main points instead of the whole information, which results in a reduction of the information overload</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associating</td>
<td>Keeping items to share some features together. This process of associating relates directly to the notion of activating prior knowledge while listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognizing patterns</td>
<td>Recognizing, matching and reproducing patterns in order to maintain control of the input. By recognizing patterns when listening, learners are able to guess meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing</td>
<td>Extracting particular features from a given context. Learners are recognizing a particular part of the pattern which can be moved or manipulated through categorizing or inferencing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Categorizing</td>
<td>Based on analyzing. The extracted features are used to form concepts and groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inferencing</td>
<td>Discovering a solution by deriving a form of what is already known. It involves comprehension of the meaning of the discourse and brings together different parts of new plus prior knowledge. It enables learners to understand what is inferred</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

O’Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzares, Kupper, and Russo (1985) discuss nine metacognitive strategies, sixteen cognitive strategies, and one social mediation. Many of them are already mentioned in the classification of Murphy and Willing above. In the
metacognitive category, however, in addition to Willing selectively attending, they add “directed attention.” In addition, they create the cognitive category of note-taking, which has obvious implications for listening in a one-way task such as a lecture.

Table 2.7. 26 Strategies Defined by O’Malley, et al. (1985)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>Imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Resourcing</td>
<td>Using target language reference materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Directed physical response</td>
<td>Relating new information to physical actions, as with directives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>Using the first language as a base for understanding and/or producing the second language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grouping</td>
<td>Reordering or reclassifying and perhaps labeling the material to be learned based on common attributes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Note-taking</td>
<td>Writing down the main idea, important points, outline, or summary of information presented orally or in writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Deduction</td>
<td>Consciously applying rules to produce or understand the second language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recombination</td>
<td>Constructing a meaningful sentence or larger language sequence by combining known elements in a new way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Imagery</td>
<td>Relating new information to visual concepts in memory via familiar, easily retrievable visualization, phrases, or locations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Auditory representation</td>
<td>Retention of the sound or similar sound for a word, phrase, or longer language sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Key word</td>
<td>Remembering a new word in the second language by (1) identifying a familiar word in the first language that sounds like or otherwise resembles the new word, and (2) generating easily recalled images of some relationship between the new word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contextualization</td>
<td>Placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Elaboration</td>
<td>Relating new information to other concepts in memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer</td>
<td>Using previously acquired linguistic and/or conceptual knowledge to facilitate a new language learning task</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inferencing</td>
<td>Using available information to guess meaning or new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question of clarification</td>
<td>Asking a teacher or other native speakers for repetition, paraphrasing, explanation and /or examples</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive</td>
<td>Advance organizers</td>
<td>Making a general but comprehensive preview or the organizing concept or principle in an anticipated learning activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directed attention</td>
<td>Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distractors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selective attention</td>
<td>Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspect of language input or situational details that will cue the retention of language input</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-management</td>
<td>Understanding the conditions that help one learn and arranging for the presence of those conditions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advance preparation</td>
<td>Planning for and rehearsing linguistic components necessary to carry out an upcoming language task</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-monitoring</td>
<td>Correcting one’s speech for accuracy in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, or for appropriateness related to the setting or to the people who are present</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delayed production</td>
<td>Consciously deciding to postpone speaking to learn initially through listening comprehension</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-evaluation</td>
<td>Checking the outcomes of one’s own language learning against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-reinforcement</td>
<td>Arranging rewards for oneself when language learning activities have been accomplished successfully</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social/Affective</td>
<td>Cooperation</td>
<td>Working with peers to obtain feedback, pool information, or model a language activity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Rubin (1988) emphasizes classroom-oriented strategies because most EFL students only learn foreign language within rather than outside of, the classroom. There are two more strategies found to be valuable for listening comprehension in this study.

Table 2.8. Strategies Defined by Rubin (1988)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Storyline strategy</td>
<td>Using visual materials including body languages, pictures, video tapes and etc.. Listeners try to concentrate on visual materials and make predictions. Therefore, students not only can listen to audio tapes, but also can watch visual materials.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognate strategy</td>
<td>Involving listeners' first language knowledge. Listeners are encouraged to notice that a particular word or phrase sounds like one or more words in their first language.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

O’Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989) offer useful listening comprehension strategies in second language acquisition. Their study investigated what effective and ineffective learners do when they listen. The findings are based on “think aloud.” Three of the strategies are found to be extremely important in listening comprehension.

Effective listeners made use of prior knowledge in three ways; that is, world knowledge, personal knowledge and self-questioning.

Table 2.9. Strategies Defined by O’Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-monitoring</td>
<td>Checking their comprehension or production as it was taking place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elaboration</td>
<td>Relating new information to prior knowledge or to other ideas in the new information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inferencing</td>
<td>Using information in the text to guess meaning or to complete missing ideas</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

O’Malley and Chamot (1990) offered a model of L2 learning strategies based on cognitive psychology including cognitive-processing, metacognitive, and functions. They have defined three main types of strategies used by L2 students.
First, metacognitive strategies involve more higher skills such as thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring of comprehension or production while it taking place, and self-evaluation after the learning activity has been completed. (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Second, cognitive strategies involve conscious ways of “operating” learning, dealing directly with incoming information, and tackling information to improve learning (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990). “This is more directly related to individual learning tasks and entails direct manipulation or transformation of the learning materials” (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 8). Cognitive strategies may be more limited to the specific type of task in the learning activities. In other words, cognitive strategies are techniques for managing particular materials being learned. Thus, they more closely linked to a specific situation or learning task.

Lastly, social/affective strategies involve learning by interacting with either peers or others. In general, they are widely applicable to a variety of tasks. There are three social strategies.

Table 2.10. Three Groups of Strategies Defined by O’Malley and Chamot (1990)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Rehearsal</td>
<td>Repeating the items or objects in order be remembered.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Grouping and classifying words, or concepts according to their semantic or syntactic attributes. Using information in text to guess meanings of new items, predict results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inferencing</td>
<td>While information is coming, listeners/ readers intermediately figure out the whole idea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Deducing</td>
<td>Using rules in order to understand language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imagery</td>
<td>Using visual materials to help understanding new verbal information.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer</td>
<td>Using known linguistic information to help a new task.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elaboration</td>
<td>Integrating new ideas with known knowledge.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive</td>
<td>Selective attention</td>
<td>Focusing on special aspects of learning tasks such as listening for key words or phrases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>Planning for the organization of either written or spoken discourse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monitoring</td>
<td>Reviewing to a task, comprehension of information that should be remembered, or production while it is occurring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Checking comprehension after completion of language activity, or evaluating language production after it has learned.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social/ Affective</td>
<td>Cooperation</td>
<td>Involving peer interaction to achieve a common goal in learning. By this strategy, learners work together to solve a problem to get feedback.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Questioning for clarification</td>
<td>Asking teachers or peers questions to get more clear explanation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self talk</td>
<td>Using mental direction of positive thinking that one has ability to achieve a task to reduce individual anxiety or make learning more successful.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Oxford (1990) divides language learning strategies into two major categories: direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies which “involve direct learning and the subject matter, in this case a new language” (Oxford, 1990, p.11) include three groups of strategies: memory, cognitive, and compensation. Indirect strategies which “contribute indirectly but powerfully to learning” (Oxford, 1990, p. 12) include three groups of strategies: metacognitive, affective, and social. Oxford (1990) indicates that direct strategies and indirect strategies support each other, and that each strategy is capable of connecting with and assisting every other strategy.
Table 2.11. Direct and Indirect Strategies Defined by Oxford (1990)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Memory strategies are for remembering effectively and involve the storage and retrieval of language, especially vocabulary learning including.</strong></td>
<td>Creating mental linkage</td>
<td>Grouping, associating/elaborating, and placing new words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Applying images and sounds</td>
<td>Using imagery, semantic mapping, using key words, and representing sounds in memory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reviewing well</td>
<td>Structured reviewing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employing action</td>
<td>Using physical response or sensation, and using mechanical techniques.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cognitive strategies use one mental process which involves direct manipulation or transformation of linguistics to be learned.</strong></td>
<td>Practicing</td>
<td>repeating, formally practicing with sounds and writing systems, recognizing and using formulas and patterns, recombining, and practicing naturalistically.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Receiving and sending messages</td>
<td>getting the ideas quickly, using resources for receiving and sending messages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Analyzing and reasoning</td>
<td>Reasoning deductively, analyzing expressions, analyzing contrastively (across language), translating, and transferring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Creating structure for input and output</td>
<td>taking notes, summarizing, and highlighting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Compensation strategies facilitate learners’ Comprehension and production of a new language to compensate missing knowledge despite learners’ limitation in the L2</strong></td>
<td>Guessing intelligently</td>
<td>Using linguistic clues and other clues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overcoming limitation in speaking and writing</td>
<td>Switching to the mother tongue, getting help, using mime or gesture, avoiding communication partially or totally, selecting the topic, adjusting or approximating the message, coining words, and using a circumlocution or synonym.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Metacognitive strategies plan, monitor and evaluate task.</strong></td>
<td>Centering your learning</td>
<td>Overviewing and linking with already known material, paying attention, delaying speech production to focus on listening.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Metacognitive strategies help learners' to manage their emotion and attitude. Social strategies cooperate with others to learn new Language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metacognitive</th>
<th>Arranging and planning your learning</th>
<th>Evaluating Your Learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affective strategies help learners’ to manage their emotion and attitude.</strong></td>
<td>Finding out about language learning, organizing, setting goals and objectives, identifying the purpose of a language task (Purposeful listening/reading/speaking/writing), planning for a language task, and speaking practice opportunities.</td>
<td>Self-monitoring and self-evaluating.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social strategies cooperate with others to learn new Language.</strong></td>
<td>Evaluating Your Learning</td>
<td>Social strategies cooperate with others to learn new Language.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social strategies cooperate with others to learn new Language.</th>
<th>Asking questions</th>
<th>Cooperating with others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social strategies cooperate with others to learn new Language.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Asking questions</strong></td>
<td><strong>Cooperating with others</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowing your anxiety</td>
<td>Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or mediation, using music, and using language.</td>
<td>Cooperating with peers and proficient users of the new language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouraging yourself</td>
<td>Making positive statements, taking risks wisely, and rewarding yourself.</td>
<td>Empathizing with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking your emotional temperature</td>
<td>Listening to your body, using a checklist, writing a language learning diary, and discussing your feeling with someone else.</td>
<td>Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or mediation, using music, and using language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking your emotional temperature</td>
<td>Asking questions</td>
<td>Cooperating with others</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Language Teaching and Learning Strategy Training**

Rubin (1990) was the first to suggest that strategies could be the used by more effective students. Rubin (1990) emphasized that “When the text or task is just hard enough, strategy training can improve the performance of students” (p. 313).

Cook (1991) suggests that teachers play a role by doing the following:

- develop the student independence from the teacher with learner training or self-directed learning; make students aware of the range of strategies they can adopt;
provide specific training in strategies; remember the similarities and differences between learning a second language and learning other school subject. (p. 81)

A teacher could make students aware of this information and suggest ways to encourage and act on the information. This is the reason many researchers believe that the strategies are teachable. According to Oxford, Lavine, and Crookall (1989),

It is accurate to state that as a strategy trainer, the teacher becomes instrumental in helping each student to develop the self-awareness of how he or she learns, as well as the knowledge and means to maximize all learning experiences, even outside of the language learning area. Perhaps the greatest benefit derived from training in language learning strategies is that such training helps to provide a framework which can successfully be utilized in any learning situation. (p. 36)

How can strategies be trained in class? Oxford, et al. (1989) provide some alternative ways to make use of strategies. For instance, strategies can be linked with regular learning activities, and can be conducted through simulations, games, and other active exercises (Oxford, et al., 1989). Strategies training must be presented so that learners completely understand why particular strategies are important, how these strategies can be used, how to evaluate their usefulness, and how to transfer them to new situations and tasks (Oxford, et al., 1989). As part of the training, students’ reaction is very important. According to Oxford, et al. (1989), “honest discussions of feelings are needed to address the frequently poor attitudes that language learners exhibit about language learning in general, as well as the resistance they often show toward taking
responsibility for their own learning” (p. 36). After the strategies training, teachers can end with evaluating of the training.

The chief moral is that the students often know best. It is the learners’ involvement, the learners’ strategies, and the learners’ ability to go their own ways that create self-managed learning. The students must be encouraged to develop independence inside and outside the classroom. This can partly be achieved through learner training, equipping students with the means to guide themselves by explaining strategies to them. Learner training is self-directed learning, in which the students take on responsibility for their learning: they choose their goals; they control the teaching methods and materials; and they assess how well they are doing themselves.

The goal in teaching is to effect a modification in the behavior of students. Therefore, students are able to tackle listening tasks in the future. Holec (1985) stresses that “The major goals of teaching strategies is to contribute toward the learners achieving autonomy” (p. 2).

Weinstein and Mayer (1986) explain that “the goal of strategy use is to affect the learner motivational or affective state, or the way in which the learner selects, acquires, organizes, or integrates new knowledge” (p. 316).

Holec (1985) places emphasis on autonomy in SLA and self-directed learning: “Being autonomous is the capacity to run one’s own learning affairs” (p. 88). Teachers must devote their teaching to training students in the use of strategies that they can apply when on their own, thereby learning on their own. In addition, EFL students could become aware of what strategies they are and are not using, and what other strategies
found useful by others are available to them. The greatest benefit derived from training
may help to provide a framework which can successfully be utilized in any learning
situation and the role of teachers thereby becomes more like an adviser, manager,

MacIntyre (1994) provides a model (see figure 2.3),

Students must be aware of the appropriate strategy or a range of strategies; there
must be sufficient impetus to use a strategy; students should not have reason not to
use a strategy; and strategy use should be reinforced by positive consequences. (p.
190)

In summary, listening comprehension will improve if learners can be assisted to
work with, rather than against, cognitive ways of processing information, using social
functions to provide relevance and employing cognitive skills in listening along with an
array of other proven learning strategies.
Figure 2.3. A Model of Strategies Use (MacIntyre, 1994, p. 192)
CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL PRINCIPLES

To help EFL students learn language effectively in listening, a synthesis of four principles is presented in the project. The project gathers four interrelated principles which promote listening comprehension, including comprehensible listening processing, schema theory, social functions, and strategies into the listening instruction, from the pre-listening stage, to the focus-listening stage, and on to the post-listening stage. The purpose of the project is to improve students’ listening skills. It is essential that the teachers develop students’ awareness and use of strategies by offering training. Strategies training can help students to develop a framework which can successfully be utilized in any learning situation.

Strategy-Based Listening Instruction

Through the whole class, learning occurs in three stages: preparing for learning (pre-listening), on-line processing (listening itself), and extending (follow-up exercise), which is connected to what is referred to as anticipating. In terms of listening comprehension, this concept is related to a series of strategies including note-taking, imagery, self-management, self-question, and so on (see Figure 3.1).

The Pre-listening Stage

The teacher sets the stage for students to prepare for listening input. Using cognitive listening skills such as schemata building, reference to students’ prior knowledge including cultural knowledge, students have plenty of time to review prior knowledge and absorb information. Explicit strategy training provides students with
knowledge about what strategies are and how they work. At the pre-listening stage, the instructor should preview the recommended strategies and remind students that they are free to apply the strategies.

The Focus-listening Stage

Students utilize the strategies to listen to authentic materials. Students focus on the topic and make connections with their prior knowledge. While listening, specific strategies can be or can not be used to facilitate listening comprehension. The topics emphasize social functions in order to evoke students’ interest and compensate for students’ lack of the social connection in the real world with native English speakers.

The Post-listening Stage

The teacher guides students’ practice and students are actively involved in cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies to assist their listening comprehension. Particularly, many of activities incorporate social strategies in the classroom. Assessment is a part of this stage so that students can get the chance to obtain feedback.

Three Groups of Strategies

Currently, views of listening comprehension incorporate three groups of strategies so that students can actively process language input for listeners.

Cognitive strategies are techniques for solving learning problems by considering how to store and retrieve information. Learning is characterized as cognitive processing, so learners combine prior knowledge and specific strategies to understand the ideas in a particular text or the element of a problem as a whole. In short, cognitive strategies involve conscious ways of operating learning, deal directly with incoming information,
and tackle information to improve learning. These strategies include note-taking, imagery, translation, and inferencing.

Listeners use metacognitive strategies about themselves and how they listen best. Metacognitive strategies involve learners' personal knowledge, task knowledge and strategy selection. Learners use metacognitive strategies to think about the learning process, plan for learning, monitor comprehension or production while it taking place, and self-evaluate after the learning activity has been completed.

Students work together or interact with teachers/native speakers to get feedback, and fill in the missing parts. These strategies are cooperation and questioning for clarification.

**Students Can be Taught to Use Various Strategies**

As previously mentioned, research evidence on low-achieving or high students support the assertion that strategies can be taught. Teng (1996), Rubin (1988), and Rubin and Thompson (1992) describe a series of statements about learning strategies, which provide strong support for strategies training to enhance listening comprehension. Teachers can give students labels for strategies, and tell them why the strategies are useful (see Table 3.1). Once students are familiar with the strategies, the teacher can offer them choices of which strategies to use and can ask them to provide a rationale for their choice.

**The Theoretical Principles Resolve the Current Problems of Listening Pedagogy**

The model of strategy-based listening can satisfy the current pedagogy in Taiwan, because it includes specific such as using the listening process to structure a sequence of tasks, utilizing cognitive skills in listening to build students' background knowledge, using
social functional knowledge to increase students' language knowledge, and incorporating explicit training strategies to promote listening skills.

**Use the Listening Process to Structure a Sequence of Tasks**

Information processing while listening results in comprehensible input only under the condition of activating students' attention by task demand, context, or complex input. The teacher can stimulate students' attention, and students can use rehearsal to increase retention in short term memory. Students would not have the chance to retain information in short-term memory unless there are a variety of tasks provided in class. A variety of attention and arousal activities enhance short-term memory and stimulate the executive decision maker to help EFL/ESL learners' comprehension.

Meanwhile, overloading interferes with the listening process. Teachers should be aware of students’ learning attitudes in order to help them overcome some listening difficulties.

**Utilize Cognitive Skills in Listening**

An acceptance of schema theory and an understanding of information processing in the brain is very important in listening comprehension. Pre-listening draws on prior knowledge, and is predicated on the notion of activating existing schemata in the minds of listeners. Activation of these schemata facilitates making predictions and inferences. Teachers of listening need to train students how to become the most efficient and active listeners possible, through the use of a series of strategies.
Background activation should be the first step of the curriculum, because building background knowledge will help students to make authentic materials more understandable.

**Use Social Functional Knowledge to Make up for Little Social Contact in Daily Life with English Speakers**

Language is used to communicate with people. In order to stimulate students' interest, social functions need to be integrated into the curriculum. By learning to use interpersonal functions, students learn how to use English to express themselves. By building their information functions, students will gain world knowledge. From the use of imagination functions, students are allowed to imagine how the situation can happen to them.

As they communicate with native English speakers, most EFL students lack second language background knowledge; information cannot be completely processed, and this makes them become anxious and lose interest in interacting with native English speakers.

**Explicit Strategy Training to Assist Students’ Listening**

Explicit strategy training is an alternative way to increase comprehensible input. It offers a way of teaching students how to tackle their listening by means of strategies, thereby making them better and more autonomous listeners.

Therefore, explicit strategy training can lead learners to achieve two goals; that is, to understand the meaning of the tasks at hand and comprehend what is being listened to, and to regulate his or her own learning in order to become an autonomous learner.
Figure 3.1. The Principles of Strategy-Based Listening

Explicit Strategy Training in Listening

The Pre-Listening Stage
- Schemata: Evoke Prior Knowledge
- Strategy Input and Practice

The Focus-Listening Stage
- The Topics: Social Functions Language
- Utilize Strategies While Listening

The Post-Listening Stage
- Seeking for Comprehension & Output
- Strategies Involved

Cognitive Strategies: Note-taking, imagery, inferencing, translation, repetition.


Social Strategies: Cooperation, questioning for clarification.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Imagery</td>
<td>Relating new information to visual concepts in memory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inferencing</td>
<td>Discovering a solution by deriving it from what is already known. It involves comprehension of the meaning of the discourse and brings together different parts of new information plus prior knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>Imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Note-taking</td>
<td>Writing down the main idea, important points, outline, or summary of information presented orally or in writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>Using the first language as a base for understanding or producing the second language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive</td>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>Preparing for the organization of either written or spoken discourse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-question</td>
<td>Learners asking themselves questions about the material or anticipate possible extensions of the information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-management</td>
<td>Understanding the conditions that help one learn and arrange for the presence of those conditions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Affective</td>
<td>Managing personal emotion to get attention to tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-evaluation</td>
<td>Learners make comments to judge themselves about how well they have learned.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Cooperation</td>
<td>Working with one or peers to obtain feedback, pool information, or model a language activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question for clarification</td>
<td>Asking teachers, peers, or native speakers to obtain feedback and pool knowledge, or model an activity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER FOUR: ASSESSMENT

Assessments in Listening Comprehension

Wolvin and Coakley (1985) stress that “listening comprehension is the process of receiving, attending to, and assigning meaning to aural stimuli” (p. 74). To some degrees, because the process cannot be observed directly in a huge class, it is hard to find ways to measure listening comprehension. To find a way to balance quantitative with quality to check students’ comprehension, Canale (1984) points out that assessments should be fair, interesting, and generalizable. Douglas (1988) recommends that listening tests be integrative and integrated, contextualized, and challenge learners to deal with a variety of listening tasks and condition. Therefore, assessments should involve many kinds of activities.

Current materials and methodology emphasize activities designed to promote language development. The following studies have proposed alternative assessment techniques to evaluate learners.

The Purposes of Assessment

According to Diaz-Rico (1995), the purpose of assessment is “to inform students of their academic status, to advise parents of student progress, to keep records, and to improve learning.” Airasian (1991) notes that assessments “provide teachers with a quick perception and practical knowledge of pupils’ characteristics” … and also “carry out the bureaucratic aspects of teaching such as grading, grouping, and placing.” Generally speaking, the purpose of assessment provides teachers, students, and schools a way to
evaluate students' learning progress in order to make adjustments in the teaching and activities.

**Principles of Assessment**

Assessments are not isolated from instruction, because assessments give students and teachers feedback opportunity. So assessments need to be integrated regularly in instruction. Diaz-Rico indicates (1995) that assessment should be part of instruction; that assessment methods and instruments should be varied; that assessment should focus on a broad range of abilities reflecting dimensions of skill development; that assessment should be continuous; that students should be assessed in a variety of contexts; and that measures should be used that are appropriate to student's development and cultural background.

**The Features of Assessment in Listening Comprehension**

Thompson (1995) believes that assessments in listening comprehension should be concerned with students' "ability to understand simple, short, utterances in routine conversations in which the listener is a participant" (p. 33); and "ability to comprehend extended aural discourse on complex, abstract topics in one-way listening situations" (p. 33). In addition, assessments are not to make learning difficult, but should be the way to diagnose learners' strengths and weaknesses. Listening comprehension assessment "can be used for research purposes to help us better define the construct, study the different components of listening ability, and examine the effects of various test method facets" (Thompson, 1995, p. 32-33).
The Variety of Assessments

There are many types of assessments that teachers can use either in the classroom or outside of the classroom. Among assessments tasks are verbal responses, such as answering various types of questions, completing information, and writing recall protocols or summaries; as well as a variety of nonverbal tasks, such as identifying and matching pictures, tracing routes on maps, and drawing graphs (Thompson, 1995).

One widely used in type of question tests of listening comprehension is multiple-choice. According to Thompson (1995), there are several advantages and disadvantages of multiple-choice tests. The first advantage is that they are easy and fast to score because no judgment is required on the part of scorers. Second, multiple choice items require a minimal amount of time to complete; therefore, multiple-choice tests can include many items, which enhances test reliability. Finally, multiple-choice items minimize the confounding of listening with speaking or writing because they have no production requirement, although reading still remains a confounding factor. All these features make multiple-choice tests practical in a large classroom.

However, Thompson (1995) points put three disadvantages of multiple-choice tests. First of all, multiple-choice items lead to students’ guessing without comprehension. Second, sometimes important parts cannot be tested simply because distractors cannot be found. Last, good multiple-choice questions are difficult to write. Thompson (1995) stresses that common problems include clues pointing to the right answer, confusing distractors, insufficient number of distractors (ideally there should be
one correct answer and three distractors), unclear or lengthy wording, negative wording, and more than one correct option.

True-false questions, matching, short answer and fill-in the blank called objective test questions are easier to write than multiple choice questions, but true-false is obviously easy to guess because there is a 50% chance of being correct (Thompson, 1995). Gronlund (1993) suggests that “the guiding principle for deciding which item format is best is to use the item types that provide the most direct measures of student performance specified by the intended learning outcome” (p. 28).

Open-ended questions can avoid some problems that multiple choice and true-false questions have. One of advantages is that it is hard for examinees to guess. Second, teachers can ask any question without creating four plausible multiple-choice options. There is more than one answer that can be reasonable to write. The answers to open-ended questions are more flexible than multiple-choice and true-false questions (Thompson, 1995). On the other hand, Thompson (1995) indicates that some problems may raise the difficulty of taking open-ended questions. In the first place, open-ended questions do not always work well because of lack of background knowledge. Second, poorly designed open-ended questions may make students confused. Another problem is that right/wrong scoring in this case is inappropriate because both answers are correct. Last, is the question of how much information should be answered in such a limited time. (Thompson, 1995).

Recall protocols are normally used in this manner: (1) a brief listening passage is recorded at normal speed; (2) a list is prepared of all facts or propositions contained in the
passage; (3) students listen to the passage; (4) they are asked to write down everything they remember from the passage (dictation). The recall protocols are scored for the number of correctly recalled propositions. More points may be awarded for recall of higher-level propositions than for details (Berhardt & James, 1985). Thompson (1995) argues that recall protocols may rely on memory ability and writing skill.

Nonverbal responses are especially useful at a beginning level of language acquisition. Thompson (1995) describes that examinees may have understood the passage, but were unable to demonstrate their comprehension through speaking or writing. So circling the pictures, placing pictures, selecting the outcome most consistent with the story, selecting graphs or charts, or drawing pictures may be effective assessment devices.

Nontest Measures

In addition to traditional tests, teachers can measure students’ listening ability by collecting data from other sources (Shohamy, 1992). Self-assessment, student portfolios and observation are introduced below.

Thompson (1995) states that self-assessment is “a promising approach to testing language by proxy by asking learners to evaluate their own language abilities” (p. 48). Oskarsson (1989) explains that self-assessment “is usually done through self-rating questionnaires, checklist, and rating scales that require learners to describe their own abilities” (p. 2). Gardner (1996) notes that self-assessment can encourage students to become more independent and also take responsibility for their own learning. Many studies show that well-designed self-assessment can be a substitute for more objective measures (LeBlanc & Painchaud, 1985; Von Elek, 1985). However, Janssen-van Dieten
(1989) study showed no significant evidence for the positive effects of self-assessment. This study showed that one of the major problems was the use of self-assessment at the beginning level of L2 acquisition. Less experienced students might have problems measuring their ability. So Heilenman (1990) suggests several ways of improving the reliability of self-assessments, such as avoiding generalized statements that have little to do with the current learning, focusing on situations with which learners are familiar, avoiding negative word questions, asking several questions about same area, and making learners’ response about open-ended questions. An example of self-rating listening comprehension questionnaire for lower-level learners is from Thompson (1995).

Table 4.1. Self-rating Listening Comprehension Questionnaire (Thompson, 1995, p. 49)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I can understand when…</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the teacher gives directions in class.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the teacher explains grammar rules.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I listen to the news on the radio or TV.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I practice English at home with my sister/friends.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gardner (1996) suggests that building self-assessment procedures into learning materials will “encourage students to see self-assessment as an ongoing process. Learners will make their own decisions about whether to complete the self-assessment” (p. 18). Therefore, students will learn to find out what is helpful or meaningful for them.

Thompson (1995) defines portfolios as collections that “learners compile of their work to show that they are working on their listening” (p. 49). For example, this might consist of weekly or monthly lists of cable TV programs viewed, written summaries of
movies or TV episodes, or completed worksheets on programs selected from a list suggested by the instructor or themselves.

Thompson (1995) claims that “careful selection of listening passage creation of listening tasks reflect cognitive operations involved in real-life listening” (p. 51). Lower level listeners may become frustrated when left too much authentic radio or cable TV programs on their own. The teacher should help and encourage students by meeting students once a week or making progress cards as a check. An alternative solution is to have students work in small groups or pairs (Thompson, 1995).

Gottlieb (1995) stresses that “portfolios have emerged as the vehicle by which students and teachers can organize, manage, and analyze life inside and out of school” (p. 12). It is important that portfolios focus on what a student can do rather than what the student cannot do. Students learn to think and are able to make connections (Diaz-Rico, 1995). Portfolios provide holistic instruction, because, as Gottlieb (1995) describes, portfolios allow students to assume responsibility for their own learning and provide evidence of their progress toward meeting their goals as learners. For teachers, portfolios provide the framework for instruction and their contents chronicle the dynamic curriculum of their classroom; they capture reflective teaching and highlight authentic activities of their students throughout their academic years. (p. 12)

What goes in a portfolio? According to Diaz-Rico (1995), there are different types of work samples (see Table 4.2).
Table 4.2. Sample Contents of a Portfolio (Diaz-Rico, 1995)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work that demonstrates student achievement of desired outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Solutions to open ended questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Report about group projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems made up by students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Draft, revision, and final version of student work on stories or complex problems or investigation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excerpts from journals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Papers that show student corrections of errors or misconceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notes from an interview by the teacher or another student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher complete checklists and narration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photographs or drawings of work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audio or video tapes of student explanations or oral presentations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer printouts or discs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The procedure that portfolios follow is “collection, selection, and reflection.” Each stage has a set of criteria that shapes its function. All the activities in class or out of school can be collected and selected into a portfolio. After that, collection and selection are an expression of students’ own ideas. Reflection offers students an opportunity to evaluate their present level with their prior performance. “Thus students become involved in self-evaluation and begin to monitor their own progress over time” (Gottlieb, 1995, p. 13).

In addition, with the guidance of the teacher, students are able to get a whole picture of the portfolio. They should have flexibility in shaping the portfolio and enable to access to the contents (Gottlieb, 1995).

Figure 4.1 The Process of Making a Portfolio

```
Collection + Selection + Reflection = Portfolio
```
During the interactive activities time, teachers can observe students’ progress. In this way, teachers can note individual differences. Teachers can record a small groups’ form discussion, telling a story, games, role-play, presentation, or any oral activities (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

Grading

McCormick and Pressley (1997) note that grading “requires teachers to make judgments about students performance” (p. 395). Many teachers grade their students because they realize that grades provide information used to evaluate individuals or team’s progress. Traditional grading is A-F scale in the U. S.; some teachers use pass/fail to evaluate ESL students’ English proficiency (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). In listening, teachers can use a rating from low level to high level (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3. Sample of Listening Scoring Rubric (O’Molley & Pierce, 1996)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Level 3</th>
<th>Level 4</th>
<th>Level 5</th>
<th>Level 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Understands little or no English</td>
<td>Understands words and phrases, requires repetition</td>
<td>Understands simple sentences in sustained conversation and requires repetition</td>
<td>Understands classroom discussions with repetition, rephrasing, and clarification</td>
<td>Understands most spoken language, including classroom discussion</td>
<td>Understands classroom discussion without difficulty</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The instructor can use alternative assessments to evaluate students’ output. From assessments, students and teachers can find out what students know and can do, because assessments show students’ growth and inform instruction.
CHAPTER FIVE: THE DESIGN OF THE PROJECT

The project is based on four principles discussed Chapter Three, which are the following: use a well-designed listening process; involve meaningful activities that activate schemata; choose interesting topics that incorporate social functions; and provide strategies in order to improve listening comprehension. Students at the senior vocational high school, level, who have studied English for three years at least and have achieved the low-intermediate level of proficiency, are the target of this project.

The Characteristics of the Curriculum

To increase listening comprehension, students will be asked to identify one strategy, and then try to use the strategy. They are allowed to use the same strategies as long as they feel comfortable with the strategy. Students are not forced to use new strategies, but they will be encouraged to try new strategies and will be given the support to do so. During the term, students get the chance to discuss these strategies with others.

Once students’ listening comprehension has improved in accordance with strategies, they can become more active listeners, and get used to listening to native English speakers and authentic materials. They can continue to use strategies by themselves. Learning will become easier and more interesting than before.

The Content of Two Units

Two units are “Chit Chat” and “Resolving Misunderstanding,” which aim to develop students’ functional language. Many students learn English, but do not know how to use it. So these units will provide students with sample English from the real world.
Although listening is the central focus on the project, speaking, reading, writing and strategies are also involved. Listening materials are recorded by native English speakers. Some materials are selected from authentic sources such as program from radio, cable TV, movie.

In the first unit “Chit Chat,” students will learn how to start a conversation with new friends including introducing themselves, asking questions, becoming an active listener, inviting, giving an opinion, and expressing themselves. Each lesson provides a variety of activities to help students learn more effectively and enjoy learning in class. Students have plenty of time to think about their learning.

Sometime people find it easy to misunderstand each other, because they do not know how to use appropriate language to express themselves. In the second unit “Resolving Misunderstanding,” students will listen to some situations which make people confused or misunderstand. For example, when they miss an appointment, how do they make an apology? After that, students will learn to resolve misunderstanding, and also to use appropriate language in the real world.

The Procedure of the Curriculum

Each unit has six lessons. Each lesson has three stages of listening tasks including pre-listening, focus-listening, post-listening stage and assessments. Each lesson includes objectives; strategies; vocabulary; involving students’ background, interests, and prior knowledge; materials; teaching listening with variety; responding to diversity with a range of activities and assessment.
In the pre-listening stage, involving students’ background, interests, and prior knowledge, students can develop their prior knowledge. Students are asked to think about some questions. Second, the teacher will provide strategies for students and encourage students to use them when they listen to tapes.

In the focus-listening stage, information input is the main activity. Students pay full attention to audiotapes without tapescripts. Students are guided to integrate strategies into listening.

In the post-listening stage, questioning and cooperative strategies are used, and the teacher assists students’ output. Students are engaged in a variety of activities to increase listening comprehension including role-play, games, jazz chants, a small group discussion, interview and so on.

Each lesson has either a test or a self-assessment for teacher’s evaluation. Assessments can help students gain feedback. Self-assessment can help students evaluate their progress and become aware of their learning. The teacher uses a checklist to keep students’ records (see Table 5.1). During the activities, the teacher will observe students’ learning progress. Teachers can videotape some activities or check in class. Students’ notes are also collected.

After school, homework keeps them listening to authentic materials and provides extra practice strategies. Students are encouraged to listen to some authentic materials which interest them outside of class, to write journals, or to record their stories. They can regulate their learning style with useful strategies.
Table 5.1. Student Performance Checklist

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Name:</th>
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Grading scale: 6 = excellent, 5 = good, 4 = fair, 3 = inconsistent, 2 = improvement needs, 1 = poor

Pass: 3-6; Fail: 1-2.
APPENDIX A

UNIT ONE:

CHIT CHAT
UNIT ONE: CHIT CHAT

Overview

Lesson 1: Say “Hey!” - Starting a Conversation
Content: Making a small talk at a party

Lesson 2: Something About Me - Continuing the Conversation
Content: Expressing myself and getting someone’s attention

Lesson 3: Your Hometown and My Hometown - Exchanging Conversational Information
Content: Cross-cultural comparison.

Lesson 4: Free Time Activities - Expressing Yourself More
Content: Interacting in a conversation about free time activities

Lesson 5: Let’s Go to a Movie - Inviting and Accepting Invitations
Content: Making and accepting an invitation

Lesson 6: Making a Plan for the Next Time
Content: Making a plan, making a phone call, and leaving a message
Lesson One
Say “Hey!” - Starting a Conversation

Objectives
1. Listen to audiotape of native-speaker English
2. Explicit strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension
3. Identify own learning style as a listener
4. Build social function knowledge to start a conversation upon first acquaintance and get someone’s attention in a group

Strategies
self-management, imagery, questioning, cooperation strategies

Vocabulary
encourage, skip, negative, initiative, recognize, put off, hit off, all of a sudden, as a matter of fact, drive one’s crazy, reduce, anxiety, concentration, positive

Materials
1. Focus Sheet–I.1-1 and I.1-2 Pre-listening, I.1-3 Focus-listening
2. Work Sheet–I.1-4 Post-listening
3. Audiotape, cassette player
4. I.1-5 Test Sheet
5. I.1-6 Homework Sheet

Teaching listening with variety
Pre-listening
1. Evoke students’ background, interests and prior knowledge. Ask students questions as follows:
   1) When you listen to people, what do you need to do?
   2) In your country, if you don’t know someone and want to start a conversation, how do you begin?
   3) Why is it difficult to start a conversation when people meet each other for the first time?
   4) If someone ask you a personal question as the first time you meet, what would you respond?
2. Prior knowledge about culture - reading a short article about what polite questions people ask a stranger at the first time in the North America. (see Focus Sheet I.1-1)
3. Explicit strategy training: Tell students about what strategies are and how strategies can help students.
4. Distribute Focus Sheet I.1-2 and explain about self-management strategies in order to prepare for listening. Use examples to make students understand self-management strategies.

5. Imagery strategies from pictures - predict and guess. (see Focus Sheet I.1-2) Encourage students think about what is going through their minds after viewing the pictures. Ask students questions:
   1) What do you already know about the topic?
   2) What ideas would you expect to hear?

**Focus-listening**
1. Prepare for listening.
2. First time, listen to the audiotape without a tapescript.

**Post-listening**
1. Immediately after listening, ask volunteer students to describe their thoughts while listening and ask them questions as follows:
   1) What helped you understand?
   2) What problems did you have?
   3) Did pre-listening activities help you to understand the article?
2. Using a cooperation strategy: Students are divided into small groups. Students discuss about their problems in English. Ask them to take notes. Meanwhile, make sure everyone participates equally.
3. Replay audiotape: This time, listen to a short segment, stop the tape and ask students to think again.
4. Using a cooperation strategy: students are divided into small groups. Students discuss the whole story.
5. Distribute Work Sheet I.1-4 and ask students to work together and answer multiple choice and true/false questions to get feedback.
6. Encourage students to use a questioning strategy in which students may ask questions or clarify unclear ideas with their teacher or with their group.
7. If students still don’t understand, allow them to listen to the tape again.
8. Each group summarizes the main idea and exchanges with other groups.
9. Distribute tapescript (see Focus Sheet I.1-3), to see if students can comprehend the whole concept.

**Responding to diversity with a range of activities**
1. By developing imagery, questioning, cooperation and self-management strategies, students can get feedback and comprehension.
2. Make sure that students respond to each step of the activities.
3. Allow them to use an English-English dictionary as a supplement.
Assessment
1. The teacher will use a performance checklist to keep students’ records. (see Table 5.1)
2. Test: Have students listen to a short conversation and write the main idea. (see I.1.5 Test Sheet)
3. Collect students’ Work Sheet I.1.4 for teacher’s evaluation.
4. Homework: Each group records their conversation and turns it in at the next class session. (see I.1.7 Homework Sheet)
Lesson Two
Something about Me - Continuing a Conversation

Objectives
1. Listen to audiotape of native English speakers
2. Build self-esteem and social function knowledge to become an active listener
3. Learn why people need to express themselves appropriately
4. Learn why a good listener can make a conversation more successful and get someone's attention
5. Explicit strategy training helps students develop note-taking strategies in order to assist listening comprehension
6. Participate in class and group activities
7. Become more actively involved in strategies to evaluate students' current performance

Strategy
note-taking, self-management, self-evaluation, imagery, questioning, cooperation strategies

Vocabulary
embarrassment, make an eye contact, nod one's head, vary one's facial expression pick up, silence, appropriately

Materials
1. Focus Sheet–I.2-1, I.2-2, and I.2-3 Pre-listening, I.2-4 Focus-listening
2. Work Sheet–I.2-5 Post-listening
3. Audiotape, cassette player
4. I.2-6 Test Sheet
5. I.2-7 Homework Sheet

Teaching listening with variety

Pre-listening
1. Evoke students' background, interests, and prior knowledge. Ask students questions as follows:
   1) Does silence often happen to you during a conversation? Why?
   2) After a small talk, how do you pick up to continue the conversation?
   3) How can you become a active listener in a group?
   4) Have you ever taken notes in class before?
2. Prior knowledge about culture - reading an article why people need to express themselves appropriately and how a good listener can make a conversation more successful. (see Focus Sheet I.2-1)
3. Explicit listening strategy training about note-taking: Explain what note-taking is, and how it works in listening. (see Focus Sheet I.2-2)

4. Imagery strategies from pictures - predict and guess. (see Focus Sheet I.2-3)
   Encourage students think about what is going through their minds after viewing the pictures. Ask students these questions:
   1) What do you already know about the topic?
   2) What ideas would you expect to hear?

**Focus-listening**
1. Prepare for listening: Encourage students to use note-taking and self-management strategies.
2. First time, listen to the audiotape without a tapescript.

**Post-listening**
1. Using a cooperation strategy: Immediately after listening, students divide into small groups and discuss what they heard and share their notes in English. Make sure everyone participates equally.
2. Encourage students to use a questioning strategy in which students may ask questions or clarify unclear ideas with the teacher or with their group.
3. Ask volunteer students from each group to describe their thoughts; if they answer, they can get points.
   1) What do you already know about the topic?
   2) What ideas would you expect to hear?
   3) What helped you understand?
   4) What problems did you have?
   5) Did pre-listening activities help you to understand the article?
   6) Did you take notes?
5. Replay the tape: This time, have students listen to a short segment, then stop the tape and ask students to think again.
6. Ask each group to discuss again, fill in the missing part of their notes, and have them exchange their notes with other groups to get the ideas.
7. Distribute tapescript (see Focus Sheet I.2-4), to see if students can comprehend the whole concept.
8. Role-play: In pairs, students practice roles, and then exchange their roles.
9. Return tapescript.
10. Distribute Work Sheet I.2-5, and have students answer true/false questions, and open-ended questions.

**Responding to diversity with a range of activities**
1. By developing cooperation, note-taking, questioning, imagery, and self-management strategies, students can get feedback and comprehension.
2. Make sure that students respond to each step of the activities.
3. Allow them to use an English-English dictionary as a supplement.

Assessment
1. The teacher will use a performance checklist to keep students’ records. (see Table 5.1)
2. From observation of activities.
3. Collect their notes and Work Sheet L2-4 for teacher’s evaluation.
4. Test: Look at the pictures. Listen to a short conversation and ask students to number the pictures in orders and to write the story. (see L2-6 Test Sheet)
5. Homework: Use a self-evaluation strategy and have students evaluate their listening comprehension after two class sessions. (see L2-7 Homework Sheet)
Lesson Three
Your Hometown and My Hometown - Exchanging Conversational Information

Objectives
1. Listen to audiotape of native English speakers
2. Build functional language knowledge: like and dislike, advantages and disadvantages.
3. Learn to maintain a conversation in order to become an active listener
4. Build geography knowledge and comparison between one’s hometown and other cities in other countries
5. Explicit strategy training helps students develop note-taking strategies in order to assist listening comprehension
6. Participate in class and group activities
7. Learn to make and present a project
8. Become more actively involved in strategies to evaluate students’ current performance

Strategy
note-taking, self-management, questioning, imagery, cooperation strategies

Vocabulary
suburb, advantage, disadvantage, excellent, exhibit, regularly, ancient, collection, resemble, imperial, museum, temple, the Metropolitan Museum of Art, Statue of Liberty

Materials
1. Focus Sheet–1.3-1, 1.3-2, and 1.3-3 Pre-listening, 1.3-4 Focus-listening
2. Work Sheet–1.3-5 Post-listening
3. Audiotape, cassette player, videotape, video camera, VCR, TV
4. 1.3-6 Test Sheet
5. 1.3-7 Homework Sheet
6. Supplementary handouts: 1.3-8 Project Planning, 1.3-9 Writing Project, 1.3-10 Project Skills, 1.3-11 Tourist Pamphlet

Teaching listening with variety
Pre-listening
1. Evoke students’ background, interests, and prior knowledge. Ask students questions as follows:
   1) Where are you from? From a city, suburbs, a small town?
   2) How much do you know your hometown?
3) Do you like your hometown? Why?
4) Have you ever been outside Taiwan?
5) Do you prefer to live in the city or in the countryside? Why?
6) What geographical knowledge do you know about Taiwan and the U.S.?

2. Prior knowledge about culture - reading an article on the topic of how people talk about their hometown to maintain a conversation. Use ‘like or dislike’, and ‘advantage or disadvantage’ in relation to their hometown in order to express their opinions. (see Focus Sheet I.3-1)

3. Explicit listening strategy training: Review note-taking and self-management strategies. In addition, provide students with more details about note-taking strategies, and how it works in listening. (see Focus Sheet I.3-2)

4. Imagery strategies from pictures - predict and guess. (see Focus Sheet I.3-3) Encourage students think about what is going through their minds after viewing the pictures. Ask students questions:
   1) What do you already know about the topic?
   2) What ideas would you expect to hear?

**Focus-listening**
1. Prepare for listening and encourage students to use strategies they have learned.
2. First time, listen to the audiotape without a transcript.

**Post-listening**
1. Using a cooperation strategy: Immediately after listening, students are divided into small groups of four. Students discuss what they heard and share their notes in English.
2. Encourage students to use a questioning strategy in which students may ask questions or clarify unclear ideas with the teacher or with their partners.
3. Ask volunteer students of each group to describe their thoughts, if they answer, they can get points:
   1) What do you already know about the topic?
   2) What ideas would you expect to hear?
   3) What helped you understand?
   4) What problems did you have?
   5) Did pre-listening activities help you to understand the article?
   6) Did you take notes?
   7) Are strategies useful? Why/ Why not?
4. Replay the tape: This time, listen to a short segment, stop the tape and ask students think again.
5. Ask each group to discuss again, and fill in the missing part of their notes.
6. Distributing transcript to see if students can comprehend the whole concept. (see Focus Sheet I.3-4)
8. Return tapescript.
9. Distribute Work Sheet I.3-5 and have students discuss open-ended questions with their groups to get feedback.
10. Activity:
   1) Each group makes what, how, why, who, when, where question cards as many as they can. Questions have to be from this lesson, but not yes/no questions.
   2) Each group exchanges their cards and mixes them. Two group students sit face to face. Every student in a group draws a card to ask a student of the other group until each student gets his/her turn.
   3) The teacher will videorecord some groups.
   4) After videorecording, have students watch the videotape.

Responding to diversity with a range of activities
1. By developing cooperation, questioning, and note-taking strategies, students can get feedback and comprehension.
2. Make sure that students respond during each step of the activities.
3. Allow them to use an English-English dictionary as supplement, but encourage them to try not to use dictionary and make a guess.
4. From the videotape, students have the chance to look at their performance.

Assessment
1. The teacher will use a performance checklist to keep students’ records. (see Table 5.1)
2. From observation of activities.
3. Collect their notes and Work Sheet I.3-5.
4. Test: Look at the pictures. Listening to each dialogue about likes or dislikes the cities of pictures and write down the reason. (see I.3-6 Test sheet)
5. Homework: Make a tourist pamphlet (see I.3-7 Homework Sheet)
   Distribute handout and explain how to write a project. Students work in small groups of four to do a project. Ask them to select a city or place in Taiwan or in other countries. Turn in after two weeks and have presentations in class.
   Teacher will videotape during their presentations. (see I.3-8 Project Planning, I.3-9 Writing Project, I.3-10 Project Skills, I.3-11 Tourist Pamphlet)
Lesson Four
Free Time Activities-Expressing Yourself More

Objectives
1. Listen to audiotape of native English speakers
2. Build social functional knowledge to become an active listener and express their free time activities in the conversation
3. Explicit strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension.
4. Participate in class and group activities
5. Become more actively involved in strategies to evaluate students’ current performance

Strategy
note-taking, self-management, imagery, questioning, self-evaluation, cooperation strategies.

Vocabulary
leisure, signal, indicate, soccer, rhythm, expert, critic, historian, descendants, in conclusion, characteristics, instrument, percussion, synthesizer, prerecorded, mainstream, reality, inner-city, gang, audience, ;predomination, violence, minority

Materials
1. Focus Sheet—1.4-1, 1.4-2, and 1.4-3 Pre-listening, 1.4-4 Focus-listening
2. Work Sheet—1.4-5 and 1.4-6 Post-listening
3. Audiotape, cassette player
4. 1.4-7 Test Sheet
5. 1.4-8 Homework Sheet

Teaching listening with variety
Pre-listening
1. Evoke students’ background, interests, and prior knowledge about language. Ask students questions:
   1) How do you spend your free time, such as listening to music, sports, or shopping?
   2) Do you enjoy your free time activities?
   3) In your country, what kinds of leisure activities are popular?
   4) What are some words and phrases you can use to express your pleasure and positive feelings?
   5) How do you interact in a conversation when people talk about their free time activities?
2. Prior knowledge-reading an article about how people express themselves when they talk about leisure activities and provide a list of activities. (see Focus Sheet I.4-1)

3. Explicit listening strategy training: Review note-taking and self-management strategies. Moreover, listen to signal words and phrases to help students listening comprehension. (see Focus Sheet I.4-2)

4. Imagery strategies from pictures - predict and guess. (see Focus Sheet I.4-3) Encourage students think about what is going through their minds after viewing the pictures. Have some volunteer students to ask students some questions about the pictures.

For example,

1) What do you already know about the topic?
2) What ideas would you expect to hear?

Focus-listening
1. Prepare for listening. Encourage students to integrate strategies while listening.
2. First time, listen to the audiotape without a tapescript.

Post-listening
1. Immediately after listening, ask volunteer students of each group some questions. for example,
   1) What do you already know about the topic?
   2) What ideas would you expect to hear?
   3) What helped you understand?
   4) What problems did you have?
   5) Did pre-listening activities and strategies help you to understand the article?
   6) From this lesson, the task will become more difficult than previous lessons, how do you deal with it?
2. A cooperation strategy: Have students work in small groups of four and discuss the ideas, and share their notes.
3. Encourage students to use a questioning strategy in which students may ask questions or clarify unclear ideas with the teacher or with their group.
4. Replay the tape: This time, listen to a short segment, stop the tape and ask students think again.
5. Ask each group to discuss again, fill in the missing part of their notes, and exchange their notes with other groups to get ideas.
6. Distributing tapescript. (see Focus Sheet I.4-4) Ask students’ opinions. Students can practice with their group or an individual.
7. Return tapescript
8. Distribute Work Sheet I.4-5. Students work in pairs to answer multiple choice and open-ended questions.

1) Guessing game-
   a) Ask students to write one of activities on a stick card. Then put it on any classmate’s back.
   b) Students stand up to ask classmates to find the answer. For example, student A asks student B a question, “What kind of activity do I like?” Student B has to look at the stick card on Student A’s back and expresses the activity without saying the exact activity to Student A. Student A has to guess from student B’s explanation. If student A cannot find the answer, he/she keeps asking another student until he/she gets the correct answer.

2) Interview-
   a) Give students a chart about how to use always, often, sometimes, hardly, never to do things.
   b) How often do they do these things?
      Have students write down their answers first and interview two partners.

Responding to diversity with a range of activities

1. By developing imagery, questioning, cooperation and note-taking strategies, students can get feedback and comprehension.
2. Make sure that students respond during each step of the activities.
3. Allow students to use an English-English dictionary as a supplement. Ask students’ opinions, “Without a dictionary, can students take a guess?” Start to encourage students to make a guess or ignore vocabulary.

Assessment

1. The teacher will use a performance checklist to keep students’ records. (see Table 5.1)
2. From observation of activities.
3. Collect notes and Work Sheet I.4-5 for teacher’s evaluation.
4. Test: Listening to a song performed by Elton John and George Michael,
   Step 1. Encourage students to think some good words for the blanks first.
   Step 2. Then, listen to the song and fill in the blanks. (see I.4-7 Test Sheet)
5. Homework: Use a self-evaluation strategy. Students do listening exercises at home and evaluate their progress. (see I.4-8 Homework Sheet)
Lesson Plan Five
Let’ Go to a Movie-Inviting and Accepting Invitations

Objectives
1. Listen to audiotape of native English speakers
2. Build social functional knowledge about how to make and accept an invitation.
3. Learn to express opinions in a conversation
4. Strengthen their background knowledge
5. Explicit strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension
6. Become more actively involved in strategies to evaluate students’ current performance
7. Involve students in the learning process
8. Listening involves reading, speaking, and writing skills

Strategy
note-taking, self-management, imagery, self-questioning, questioning, planning, affective, translation, cooperation strategies

Vocabulary
meditation, pushy, delighted, terrific, Jurassic Park, dinosaur, science fiction, horror, take place, fantastic, incredible, terrible, comedy, excitement, realistic, compare, interpersonal, mood

Materials
1. Focus Sheet--I.5-1, I.5-2, and I.5-3 Pre-listening, I.5-4 Focus-listening
2. Work Sheet--I.5-5 Post-listening
3. Audiotape, cassette player, videotape, video camera, VCR, TV
4. I.5-6 Test Sheet
5. I.5-7 Evaluation Sheet

Teaching listening with variety
Pre-listening
1. Evoke students background, interests, and prior knowledge. Ask students questions as follows:
   1) How do you make an invitation?
   2) How do you respond when people ask you out?
   3) In your country, is it possible to invite a stranger out after you have just met?
   4) How do you give opinions about a movie that you’ve just seen?
2. Prior knowledge - reading an article about how people make an invitation and how do people accept an invitation. (see Focus Sheet I.5-1)

3. Explicit listening strategy training: Review note-taking and self-management strategies and provide two more strategies.
   1) Planning strategies help students to make a list to organize while listening.
   2) Affective strategies help students to manage their emotion and attitude. (see Focus Sheet I.5-2)

3. Imagery strategies from pictures - predict and guess (see Focus Sheet I.5-3)
   Using a self-questioning strategy: Encourage students to create questions themselves and make a plan after viewing the pictures.

**Focus-listening**
1. Use planning and affective strategies to prepare for listening.
2. First time, listen to the audiotape without a tapescript.

**Post-listening**
1. Immediately after listening, ask volunteer students questions, “What did you hear from the conversation?”
2. Replay the tape: This time, listen to a short segment, stop the tape and ask students think again.
3. Using a cooperation strategy: Students work in small groups of four to discuss the ideas. During the discussion, encourage students to use a questioning strategy in which students may ask questions or clarify unclear ideas with the teacher or with their group.
4. Each group fills in the missing part of their notes, summarizes the main idea and share their notes with other groups in order to get feedback.
5. Distributing tapescript; (see Focus Sheet I.5-4) have students choose either practice in small groups or individuals.
6. Return tapescript.
7. Distribute Work Sheet I.5-5, and have students work in small groups to answer open-ended questions and matching exercises.
8. Drawing and Guessing: One student of each group draws the picture and let students guess what kind of movie he/she draws.

**Responding to diversity with a range of activities**
1. By developing self-questioning, questioning, cooperation, planning, and note-taking strategies, students can get feedback and comprehension.
2. From affective strategies, students can manage their emotions and attitudes to listen effectively.
3. Since the task becomes more difficult than previous lessons, the teacher should be aware of students’ reaction. “Do students have difficulty in
English?” The teacher can use translation into Chinese and grammar strategies with which students are often familiar to help student’s understanding.

4. Make sure that students respond to each step of the activities. If students do not feel comfortable with activities, the teacher should stop or change activities immediately. Also the teacher can ask students what kind of activities will be good to use.

5. Allow students to use an English-English dictionary as a supplement, but encourage students to make a guess instead of depending on a dictionary.

Assessment

1. The teacher will use a performance checklist to keep students’ records. (see Table 5.1)
2. From observation of activities.
3. Collect notes and Work Sheet I.5-5.
4. Test: Look at the picture and encourage students to use a self-questioning strategy first. Then listen to two people’s conversation in the movie theater and write down the main idea. (see I.5-6 Test sheet)
5. Group presentation: Tourist Pamphlet. Distribute an evaluation sheet to each group (see I.5-7 Evaluation Sheet). Students and the teacher evaluate the project and presentation. Students can take a look at their presentations. Teacher will videorecord each group’s presentation.
6. Homework: During this weekend, listen to, record, and take notes Form ACRT (English spoken radio program in Taiwan) about the weather, traffic report, or anything that is about three minutes long.
Lesson Six
Making a Plan for the Next Time

Objectives
1. Listen to audiotape of native English speakers
2. Strengthen their background knowledge about how to make a plan, how to use an answering machine, and how to leave messages on an answering machine
3. Explicit strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension
4. Involve students in the learning process and group activities
5. Listening involves reading, speaking, and writing skills
6. Identify own learning style as a listener
7. Become more actively involved in strategies to evaluate students' current performance

Strategy
note-taking, self-management, imagery, self-evaluation, cooperation, self-questioning, questioning, planning, translation, affective strategies

Vocabulary
answering machine, message, convenient, pick up, voice mail, go out of one’s mind, hang up, get up the nerve, freeze, get tongue-tied, call-waiting, a rotary phone, operator, jazz chant, chap, rhythm, snap.

Materials
1. Focus Sheet--I.6-1, I.6-2, and I.6-3 Pre-listening, I.6-4 Focus-listening,
2. Work Sheet--I.6-5 and I.6-6 Post-listening
3. Audiotape, cassette player
4. I.6-7 Test Sheet
5. I.6-8 Self-evaluation Sheet

Teaching listening with variety
Pre-listening
1. Evoke students’ background, interests, and prior knowledge about language.
   Ask students questions as follows:
   1) How do you make a plan?
   2) Do you have an answering machine?
   3) How do you leave a message on an answering machine?
   4) How do you feel when you call a person that you have to speak to in English?
2. Prior knowledge - reading an article about how people leave a message on an answering machine and what is voice mail. (see Focus Sheet 1.6-1)
4. Have students work in pair to guess meanings of phrases. (see Focus Sheet 1.6-2)
5. Imagery strategies from pictures - predict and guess. (see Focus Sheet 1.6-3) Use a self-question strategy, and encourage students to ask themselves questions about what is going on in the pictures and make a list of their questions. The teacher will share some clues with students. For example, make a phone call.

Focus-listening
1. Preparing to listen: Encourage students to use strategies they have learned, such as affective strategies-deep breath and mediation.
2. First time, listen to the audiotape without a tapescript.

Post-listening
1. Immediately after listening, have students check their notes, and ask students
   1) Do self-questions match their notes?
   2) What did you already know after the first time?
2. Replay the tape: This time, listen to a short segment, stop the tape and ask students to fill in the missing parts of their notes.
3. Using a cooperation strategy: Have students discuss in small groups of four and encourage students to use a questioning strategy in which students may ask questions or clarify unclear ideas with the teacher or with their group.
4. Distributing tapescript (see Focus Sheet 1.6-4) to see if students can comprehend the whole concept. Students can work together or practice individuals.
5. Return tapescript
6. Recall and summarizing strategies: Have each group discuss again. This time, each group summarizes the main idea and exchanges their notes with other groups in order to feedback.
7. Distribute Work Sheet 1.6-5.
   a) Role-play: In a small group of four and switch the roles. The teacher will demonstrate with volunteer students once.
   b) Students answer open-ended questions and vocabulary matching exercises.
8. Distribute Work Sheet 1.6-6 about Jazz Chat “What are you going to do?” Students listen to the first presentation of the chant on the cassette. Have students repeat each line of the chant after the teacher.
Responding to diversity with a range of activities

1. By developing strategies, students can get feedback and increase comprehension.
2. Since the task becomes more difficult than previous lessons, the teacher should be aware of students' reaction. "Do students have difficulty in English?" The teacher can use translation into Chinese or grammar strategies with which students are often familiar to help student's understanding.
3. Make sure that students respond to each step of the activities. If students do not feel comfortable with activities, the teacher should stop or change activities immediately. Also the teacher can ask students what kind of activities will be good to use.
4. Allow students to use an English-English dictionary as a supplement, but encourage students to make guess about vocabulary.

Assessment

1. The teacher will use a performance checklist to keep students' records. (see Table 5.1)
2. From observation of activities.
3. Collect students' notes and Work Sheet I.6-5.
4. Test: Listen to five messages on Danny's answering machine and write down messages from whom and the purpose of message; then arrange Danny's plan. (see I.6-7 Test Sheet)
5. Distribute I.6-8 Self-evaluation Sheet: After six lessons, students evaluate themselves about their learning progress and strategies.
6. Homework: During this weekend, go to a movie, rent a video, or watch a program on cable TV (at least an hour) in English. Write a journal (one page, double space): Describe the story and express your opinions.
Focus Sheet I.1-1 Pre-Listening

Prior Knowledge about Culture (Reading)

In North America when people meet each other for the first time, they talk about things like family, work, school, or sports. They ask questions like “Do you have any brothers or sisters?”; “Where do you work?”; “What school do you go to?”; and “Do you like sports?” They also ask questions like, “Where do you come from?” and “Where do you live?” These are polite questions. They are not personal or private.

But some things are personal or private and questions about them are not polite. People don’t ask questions about a person’s salary. They don’t ask how much someone paid for something. It is OK to ask children how old they are, but it is not polite to ask older people their age. It is also not polite to ask people questions about politics or religion unless you know them very well. People don’t ask unmarried people “Why are you single?”, and they don’t ask a married couple with no children “Why don’t you have any children?”

(Richards, Hul, & Proctor, 1991, p. 22)
Focus Sheet I.1-2 Pre-Listening

Self-Management Strategy

1. Reduce anxiety.
2. Improve your concentration- learn to pay attention to a speaker.
3. Maintain a positive attitude.
4. Get used to listen audio tapes recorded by native English speakers.
5. Listen to stress: in spoken English, important words are usually stressed.
   This means that they are 1) higher 2) louder 3) spoken more clearly.
   For example: Good luck on the placement exam.
   The words luck and placement are stressed in the sentence.
6. Listen to reductions: in spoken English, words either stressed or reduced (shortened).
   For example, “Could you tell me where the library is?” changes to
   “Cudja tell me where library is?”
   This is called reductions but it is not acceptable in written English.
   “want to” → “wanna”
   “got to” → “gotta”
   “going to” → “gonna”
   “What’s your name?” → “Whatcher name?”
   (Tanka & Baker, 1996, p. 3-5)

Imagery Strategy

Make a guess and predict what happen in the pictures as follows.

(Fragiadakis, 1997, p. 1)
Focus Sheet I.1-3 Focus-Listening

Tapescript

A: What’s bothering you?
B: What do you mean? I’m fine.
A: No, you aren’t. Come on, tell me what’s going on.
B: Well… see that girl over there? Her name’s Nancy. I’ve been trying to find a way to meet her for months, and now, here she is. But I don’t have the courage to walk over there.
A: Come on, Bill, this is your chance. Just try it. What do you have to lose?
B: I don’t think she likes me.
A: Why do you say that?
B: Oh, let’s skip it, OK? I don’t know why I even told you.
A: How do you know her?
B: I saw her with Eric once, and someone told me she’s Eric’s sister.
A: Well, I still think you should go over there, and start a conversation.
B: Maybe later.
B: Never happen.
A: Why are you so negative all of a sudden? I’ve never seen you like this.
B: Maybe you are right. I should take the initiative and walk over there.
But what should I say?
A: Just introduce yourself and start talking about the party or mention that you’ve seen her on campus. She’ll probably recognize you, too.
B: Well, maybe. Oh… you’re right. If I miss this chance, I’ll never forgive myself. Well, here I go. Wish me luck!

(A few minutes later…)
B: Excuse me. I’ve been looking at you for the last few minutes, but don’t I know you from somewhere?
N: No, no, I don’t think so.
B: Really? Are you sure? This is driving me crazy because I never forget a face.
Wait a minute—are you Eric’s sister?
N: Yes, I’m, as a matter of fact.
B: My name is Bill. I’m Eric’s friend.
N: My name is Nancy. It’s nice to meet you.
B: Me too.

(Fragiadakis, 1997, p.1-2)
Work Sheet I.1-4 Post-Listening

Group:
Grade:

A. Circle the vocabulary of the word with the same meaning as the underlined word.

1. I don’t have the courage to do it. a) energy b) bravery c) power

2. Don’t put it off until tomorrow. a) try b) force to do c) delay

3. Let’s just skip it. a) forget b) do c) leave

4. You might hit it off. a) get along very well b) cancel c) remember

5. You are so negative about everything you’ve been doing. a) happy b) active c) not good

6. All of sudden, she understands what teacher said. a) slowly b) gradually c) unexpectedly

7. If you take the initiative, you would succeed. a) first step b) ending c) middle.

8. I can’t recognize her because she got a haircut. a) accept b) know c) see

B. Tell whether these sentences are true (T) or false (F). Write the reason you feel it is true or false.

1. Is it polite to ask, “How much money do you earn?” when you meet someone for the first time?

2. When you start out a conversation, you ask people polite questions about such topics as school, family, hobbies.

3. The focus-listening section is related to a formal conversation.
Look at the pictures: Two strangers are on their lunch hour in a park in New York City. How do they start a conversation? Now, listen to the audiotape and take notes.

(Dye & Frankfort, 1994, p.128)
I.1-6 Homework Sheet

Record a short conversation in each group and turn it in next time. Look at the picture. Imagine that you are at a friend’s birthday party with the rest of the class. You don’t know anyone except the host or hostess. Imagine you are the only one that speaks English as a second language. How do you start a conversation? Think of a greeting someone you have met before and someone you haven’t met before. Here are some useful ways of starting a conversation with people:

1. Nice day, isn’t it?
2. Excuse me, is anybody sitting here?
3. Hey, don’t I know you from somewhere?
4. Nice party, isn’t it?
5. Excuse me, could you help me, I’m looking for...
6. Hi, my name is...
7. Haven’t we met before?

(Tanka & Baker, 1996, p. 92)
Focus Sheet I.2-1 Pre-Listening

Prior Knowledge about Culture (Reading)

After making contact and having a short conversation with a stranger, you still want to continue the conversation. There are some situations that you should know. First of all, it's very important to keep expressing oneself and asking questions. The one who asks questions usually controls the conversation. Most people have to be very polite when they ask a stranger about something - if you are more direct, you may appear to be rude. Personal questions have to be expressed very politely. On the other hand, it's very important to let the speaker know that you are paying attention to what she/he is saying. In other words, a good listener should listen actively to show interest in what the speaker is saying. You can make eye contact, nod your head, or vary your facial expression. Sometimes, silence causes embarrassment. Therefore, you had better learn how to express yourself, offer polite questions, and fill the silence.
Focus Sheet 1.2-2 Pre-Listening

Note-Taking Strategy

1. Prepare to take notes: your notes need to be short and clear.
2. Note-taking helps you concentrate on listening. In addition, you can retain the information if you review your notes after class.
3. Listening to key words: When you take notes, it is not necessary to write every word. Listen to the most important ideas or focus on key words. Most key words are nouns, verbs, and adjectives. Before listening, you may make a list such as when, what, where, how, who, why.
4. Use abbreviations and symbols: shorten words and use symbols as much as possible. Meanwhile, you can develop or create your own system for them. These will save your time and allow you focus on the important ideas.

a) The list of symbols

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>is like, equal, means</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≠</td>
<td>is unlike, not the same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#</td>
<td>number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;</td>
<td>is smaller/less than</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;</td>
<td>is larger/more than</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ /&amp;</td>
<td>plus, in addition, and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$</td>
<td>money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>↑</td>
<td>increase, go up, rise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>↓</td>
<td>decrease, go down,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.</td>
<td>therefore, as a result, so</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>→</td>
<td>cause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{</td>
<td>include</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>@</td>
<td>each</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>~</td>
<td>approximately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?</td>
<td>question, unclear, doubt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b) The list of abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>w/</td>
<td>with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w/o</td>
<td>without</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>btwn</td>
<td>between</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g.</td>
<td>for example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>am</td>
<td>morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pm</td>
<td>afternoon, evening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i.e.</td>
<td>that is, in other words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yr.</td>
<td>year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re:</td>
<td>concerning, regarding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mo.</td>
<td>month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>etc.</td>
<td>and so on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wk.</td>
<td>week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vs.</td>
<td>versus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no.</td>
<td>number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ch.</td>
<td>chapter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pd.</td>
<td>paid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p./pp.</td>
<td>page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ft.</td>
<td>foot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lb.</td>
<td>pound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hr.</td>
<td>hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pro</td>
<td>professional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>com</td>
<td>communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lang</td>
<td>language</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Beglar & Murray, 1993, p. 46)
Focus Sheet 1.2-3 Pre-Listening

Imagery Strategy

After a small talk, two people start talking more at the party. Make a guess what they are going to talk about in the pictures below.
Focus Sheet 1.2-4 Focus-Listening

Tapescript

B: So, tell me a little about yourself.
N: Gee... uh... I don’t know where to begin. What do you want to know?
B: Well... Are you originally from around here?
N: Yes, I was born right here in Taipei and lived here until I finished college.
Mm... Then I studied in the U.S. for several years and came back here just a year ago. How about you?
B: Me?
N: Yes. Where are you from?
B: I’m from New York. I was born there and grew up there and went to school there. I work here after I graduated from college. Oh... You said that you studied in the U.S. Where did you stay?
N: Oh... Actually, I stayed in several places before I was a graduate student. Like Seattle, San Diego, and Palm Spring.
B: Oh... I have a sister. She lives in San Diego.
N: Really. So, have you been there?
B: Sure. It’s a wonderful place, isn’t it?
N: Yeah... Do you have other brothers or sisters?
B: No. I only have a sister. That’s it. How about you?
N: Uh... I have a brother and two sisters. They all live in Taipei, too.
B: By the way, what do you do?
N: I’m a teacher. And you?
B: I’m an engineer.
N: A engineer? That’s interesting.

(Molinsky & Bliss, 1987, p.15)
A. Tell why these sentences are True (T) or False (F).

1. As an active listener, you should make eye contact, nod your head, or vary your facial expression.

2. When you start up a conversation, you just keep silent.

B. Image you’re talking to someone you’ve just met at a party. Create a conversation.

A: So, tell me a little about yourself.

B: __________________________

A: Well… Are you originally from around here?

B: __________________________

A: Me?

B: __________________________

A: I am from New York. I was born there and grew up there and went to school. I got a job here after I graduated from college. Oh, how about your family?

B: __________________________

A: Nice to meet you

B: __________________________
I.2-6 Test Sheet

Name:
Grade:
Look at the pictures. Now, listen to the audiotape and number the pictures in order. Write the main ideas about the story.

(Jones & Baeyer, 1983, p. 80.)
I.2-7 Homework Sheet

Name:
Grade:

Self-Evaluation Strategy

To learn effectively it is important to set objectives and formulate strategies for your learning. Please answer the following questions as honestly and thoroughly as possible. Your answers will help you and a teacher understand what you need as a student.

1. Please write the topics that you are most interested in discussing and or learning about in class. For example, traveling to the U. S..

2. Rank the following according to which you need to improve the most. In the space under each area, please write what it is that you want to work on. For example, under listening you might write “I want to be able to better understand movies and TV programs.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>listening</th>
<th>speaking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>reading</td>
<td>writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grammar</td>
<td>vocabulary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Complete the following questions.

I am studying English because

In this class, my favorite activities are

Strategy training helps me

My listening comprehension

(Sharkey, 1994, p. 19)
Focus Sheet I.3-1 Pre-Listening

Prior Knowledge about Culture (Reading)

During the conversation, you may talk about your hometown. How do you introduce your hometown to a stranger? In addition, some people like to live in the city. Some people like to live in the country. You may ask their opinion about the disadvantages and advantages of living in the country or in the city.

Here is a list which gives you some ideas about the place you like or dislike to live.

Use “it is” and “there is/are”:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>There’s always something to do.</th>
<th>There’s nothing to do</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There are a lot of great restaurants.</td>
<td>There aren’t many good restaurants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are excellent museums.</td>
<td>There aren’t any museums.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are a lot of trees and flowers.</td>
<td>There aren’t many trees and flowers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are open spaces/ friendly people/ helpful neighbors/shops/theaters...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is no traffic/ fresh air/ fresh food/ no public transport/ not enough/entertainment/...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>It is</th>
<th>healthy/ quiet/ peaceful/clean/ exciting/ safe/cheap/...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>boring/expensive/dangerous/noisy/dirty/...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Focus Sheet 1.3-2 Pre-Listening

Note-Taking Strategy


2. Listen for repeated terms, or ideas. In a conversation, a speaker usually uses repetition to emphasize important points.

3. When you listen to people talk, you may not understand all the words. However you can use the words you know.

4. Do not stop listening when you don’t understand. Jump to the next part.

5. Indentation: Indent to show the relationship between main ideas and specific details. Write main headings or topics next to the left margin. Indent (begin writing a few spaces to the right) as information becomes more specific, most of time your notes will have three or four levels of indentation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOTEBOOK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English and Chinese are different languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. diff. (use abbreviation) Chinese words : Character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no verb tense, no SV agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>word order not important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Developing your own note-taking style and regulation will assist your learning.

(Tanka & Baker, 1996, p. 8)
Focus Sheet 1.3-3 Pre-Listening

Imagery Strategy

Look at the pictures. Make a guess and predict what they are going to talk about.

(Chou, 1996, p. 22-23 & 59)
Focus Sheet 1.3-4 Focus-Listening

Transcript

B: So, tell me about your hometown- Taipei.
N: There’s so much to do in Taipei. Taipei is truly a city of many faces, where ancient and modern co-exist. For those who know where to look, the city is alive with beauty and culture.
B: You’re telling me that there are plenty of places to go in Taipei. I’m just sick of staying at home after work or during the weekend. Can you tell me where I can go?
N: Mm... Let’s see. How about the National Palace Museum? This is the world’s largest collection of priceless Chinese treasures. The building resembles the imperial palaces of the Ching dynasty, and the collection has more than 620,000 items. Or you could go to the Chiang Kai-Shek Memorial Hall. The beautiful park surrounds it. Or you can visit the Lungshan Temple. It’s the oldest temple in Taipei. By the way, you could visit the night market near the temple. At night, you still can go shopping, go to bars, and see movies. There’s too much to do and to see in Taipei. I just love living here. How about your hometown-New York?

(Lui, 1995, p. 238)

B: New York? Uh... There are several very well known museums in New York. For example, the Metropolitan Museum of Art, and the Museum of Modern Art. They’re all excellent and their exhibits change regularly. There’s Central Park in New York. You can spend all day long around there. And what else... Oh, I almost forget about Statue of Liberty... Gee, I can’t remember anything else. The only thing I remember is traffic. Actually, I prefer to live in the countryside.
N: Why?
B: Because I love the wide open spaces and the quiet. And it’s generally healthier, I feel. I think one of the major advantages of living in the countryside is that people know all their neighbors. And they’re all very helpful and friendly to one another. Another advantage of living in the countryside is the fresh food. As well as meat, they have chicken so they have fresh eggs...
N: But... Don’t you think there’s always something to do and it’s never boring to live in the city?
B: The countryside isn’t boring, either. You can do all kinds of things.
N: I guess.
Cooperation Strategy

Work in small groups of four and answer questions.

1. Which places did she talk about in Taipei?

2. Can you tell she liked Taipei? Why?

3. Which places did he mention in New York?

4. Did he like New York City? How do you know?

5. According to the dialogue, what are the advantages and disadvantages of living in the countryside?

6. What do you think about living in the city?

7. What do you like or dislike about your hometown?
I.3-6 Test Sheet

Name:
Grade:
Look at the pictures first. Then listen to each dialogue. Write down why they like or dislike the cities below.

1. Sydney, Australia
2. São Paulo, Brazil
3. Tokyo, Japan
4. Toronto, Canada
5. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia
6. Mexico City, Mexico

(Helgesen & Brown, 1994, p.13)
Make a tourist pamphlet.

1. Work in small groups of four.

2. Handout:
   - I.3-8 Project Planning
   - I.3-9 Writing Project
   - I.3-10 Project Skills
   - I.3-11 Tourist Pamphlet-New York City

3. The purpose of the project is to get to know the geography of Taiwan and other countries.

4. Each group selects a city or place in Taiwan or in other countries that you introduce.

5. Tourist pamphlets should be turned in after two class sessions.

6. Each group presents their tourist pamphlet in class for about ten minutes.

7. Students presentation of their tourist pamphlet will be videorecorded by the teacher.

8. If students have any questions, they can ask for help from the teacher.
1.3-8 Project Planning

Look at the example and answer the questions.

Example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project Planning Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Project Name:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Date:</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Who will read my writing? *my writing class and my teacher.*
(For example, my writing class; students in my school; a pen pal who is a stranger in a foreign country; an employment officer in a company; foreigners visiting my city; my boyfriend or girlfriend)

What is the purpose of this writing? *To tell about a person.*
(For example, to teach about local tourist sites; to introduce myself to a pen pal; to get a job)

What special vocabulary will I need? *Words for describing personality and how people look.*
(For example, technical words; job titles; descriptive expressions)

Is this writing formal or informal? *This is formal writing.*

What kinds of pre-writing or information-gathering activities would help me?
(For example, interviewing and taking notes; reading and taking notes; listing ideas; a Quick Write to explore my ideas; idea bubbles)

*Interviewing, taking notes, listing ideas*

---

Project Planning Form

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project Name:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Date:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Who will read my writing? 

What is the purpose of this writing? 

What special vocabulary will I need? 

Is this writing formal or informal? 

What kinds of pre-writing or information-gathering activities would help me?

---

(Copy this form on your own paper.)

(Olsher, 1995, p. 74)
I.3-9 Writing Project

Follow the steps below to write a tourist pamphlet. Check (√) each step as you complete it.

1. Read the tourist pamphlet in the Writing Samples section on page 89.
2. Look at the form for a tourist pamphlet below.

- tells something about the place
- title
- introduction
- tells some important features of the place
- body
- explains the interesting features (sites, history, location, festivals, etc.)
- closing
- gives advice for visitors, such as when to visit or what to do

3. Practice the tourist pamphlet project skills exercises on the next page.
4. Pick a tourist site (such as a church or temple, museum, shopping area, nature area, or amusement park) or a city you want to write about.
5. Gather information and take notes. You can look in books and magazines, and you can also visit places, take pictures, and interview people. Look for maps and illustrations, too.
6. Write a draft of your pamphlet. Follow the form for a tourist pamphlet above.
7. Show your draft to your teacher for comments and suggestions.
8. Read your draft and comments. Make revision markings and rewrite your pamphlet text.
9. Finally, design the layout for your pamphlet. Include a map, drawing, or photograph if possible.
10. Complete the Project Log on page

(Ol sher, 1995, p. 77)
1.3-10 Project Skills

Tourist Pamphlet

► Writing Tip: Use verb tense to fit your purpose.

Use past tense verbs for writing about history. Use present tense verbs for describing places and writing about things that happen regularly.

Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>History</th>
<th>Description and Regular Events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The attractions of the Performing Arts Center were enhanced in 1983 with the opening of the Ballet Building.</td>
<td>Located at 455 Franklin Street, this facility is the home of the celebrated San Francisco Ballet Company. Tours of the Performing Arts Center are offered every Monday from 10 a.m. to 2:30 p.m.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exercise

Read part of a tourist pamphlet below and correct any verb tense errors.

Built in 1906 in San Francisco, the Cannery was once a Del Monte peach cannery. These historic buildings are renovated in the late 1960s, with three levels of walkways, balconies, and bridges around a beautiful courtyard. Here you can relax under 100-year-old olive trees and have a snack or an elegant meal while being entertained by street performers. Live entertainment was featured daily and the Cannery offers one of the finest comedy clubs in the city. Just one-half block from the Hyde Street cablecar turnaround, the Cannery was located at the corner of Leavenworth and Beach.

► Project Tip: Research—where to find the information you need.

Exercise

Read the list of places to get information. Circle three places you want to call or visit. Then circle any ways to get information you want to use.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Places to Call or Visit</th>
<th>Ways to Get Information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>travel agency</td>
<td>get free pamphlets, guides, or programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tour bus company</td>
<td>buy or borrow guide books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>government tourist office</td>
<td>interview visitors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>embassy</td>
<td>interview workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>library</td>
<td>look around and take pictures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bookstore</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>souvenir shop</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>information desk</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(of a store, museum, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Olsher, 1995, p. 78)
New York is the largest city in the United States. More than seven million people live there. New York has very tall buildings like the World Trade Center and the Empire State Building. It is the biggest port in the world. Thousands of ships come to the port of New York each year. It has Macy's, one of the biggest stores in the world. New York also has the largest lady in the world—the Statue of Liberty.

New York is a very cosmopolitan city. People from many countries came to live in New York. Three-quarters, or 75 percent, of the people in New York City come from five groups. The groups are: blacks, Jews, Italians, Puerto Ricans, and Irish. The other quarter, or 25 percent, comes from all over the world.

New York City is the center for culture in the United States. It has the finest museums and best art galleries in the country. If you want to see a play, there are many theaters you can go to on Broadway. The street called Broadway is the center for theater in the United States.

People call New York City the “Big Apple.” Jazz musicians in the 1920s gave New York this name. When a musician says he is going to the Big Apple, it means he is the best. Today, New York is still the U.S. center for art and business.

(Broukal & Murphy, 1993, p. 61)
Focus Sheet I.4-1 Pre-Listening

Prior Knowledge About Free Time Activities (Reading)

Free time activities can include hobbies, sports, and games. They are enjoyable activities you usually do in your spare time.

When people talk about activities they enjoy, they often describe the pleasure and positive feelings they get from activities. They also give reasons for the way they feel, and often offer additional information to support these reasons.

Look at words such as fun, relaxing, exciting, healthy, social. They describe positive feelings. They can be used to talk about leisure activities.

Look at the list of words below. They are some free time activities.

1. collecting stamps 11. playing the piano 21. travel
2. gardening 12. going to a movie 22. eating
3. cooking 13. shopping 23. swimming
4. reading 14. photography 24. others
5. collecting baseball cards 15. traveling
6. playing in a band 16. study
7. listening to music 17. watching TV
8. playing computer games 18. playing basketball
9. hiking 19. painting
10. sleeping 20. singing

(Hynes & Baichman, 1989, p. 61-62)
Focus Sheet 1.4-2 Pre-Listening

Strategies Review

   - Improve your concentration on speakers.
   - Maintain a positive attitude.

2. Note-taking: Listen to the main idea and key words.
   - Use abbreviations and symbols.
   - Create your own notes system to help you retain information.
   - Listen for repeated terms, or ideas.
   - Indentation.

Listen to signal words and phrases

Signal words and phrases will help you listen for ideas. For example, if a speaker says, “there are three major factors ...” The word ‘three’ is a signal word; then you write numbers in your notes, skip lines between, and listen for three factors. If you only recognized two factors and miss one, you need to ask for help for a teacher or peers.

Here is a list of signal words and phrases. As you hear these, you need to pay attention. The following sentence which may be the important part.

1. To indicate that another point or example follows:
   - also, furthermore, another, in addition, moreover.
2. To add emphasis:
   - most important, above all, of primary concern, most significant, the main point.
3. To indicate that an example follows:
   - for example, such as, for instance, specifically.
4. To indication that a conclusion follows:
   - therefore, in conclusion, finally, to conclude, so.
5. To indicate an exception to a stated fact:
   - however, although, but, though, except.
6. To indicate cause or effects:
   - because, due to, since, reason, result, for, cause, effect.
7. To indicate that categories will be named:
   - types, parts, kinds, characteristics.
8. To indicate a sequence:
   - steps, numbers (1,2,3...), stages, first, second, etc.
9. To indicate that items are being compared:
   - similar, different, equally, like, in contrast, on the other hand, advantages, disadvantage, contrary to.
Focus Sheet 1.4-3 Pre-Listening

Imagery Strategy
After the conversation, two strangers are getting to know each other. They change topics into... Look at the pictures, can you guess what they are talking about?

(Carver & Fotinos, 1994, p.172)
Focus Sheet 1.4-4 Focus-Listening

Tapescript

B: So, what kind of free time activities do you usually do?
N: Mm... I don’t know. How about you?
B: I like to play soccer. Do you like play any sport?
N: No, I’m not really interested in sports, but sometimes I watch NBA or Tennis games. Actually, I like music.
B: Really, me too. What kind of music do you like?
N: Most kinds. Rock, Rap, Jazz, Blue...
B: Me too.
N: But I prefer classical music.
B: Oh, that’s the only one of music I don’t like. It puts me to sleep.
N: That’s too bad. Sometimes, I go to a concert.
B: How often do you go?
N: Uh... Maybe once or twice a month. I’m not sure. It depends... So, what kind of music do you like best?
B: I’m not sure. But I think that I’m interested in Rap music recently.
N: Why?
B: Because I just read a article about Rap... (Rap is playing)
N: What’s about?
B: Uh... It described that Rap is a vocal style that combines jazz and blues rhythms and styles with funk rock, the lyrics feature complex rhythm and rhyming techniques. The music had its beginnings in the street culture of New York City in the late 1970s. The songs reflect the realities of inner-city life: discrimination, violence, and gang life. Some music critics and historians consider rap musicians to be descendants of the African storytellers, whose stories reflected people’s history and traditions. The predominant musical instruments are voice, percussion, synthesizer, and prerecorded sounds.
N: Wow... Are you an expert? You’re really enjoying it, isn’t it?
B: Yeah, I listen to rap very often but just interested I’m not a expert. How about movies? Do you like to go a movie?
N: I love it. I spend a lot of time on movies.
B: Me too. Well, we have the same interests, haven’t we?
N: Yeah...

(Wholey & Ritter, 1995, p. 3)
Cooperation Strategy

A. Read the paragraph and answer multiple choice as follows.

Rap music derives from _____ musical traditions of the _____.
   a. Indian                      a. country music
   b. African-American           b. folk song
   c. European                   c. jazz and blue

Originating in the late _____ in _____, it began as the creation of young
   a. 1970s                      a. L. A.
   b. 1960s                      b. Boston
   c. 1980s                      c. New York city

_____ men who called themselves masters of ceremonies. Today, rap
   a. Indian
   b. African-American
   c. European

music is evolving as it reaches a more mainstream audience. The songs reflect
the realities of inner-city life: ________ and gang life. The predominant
   a. discrimination and violence
   b. minority and peace
   c. war

musical instruments are voice, percussion, synthesizer, and prerecorded sounds.

B. Work in pairs and answer questions.

1. What are Bill’s interests?

2. What are Nancy’s interests?

3. What is “Rap”?

4. What are your free time activities?
Cooperation Strategy

A. Guessing game:
1. Write one free time activity you like on the stick card. Stick it on anyone’s back. You make sure the person stuck on his/her back that couldn’t see it.
2. Students stand up to ask others to find the activity which is stuck on their back.
3. For example, student A asks student B a question, “What kind of activity do I like?” Student B has to look at the stick card on Student A’s back and express the activity without saying the exact activity to Student A. Student A has to guess. If student A can’t answer, he/she has to find another student until he/she gets the correct answer.

B. Interview:
These words tell how often people do things.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Always</th>
<th>sometimes</th>
<th>never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Write down your answer first. How often do you do these things? And interview two partners.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How often do you...</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>Partner 1</th>
<th>Partner 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>read magazines?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>play a sport?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>study English?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>listen to music?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>watch TV?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>go to a restaurant?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I.4-7 Test Sheet

Name:
Grade:
Dictation: Song - ‘Don’t Let the Sun Go Down on Me’ by Elton John & George Michael.
Step 1. Try to find some words for the blanks.
Step 2. Then we will listen to the song.

I can’t light no more of your___________________________.
All my _______ seem to fade to ____________________
I’m going ___________________stands still before me.
____________________here on the ladder of my life.
Too late to __________myself ___________falling
I took a ______________and changed your way of life
But I ____________my ___________when I met you
Closed the door and left me ______________the light.
Don’t let the sun go down on me
_____________ I search myself, it’s always someone else I see
I’d just allow a fragment of your life to _______________
But ___________________ is like the sun going down on me.
I can’t find oh, the right romantic line
But see me once and see the way I feel
Don’t __________me just __________you think I mean you
But these cuts I have, ho they need love to help them

Step 3. After listening, summarize the song.
I.4-8 Homework Sheet

Self-Evaluation Strategy

Name: 
Grade: 

Step 1. Exercise.
The purpose of this exercise is for you to discover how good you are at listening for information. You can do this at home.
What you have to do is listen to a song in English and see how much you can understand. Later read the lyric and check how well you did. You could then play it again, if you didn’t understand well. However, even if you use the audiotape, when you first listen to the song, do it without pausing. This will let you see how good you are at once only listening.
Before you do this exercise, try your best to use some strategies which you’ve already learned from the class. Those might help you do better.

Step 2. Self-evaluation.
How do you think your score? excellent, good, fair, or bad.

Are you satisfied with your self-assessment? How good do you want to be? Why?

If you have made over 50% of mistakes, what’s your weakness?

What strategies did you use in listening? Were they useful? Why?

Will you use these strategies again? Why?
Focus Sheet 1.5-1 Pre-Listening

Prior Knowledge about Making and Accepting an Invitation (Reading)

In English, people generally do not immediately make an invitation at the beginning of their conversation. When first greeting someone, they usually use some of the small-talk topics to lead into a conversation; after talking a while, they then appropriately make the invitation. Even if you know the other person well, it is considered polite to talk a few minutes before making an invitation. Making an invitation too quickly might seem forward or pushy.

You can invite someone by saying:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal/Informal</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Would you like to... (formal/informal)</td>
<td>come to our house for dinner?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you want to... (informal)</td>
<td>go to the theater with me?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How about ... (informal)</td>
<td>go out to dinner?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>going shopping?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>going to the library with me?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>go to a movie with me?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>getting a cup of coffee?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You can accept an invitation by saying:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I’d be delighted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thank you (very much) for asking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’d like that very much.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That would be very nice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Yes) I’d love to.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sure, that sounds great/like fun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thanks (a lot) for asking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(formal)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(informal)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Focus Sheet 1.5-2 Pre-Listening

Planning Strategy
Before you listen to the audiotape, you have to prepare yourself to be ready to listen. You need to plan what you are going to learn from listening. Here is a list of listening preparations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Where is this happening?</td>
<td>How did you decide?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interpersonal relationship</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is the relationship between the speakers?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How did you decide?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mood</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is the mood?</td>
<td>How did you decide?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What are they talking about?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How did you decide?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Affective Strategy
When you listen to information, sometimes you feel frustrated and want to give up because you cannot understand some part of information.
Remember, it is very difficult to learn to listen to a foreign language, but if you can regulate your learning and make a plan, sooner or later you will increase your listening skill.
Affective strategies can help you to manage your emotions and attitudes.

Affective strategies include:
1. Lower your anxiety— you can try several ways to reduce your anxiety, such as using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, music, or meditation.
2. Encourage yourself—you can encourage yourself to take risks and to reward yourself. Remember, don’t be afraid to make mistakes.
3. Take your emotional temperature—you can use a checklist, listen to your body, and discuss your feeling with someone else.

(Mendelsohn, 1994, p. 94)
Focus Sheet I.5-3 Pre-listening

Imagery strategy
Look at the pictures. Can you predict what they are talking about?

(Fragiadakis, 1997, p.135)
Focus Sheet I.5-4 Focus-Listening
Tapescript

(At the party...)
A: I’ve enjoyed talking to you. Maybe we could get together sometime?
B: Yeah, sure.
A: Uh, are you going to be busy tomorrow night?
B: No. Why?
A: Um, I was thinking of going to a movie tomorrow night? Would you like to come?
B: Hey, that sounds like a great idea! So, what could we see?
A: How about Jurassic Park? I just heard it’s a great film. If you don’t mind...
B: Great, I like it, too.
A: I think that’s playing over at ...
B: AH...
A: ...On Main Street there. Well I guess, we should meet about 7 pm then, ‘cause I think the movie starts about 7:30 pm. Uh, where would be a good place to meet?
B: There’s...uh...there’s a clock tower near movie theater. We could meet there at about 7 pm. How about that?
A: OK. See you tomorrow, then.
B: I’ll see you then. Goodbye.

(After they saw a movie...)
B: What did you think of the movie?
A: It was fantastic! It’s one of the best films I’ve ever seen. The special effects were incredible. I wouldn’t believe how real the dinosaurs looked. It’s what these special effects people are able to do.
B: You did? I thought is was a little bit terrible. Didn’t you think there was too much violence.
A: I didn’t think so. I know a lot of people have been saying that it’s too violent and too realistic and will scare children, but I disagree. Did you remember there were a bunch of kids with their parents in the row in front of us. I could tell that kids in the audience just loved the film.
B: Uh... But I still think that kids shouldn’t see it.
A: Why?
B: As I said it’s too much violence. Parents shouldn’t bring their kids to see it.
A: To be honest with you, comparing to a lot of violent stuff on TV, there’s nothing in the film.
B: Yeah, probably, you’re right. Anyway, I had a good time tonight.
A: Me too.
B: I’m glad you invited me. Oh...it’s 11 pm. I got to go home now. Bye.
A: Bye!
Work Sheet I.5-5 Post-Listening

Group:
Grade:

Cooperation Strategy

A. Work in pairs to answer open-ended questions.
Two friends go to the same school. One friend is inviting the other to go to the baseball game on Saturday afternoon.

A: Do you want to go to the baseball game on Sunday afternoon?
B: 

A: How about in front of the Cafeteria.
B: 

A: The game starts at 2 pm. I think we could meet at 1:30.
B: 

A: OK, see you, then.
B: 

B. Match each movie with a description. Write the number next to the description.

1. Western a. □ a movie about events that take place in the future or in other arts of the universe.
2. Science fiction b. □ a movie that has a lot of singing and dancing.
3. Horror movie c. □ a movie about life in the West of the U. S. in the nineteenth century.
4. Action movie d. □ a movie that tries to frighten the audience
5. Musical e. □ a movie that tries to make people laugh
6. Comedy f. □ a movie with a fast-moving story that is full of danger and excitement

(Richards, 1996, p.32)
Name:
Grade:
Think about the pictures below. Then listen to the tape and write down the story about two people in the movie theater.

(Carver & Fotinos, 1994, p.172)
I.5-7 Evaluation Sheet

Group Project and Presentation
Each group should evaluate and analyze other groups’ project and oral presentation. The score scale is as follows:
5= excellent, 4=good, 3=fair, 2=poor, 1=need a lot of improvement

**Oral Presentation Evaluation Form**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group:</th>
<th>Date:</th>
<th>Topic:</th>
<th>Evaluator:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volume</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gesture</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eye contact</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Introduction, body, conclusion)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Best part of presentation:

**Group Project Evaluation Form**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group:</th>
<th>Date:</th>
<th>Topic:</th>
<th>Evaluator:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Introduction, body, and conclusion)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual aids</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Pictures, design, and so on)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Best part of project:
Focus Sheet I.6-1 Pre-Listening

Prior Knowledge about an Answering Machine (Reading)

In the U.S., people usually have answering machines. When people are not at home, their friends can leave their messages on answering machines. Also, it’s convenient when you don’t want to pick up messages which are from salesmen. So you need to leave a message.

You will hear from an answering machine:

Hi! This is Mark (or you reach the number is 777-9900), I’m not in right now. Please leave a message, I’ll call you back (or I’ll get back to you) as soon as I can.

People usually leave a message like:

Hi, Mark. This is Amy. I’m sorry I missed your call earlier. Call me back. I’ll be at home all night.

But, when you want to call some places, there is only voice mail. Some people get very upset with this because you keep pressing numbers and may have trouble finding a real person to talk to. Have you ever called a place that uses voice mail in English? Let’s read this voice mail now.

“Thank you for calling GTE. If you are calling from touch-tone phone and would like information about your phone bill, press 1 now. If you would like to change your service or arrange new telephone service, press 2 now. If you would like information about our telephone store, press 3. If you have a rotary phone, please stay on the line and an operator will help you shortly.”

(Fragiadakis, 1993, p. 31)
Focus sheet I.6-2 Pre-Listening

Imagery Strategy - Guess

A. Work in pairs. From the content, make a guess of each vocabulary.

1. To go out of my mind = To go crazy
   A: You’re going out of your mind. Why are you driving so fast in this traffic?
   B: They’re out of their minds. How can they ride their bikes at night without lights?

2. To hang up =
   A: I’m sorry. I need to hang up right now because someone’s at my door.
   B: OK. I’ll talk to you at school.

3. To stand still =
   A: Uh-oh, you’d better stand still. There’s a bee on your shirt.
   B: Oh no! Get it off!

4. To get up the nerve =
   A: I want to ask her to marry me, but I can’t get up the nerve to ask.
   B: Are you afraid that she’ll say no?

5. To freeze =
   A: When I got to the front of the class to make my speech, I froze and forgot everything I was going to say.
   B: Then what happened?
   A: My teacher reminded me to use my notes.

6. To get tongue-tied =
   A: I always get tongue-tied when I talk to people who have power.
   B: What do you mean?
   A: Oh, you know, people like teachers and bosses. They make me so nervous that I can’t talk.

7. Good for you =
   A: I got an A on my test! I got the job!
   B: Good for you.

(Fragiadakis, 1993, p.24-28)
Focus Sheet I.6-3 Pre-Listening

Imagery Strategy
Now, look at the pictures and predict what they are talking about.

(Fragiadakis, 1993, p.23)
Focus Sheet I.6-4 Focus-Listening

Tapescript

(A few days later, Bill decided to make a call to Nancy.)

Telephone (recording): This is 888-04389. Please leave a message after you hear beeps.

B: Oh, my God. I can’t do it... Everyone has an answering machine these days. It’s really a pain. I’m going to go out of my mind. I’m going to hang up... but I have to leave a message. I know, I'll write it down so I can call back and read it... where’s pencil?... OK... I’ll say, “Hi, this is Bill. I'm calling about a concert. Do you want to go to a concert this weekend? Please call me back at 889-4358. I'm usually at home in the evening. Thank you.” OK... Where’s that number?

C: Bill, what’s going on? You look so nervous. Can you stand still for a minute?

B: No, I can’t. I’m trying to get up the nerve to leave a message on someone’s answering machine.

C: You’re afraid of answering machines?

B: Uh-huh. I freeze and get tongue-tied, and I don’t really know why. I just don’t like talking into a machine.

C: Want me to do it for you?

B: Thanks. But I think I should do this on my own. I wrote down what I want to say and I was just about ready to call and leave a message when you walked in.

C: Good for you. Do you want me to leave while you make your call?

B: Yeah. Please...

(Phone rings: pickup)

N: Hello?

B: May I speak to Nancy?

N: Speaking. Who’s it?

B: This is Bill. I just called you a few minutes ago, but you were not in.

N: Oh, I just got home. How are you doing?

B: Fine. Mm... I was wondering do you have any plan to do during this weekend, because I got two tickets of a concert on Friday night?

N: Uh... Friday night? Let me check my schedule... I remember I’m supposed to visit my sister... No, no, we’ve just changed the time. Are you inviting me?

B: Yes. Would you like to go with me?

N: Sure, I accept it. So where are we going to meet?

B: We can meet in front of the National Theater Hall at 7 pm. Or do you need a ride? I can pick you up.

N: No. Thanks, anyway... (A call-waiting) Oh... sorry. I’ve got another call. I will meet you there. OK?

B: Deal. Bye then.

N: Bye.. (hang up)  

(Fragiadakis, 1993, p.23-26)
Work Sheet 1.6-5 Post-Listening

Cooperation Strategy

Group: 
Grade: 

A. Role Play: In a small group of three, practice the conversation. Then switch the roles.

B. Work in a small group of four, and answer questions.

1. When Bill called Nancy at the first time, what happened?

2. At the second time, when Bill called Nancy, what happened?

3. What is their plan to do on Friday night?

C. Find the answer on the right side which match the meaning of phrases.

1. to go out of my mind a. not move
2. to freeze b. become so nervous that you can’t talk
3. to get up the nerve c. that’s great
4. to hang up d. get so scared that one can’t move
5. to stand still e. to go crazy
6. to get tongue-tied f. get the courage to do something
7. good for you g. put a telephone down to turn off a phone

(Fragiadakis, 1993, p. 23-26)
Work Sheet 1.6-6 Post-Listening

“Small Talk”-Jazz Chant

Students listen to the first presentation of the chant on the cassette. Students repeat each line of the chant after the teacher. It’s important to establish a clear, strong beat by counting, clapping, using rhythm sticks, or snapping fingers.

Step 1. Let’s listen...

What are you going to do?

What are you going to do when you finish this course?
  I’m not quite sure.
  What are you going to do?
  I’m not quite sure.
  I haven’t decided.

What’s are your plan?
Are you going to stay here?
  I’m not quite sure.
  Are you going to stay?
  It all depends.
  I’m not quite sure.
  Are you going to get a job?
  It all depends.
  Are you going to buy a car?
  It all depends.
  Are you going to take a trip?
  It all depends.
  I’m not quite sure.
  I’m not quite sure.

Step 2. Students repeat after the teacher.
Step 3. Students are divided into two groups, each taking a role in the dialogue of the chant. Each group repeats their line after the teacher. Then, two groups switch the roles.
Step 4. Students do the chant by themselves without the teacher’s model.

(Graham, 1985, p. 76)
I.6-7 Test Sheet

Name:  
Grade:  

A. listen to five massages on Danny’s answering machine and answer questions as follows.

1. Message from:  
The purpose:  

2. Message from:  
The purpose:  

3. Message from:  
The purpose:  

4. Message from:  
The purpose:  

5. Message from:  
The purpose:  

B: After the above information, please help Danny to arrange his plan.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Today</th>
<th>5:00- 6:00pm</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6:00- 7:00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7:00- 8:00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9:00-11:00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>movie with David</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tomorrow</th>
<th>7:00- 8:00am</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8:00- 9:00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9:00-10:00</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>10:00-11:00</td>
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<td></td>
<td>pm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Thrush, Baldwin, & Blass, 1993, p. 44)
I.6-8 Self-Evaluation Sheet

Name:

Can you believe it? The class of this semester is half over! In order to be aware of your progress for the second half of the term, please fill in the form. Do not hesitate to ask the teacher if you have questions about this form.

Rate your understanding of listening comprehension that we have studies in the past six lessons. Use this scale:

1= don’t understand, very unclear.
2= can recognize it but sometimes I still have difficulty.
3= have full understand, can recognize and use easily.

From Lesson 1, I knew how to start a conversation and all exercises in this lesson.

From Lesson 2, I knew how to be a active listener.

From Lesson 3, I knew the geography knowledge of Taipei and New York. And also I learned to make a project.

From Lesson 4, I knew how to interact in a conversation.

From Lesson 5, I knew how to make an invitation.

From Lesson 6, I knew how to make a plan and leave a message on a answering machine.

From the lessons, I knew all the strategies that I’ve learned in the class.

Please honestly ask yourself about the following questions.

How do you know your evaluation is accurate?

What will you improve your listening comprehension?

What are your goals for the nest six weeks?

How will you achieve them?
APPENDIX B

UNIT TWO:

RESOLVING MISUNDERSTANDING
UNIT TWO: RESOLVING MISUNDERSTANDING

Overview

Lesson 1: I Missed the appointment! Making an Apology and Forgiving.
Content: When you missed the appointment, how do you make an apology and offer an explanation?

Lesson 2: Refusing and Avoiding an Invitation
Content: If you don’t have the time or you don’t want to go out with someone, how do you refuse or avoid an invitation?

Lesson 3: I Don’t Get It: Reading Body Language
Content: Cross-cultural nonverbal meanings.
What gestures do you know in many different countries?

Lesson 4: Idiom Idiocy
Content: Cross-cultural translation.
How can you know American idioms?

Lesson 5: Generation Gap
Content: Comparing family values between the U. S. and Taiwan.
Resolving the misunderstanding between parents and Children.

Lesson 6: Are Men and Women From Different Planets?
Content: How can you understand men and women?
Gender comparison and cross-cultural differences.
Lesson One
I Missed the Appointment! Making an Apology and Forgiving

Objectives
1. Listen to audiotape of native English speakers
2. Explicit strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension
3. Identify own learning style
4. Build social function knowledge about how to make and to accept an apology
5. Develop a self-directed and self-motivated attitude

Strategies
note-taking, self-management, self-questioning, questioning, imagery, planning, affective, translation, cooperation strategies

Vocabulary
unconsciously, essential, in a bad mood, look forward to, postpone, it’s up to you, inform, exactly, calm down, make up, work out, stand one up

Materials
1. Focus Sheet—II.1-1 and II.1-2 Pre-listening, II.1-3 and II.1-4 Focus-listening
2. Work Sheet—II.1-5 and II.1-6 Post-listening
3. Audiotape, cassette player
4. II.1-7 Test Sheet
5. II.1-8 Homework Sheet

Teaching listening with variety
Pre-listening
1. Evoke students’ background, interests, and prior knowledge. Ask students questions as follows:
   1) When you and your friends have made a plan and a few days later you have to change it, how do you tell your friends?
   2) When your friend forgot your appointment and kept you waiting at some place, how do you feel?
   3) How do you make an apology and how do you explain, when you missed the appointment?
   4) Will you forgive your friend after she or he tries to apologies?
2. Prior knowledge about language—reading an article about how to make and accept an apology. (see Focus Sheet II.1-1)
4. Imagery strategies from pictures - predict and guess. (see Focus Sheet II.1-2)
   Encourage students to use a self-questioning strategy and make a list of
   questions after viewing the pictures.

**Focus-listening**
1. Once again, ask students to take notes and use strategies to prepare to listen.
   For example, take a deep breath, smile, close their eyes, meditation and so on.
2. Start listening to the audiotape without a tapescript.

**Post-listening**
1. Immediately after listening, ask volunteer students to describe their thoughts
   while listening and ask them questions as follows:
   1) What did you know about the story?
   2) What helped you understand?
   3) What problems did you have?
2. Using a cooperation strategy: Students are divided into small groups. Have
   students discuss the main idea of the story in English.
3. Replay audiotape: this time, listen to two segments, stop the tape and ask
   questions of volunteer students. For example,
   1) What did you know about the story?
4. Using a cooperation strategy: Students discuss the whole story again and fill
   in the missing parts of notes. Encourage students to use a questioning strategy
   in which students may ask questions or clarify unclear ideas with the teacher
   or with their group.
5. Distribute Work Sheet II.1-5, and have students work in the same groups to
   answer open-ended questions.
6. Distribute tapescript. (see Focus Sheet II.1-3 and II.1-4) Students can
   comprehend the whole concept with their group or individuals.
7. Role-play: The teacher will ask a volunteer student to play the roles. The
   teacher will demonstrate with volunteer students to show Nancy’s anger and
   Bill’s embarrassment. Practice the conversation above with their group.
   Encourage students to express their emotion. Then switch the roles.
8. Return tapescript.
9. Using a imagery strategy: Ask students to share their opinions as if they were
   Bill and Nancy. When Bill try to apologize that he didn’t show up, what is
   Nancy’s reaction? (see Work Sheet II.1-5)

   “Jazz-chant”
   **Step 1.** Students listen to the first presentation of the chant on the cassette.
   Students repeat each line of the chant after the teacher. It’s
   important to establish a clear, strong beat by counting, clapping,
   using rhythm sticks, or snapping fingers.
   **Step 2.** Students repeat after the teacher.
Step 3. Students are divided into two groups, each taking a role in the dialogue of the chant. Each group repeats their line after the teacher. Then, two groups switch the roles.

Step 4. Students do the chant by themselves without the teacher’s model.

Responding to diversity with a range of activities
1. By developing imagery, questioning, cooperation and self-management strategies, students can get feedback and comprehension.
2. Make sure that students respond during each step of the activities.
3. Be aware of student’s reaction. If students feel frustrated, the teacher can stop the task or activities.
4. Allow them to use an English-English dictionary as a supplement, but encourage students to make guess of vocabulary.

Assessment
1. The teacher will use a performance checklist to keep students’ records. (see Table 5.1)
2. From observation of activities.
3. Collect students’ notes and Work Sheet II.1-5 for teacher’s evaluation.
4. Test: Look at the picture, and make a guess first. Then, listen to the audiotape and summarize the story. (see II.1-7 Test Sheet)
5. Homework:
   Distribute II.1-8 Homework.
   Step 1. Write down any experience about forgetting a date or other stories.
   Step 2. Record a story, and bring it to the class next time and exchange tapes with classmates.
   Step 3. Remind students to use intonation and pause while they describing the story.
Lesson Two
Refusing and Avoiding an Invitation

Objectives
1. Listen to audiotape of native English speakers
2. Explicit strategies training in order to increase listening comprehension
3. Build social function knowledge how to refuse and avoid an invitation
4. Build own learning style
5. Develop a self-motivated and self-directed attitude

Strategies
note-taking, self-management, imagery, questioning, self-questioning, cooperation, planning, translation, affective strategies

Vocabulary
take a rain check, turn down, make time, take time off

Materials
1. Focus Sheet—II.2-1 and II.2-2 Pre-listening, II.2-3 Focus-listening
2. Work Sheet—II.2-4 Post-listening
3. Audiotape, cassette player, videotape, video camera, VCR, TV
4. II.2-5 Self-evaluation Sheet

Teaching listening with variety
Pre-listening
1. Evoke students’ background, interests, and prior knowledge about language. Ask students questions as follows:
   1) If you don’t have the time or you don’t want to go out with someone, how do you refuse or avoid an invitation?
   2) In your country, if someone invite you to do something, is it very difficult to say “No”?
   3) What do you think that men and women can be friends?
2. Prior knowledge- reading an article about how to refuse and avoid an invitation. (see Focus Sheet II.2-1)
3. Explicit strategy training: Review strategies. Encourage students to give their opinions about what strategies they have learned are useful. Why/why not?
4. Imagery strategies from pictures - predict and guess. (see Focus Sheet II.2-2) Encourage students to use a self-questioning strategy to think about what the story is about after viewing the pictures.
Focus-listening
1. Once again, ask students to take notes and other strategies to concentrate while listening.
2. Start listening to the audiotape without a tapescript.

Post-listening
1. Immediately after listening, ask volunteer students to describe their thoughts while listening and keep asking them questions as follows:
   1) What did you already know?
   2) What helped you understand?
   3) What part do you still feel unclear?
2. Using a cooperation strategy: Students are divided into small groups. Students discuss about their problems in English. Ask them to take notes.
3. Replay audiotape: This time, listen to a short segment, stop the tape and ask students to think again.
4. Using a cooperation strategy: Students in small groups discuss the whole story again.
5. Distribute Work Sheet II.2-4, and ask them to answer open-ended questions about the story.
6. Encourage students to use a questioning strategy in which students may ask questions or clarify unclear ideas with the teacher or with their group.
7. If students still don’t understand, allowed them to listen to the tape again.
8. Distribute tapescript: (see Focus Sheet II.2-3) Students can comprehend the whole concept and correct their Work Sheet II.2-4.
9. Return tapescript.
10. The teacher asks them to create some activities they have learned and invite five classmates out. Invited students have to refuse or avoid an invitation. The teacher will videorecord some of them.

Responding to diversity with a range of activities
1. By developing imagery, self-questioning, questioning, cooperation and self-management strategies, students can get feedback and comprehension.
2. Make sure that students respond during each step of the activities.
3. Allow them to use an English-English dictionary as a supplement.
4. If the teacher can tell that students do not respond, either stop or postpone the task or activities.
5. Use a translation strategy in Chinese to help students’ comprehension if necessary.

Assessment
1. The teacher will use a performance checklist to keep students’ records. (see Table 5.1)
2. The teacher will observe students' activities.
3. Collect students' notes, Work Sheet II.2-4 and videotape for teacher's evaluation.
4. Distribute II.2-5 Self-evaluation Sheet; have students evaluate their progress.
5. Homework:
   Step 1. Ask students to listen to an English song without reading the lyrics.
   Step 2. Then listen again and dictation.
   Step 3. Finally, summarize the meaning of songs. Next time, bring the tape and share with classmates.
Lesson Three  
I Don’t Get It: Reading Body Language

Objectives
1. Listen to audiotape of native English speakers
2. Explicit strategies training in order to increase listening comprehension
3. Build own learning style
4. Build social functional knowledge about cross-cultural non-verbal language and geographical knowledge.
5. Develop a self-motivated and self-directed attitude.

Strategies
note-taking, self-management, imagery, inferencing, cooperation, planning, self-questioning, questioning, translation, affective strategies

Vocabulary
gesture, non-verbal, Brazil, Canada, Colombia, Greece, India, Italy, Tonga, the Netherlands, Nigeria, Peru, Spain, Germany, raise eyebrows, opposite, toss one’s head, tap one’s head, flick one’s chin, thumb up, elbow

Materials
1. Focus Sheet–II.3-1, II.3-2, II.3-3 and II.3-4 Pre-listening, II.3-5 and II.3-6 Focus-listening
2. Work Sheet–II.3-7 and II.3-8 Post-listening
3. Audiotape, cassette player, videotape, video camera, VCR, TV
4. II.3-9 Test Sheet

Teaching listening with variety
Pre-listening
1. Evoke students’ background, interests, and prior knowledge about language. Ask students questions as follows:
   1) What gestures do you know in many different countries?
   2) In your culture, what kind of body language do you use?
   3) Sometimes, you might have difficulty communicating with people you’ve just met, so what kind of problems would cause you to misunderstand?
   4) If you were in a different country and they used some body language which confused you or you misunderstood, what would you feel?
2. Prior knowledge about culture- reading an article about how people use body language to communicate with each other in the world. Check countries listed on world map. (see Focus Sheet II.3-1 and II.3-2)
3. Explicit strategy training: Review strategies and emphasize that if students can learn strategies and regulate them, they will become self-motivated learners. They can apply strategies to any subject or outside of class in order to be good learners.

4. Imagery and inferencing strategies. (see Focus Sheet II.3-3 and II.3-4) Encourage students to make a guess or use their prior knowledge about what these gestures mean in some countries after viewing the pictures.

5. Return Focus Sheet II.3-3.

**Focus-listening**
1. Prepare for listening with useful strategies.
2. Start listening to the audiotape without a tapescript.

**Post-listening**
1. Using cooperation and questioning strategies: immediately after listening, have students work in small groups to discuss their questions.
2. During their discussion, teacher can join any group to help them interact in groups.
3. Replay audiotape: This time, listen to eight segments, stop the tape and ask students think again and take notes.
4. Using a cooperation strategy: students are divided into small groups. Students discuss the whole story. Encourage students to use a questioning strategy in which students may ask questions or clarify unclear ideas with the teacher or with their group.
5. Distribute Focus Sheet II.3-3 again. Ask them to circle the meanings of gestures and write a country’s name, because gestures in different countries may have different meanings.
6. If students still don’t understand, allowed them to listen to the tape again.
7. Distribute tapescript (see Focus Sheet II.3-5 and II.3-6), students can comprehend the whole concept.
8. Return tapescript.
9. Distribute Work Sheet II.3-7 and II.3-8, have students work in a group of four. After learning these gestures, write down the meanings and countries with each gestures. Students have to find out, “Do they have the similar gestures and meanings as these countries?” If not the same, draw the gestures or write “no”.

**Responding to diversity with a range of activities**
1. By developing strategies, students can get feedback and comprehension in order to become self-motivated learners.
2. Make sure that students respond during each step of activities. If the process for students is too fast to keep up with, all the procedures should be allowed to postpone or stop until students feel comfortable.

3. Allow them to use an English-English dictionary as a supplement, but encourage them to use a selected attention strategy to ignore unfamiliar vocabulary.

Assessment

1. The teacher will use a performance checklist to keep students’ records. (see Table 5.1)
2. The teacher observes students’ activities.
3. Collect notes and Work Sheet II.3-7 and II.3-8 for teacher’s evaluation.
4. Test: Look at the gestures and listen to the audiotape. Answer questions. (see II.3-9 Test Sheet)
5. Homework: During the weekend, listen to any material which interests them. Then record and summarize it.
Lesson Four
Idiom Idiocy

Objectives
1. Listen to audiotape of native English speakers
2. Build functional language knowledge about American idioms and crosscultural translation
3. Explicit strategies training in order to increase listening comprehension, become autonomous, and build own learning style
4. Participate in class and group activities
5. Involved in strategies with a variety of assessments and activities to evaluate students’ current performance

Strategy
note-taking, self-management, self-evaluation, self-questioning, questioning, imagery, inferencing, translation, planning, affective, cooperation strategies

Vocabulary
idiom, to run into, in a great mood, to break the ice, to read one’s mind, to feel blue, to eat like a bird, in a daze, to pull one’s leg, stay up, incident, to take attendance, refreshment, bucket, advisor, chip

Materials
1. Focus Sheet--II.4-1 and II.4-2 Pre-listening, II.4-3 Focus-listening
2. Work Sheet--II.4-4 Post-listening
3. Audiotape, cassette player
4. II.4-5 Test Sheet
5. II.4-6 Homework Sheet

Teaching listening with variety
Pre-listening
1. Evoke students’ background, interests, and prior knowledge about language. Ask students questions as follows:
   1) Do you know some idioms in Chinese?
   2) Do you know some American idioms?
   3) How can you understand American idioms?
   4) Have you ever misunderstood American idioms that made you embarrassed?
2. Prior knowledge- reading an article about American idioms. (see Focus Sheet II.4-1)
4. Imagery strategies from pictures - predict and guess. (see Focus Sheet II.4-2) Encourage students to use a self-questioning strategy and to think about what is going through their minds after viewing the pictures.
5. Then, encourage students to make a guess of the meanings of a list of idioms. (see Focus Sheet II.4-2)

**Focus-listening**
1. Prepare for listening with useful strategies.
2. First time, listen to the audiotape without a transcript.

**Post-listening**
1. Immediately after listening, ask students questions:
   1) What do they already know?
   2) What part is still unclear?
   3) Does their prediction match the story?
2. Using a cooperation strategy: Students are divided into small groups. Students discuss what they heard and share their notes in English.
3. Replay the tape: This time, listen to a short segment, stop the tape and ask students think again.
4. After listening, have students discuss the whole story again. Encourage students to use a questioning strategy in which students may ask questions or clarify unclear ideas with the teacher or with their group.
5. Distributing transcript (see Focus Sheet II.4-4), students can fill in the missing part of their notes and comprehend the whole concept.
6. Return transcript.
7. Distribute Work Sheet II.4-5. Have students work together, and answer true/false questions and open-ended questions.
8. Activities. Ask each group to make questions. Have each group exchange questions. Each student in each group has to draw a question to ask their group. During this exercise, ask them to record. After this, have them listen to their tape.

**Responding to diversity with a range of activities**
1. By developing strategies, students can get feedback and comprehension.
2. Make sure that students respond during each step of the activities. If students do not feel comfortable with the task or activities, the teacher will stop or postpone them.
3. Allow them to use an English-English dictionary as a supplement but encourage students make a guess or ignore the unfamiliar vocabulary.
Assessment
1. The teacher will use a performance checklist to keep students’ records. (see Table 5.1)
2. From observation of activities.
3. Collect their notes, recorded audiotapes, and Work Sheet II.4-4 for teacher’s evaluation.
4. Test: Match the pictures and write down the meanings of idioms. (see II.4-5 Test Sheet)
5. Homework: In order to help students how to evaluate their listening comprehension by themselves, the teacher encourages students to watch an English language videotape, a program on cable TV or anything which interests them. Then, students have to summarize and self-evaluate it. (see II.4-6 Homework Sheet)
Lesson Five
Generation Gap

Objectives
1. Listen to audiotape of native English speakers
2. Build informational function knowledge about American family and the misunderstanding between parents and children
3. Explicit strategies training in order to increase listening comprehension and gain self-directed and self-motivated attitude
4. Develop own learning style with strategies
5. Participate in class and group activities
6. Involved in strategies with a variety of meaningful assessments and activities to evaluate students’ current performance

Strategy
note-taking, self-management, imagery, cooperation, self-questioning, questioning, translation, inferencing, planning, affective strategies

Vocabulary
strict, unreasonably, dramatically, liberalize, decade, previously, unquestioningly, scold, definitely, on the wane, construction, independent, single, responsibility, babysitter, take care of, laundry, obey, out of touch, completely, pick on someone, reputation.

Materials
1. Focus Sheet—II.5-1 and II.5-2 Pre-listening, II.5-3 Focus-listening
2. Work Sheet—II.5-4, II.5-5 and II.5-6 Post-listening
3. Audiotape, cassette player
4. II.5-7 Test Sheet

Teaching listening with variety
Pre-listening
1. Evoke students’ background, interests, and prior knowledge about language. Ask students the questions as follows:
   1) Do you know the value of the family in the U. S. and Taiwan?
   2) Do you spend most of the time with your family, or friends? Why?
   3) What do you usually do with your friends?
   4) Do your parents often worry about you? Why?
   5) In your parents’ opinion, how old are you when you are considered “independent”?
6) Is there any misunderstanding in communication between your parents and you? Why/Why not?
2. Prior knowledge about culture - reading an article about the value of American family. (see Focus Sheet II.5-1)
3. Explicit listening strategy training: Review strategies and guide students to choose and regulate their favorite strategies to become autonomous.
4. Imagery strategies from pictures - predict and guess. (see Focus Sheet II.5-2) Encourage students to think and to use a self-questioning strategy what is going through their minds after viewing the pictures.

**Focus-listening**
1. Prepare for listening with useful strategies.
2. First time, listen to the audiotape without a tapescript.

**Post-listening**
1. Using a cooperation strategy: Immediately after listening, students are divided into small groups. Students discuss what they heard and share their notes in English.
2. Encourage students to use questioning and inferencing strategies in which students may ask questions or clarify unclear ideas with the teacher or with their group. Provide them some questions as follows:
   1) What do you already know about the topic?
   2) What ideas would you expect to hear?
   3) What helped you understand?
   4) What problems did you have?
   5) Did pre-listening activities and strategies help you to understand the article?
3. Replay the tape: This time, listen to a short segment, stop the tape and ask students think again.
4. Ask each group to discuss again, fill in the missing part of their notes, and exchange their notes with other groups to get ideas.
5. Distribute tapescript. (see Focus Sheet II.5-3) Students can work together or individuals to comprehend the whole concept. Suggest they use a role-play or any activity which can help them to learn effectively.
6. Return tapescript.
7. Distribute Work Sheet II.5-4: Students work together to answer
   1) True/false questions.
   2) Multiple choice to review vocabulary.
   3) The main idea of the story they’ve learned.
8. Distribute Work Sheet II.5-5:
   1) Have students interview five classmates about their and their parents’ different opinions about several things.
2) Have students fill in their opinions about what parents really worry about them.

9. Distribute Work Sheet II.5-6: Game time. Students work together to play a game. Student A plays first. When Student A meets one of parents (student B plays as a parent), she/he asks a question. Student B answers no/yes. The second time, students switch the roles.

Responding to diversity with a range of activities
1. By developing strategies, students can get feedback and comprehension.
2. Make sure that students respond during each step of the activities. If students do not feel comfortable with the task or activities, the teacher will stop or postpone them.
3. Allow them to use an English-English dictionary as a supplement.

Assessment
1. The teacher will use a performance checklist to keep students' records. (see Table 5.1)
2. Form observation of activities.
3. Collect their notes and Work Sheet II.5-4 and II.5-5 for teacher's evaluation.
4. Test: Look at a picture first. Then listen to the tape and summarize the story. (see II.5-7 Test Sheet)
5. Homework: Encourage students to find some questions from this lesson and communicate with their parents. Write down the journal about the relationship with their parents after the talk.
Lesson Six
Are Men and Women from Different Planets?

Objectives
1. Listen to audiotape of native English speakers
2. Build functional language knowledge what the difference is between men and women
3. Explicit strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension and gain a self-directed and self-motivated attitude.
4. Develop own learning style with strategies.
5. Participate in class and group activities
6. Involved in strategies with a variety of meaningful activities and assessments to evaluate students’ current performance

Strategy
note-taking, self-management, self-evaluation, self-questioning, questioning, translation, inferencing, planning, affective, imagery, cooperation strategies

Vocabulary
impression, frequent, complaint, comment, in terms of, anecdote, vocal, observation, absolutely, capture, argument, intimacy, reverse, psychological, get along with,

Materials
1. Focus Sheet—I.6-1, I.6-2, and I.6-3 Pre-listening, I.6-4 Focus-listening
2. Work Sheet—II.6-5 and II.6-6 Post-listening
3. Audiotape, cassette player
4. II.6-7 Test Sheet
5. II.6-8 Homework Sheet

Teaching listening with variety
Pre-listening
1. Evoke students’ background, interests, and prior knowledge about language. Ask students questions as follows:
   1) In your culture, how can you understand men and women?
   2) Is there any misunderstanding in communication between men and women?
   3) Is there any difference between men and women in your country?
2. Prior knowledge about culture- reading an article about the difference between boys and girls in the U. S. (see Focus Sheet II.6-1)
3. Explicit listening strategy training: Review strategies and ask their opinions about strategies.

4. Distribute Focus Sheet II.6-2 and II.6-3; ask students to take this test for fun. They may figure out the reason why men and women are not the same.

5. Imagery strategies from pictures in order to predict and guess. (see Focus Sheet II.6-3) Encourage students to use a self-questioning strategy and think about what is going through their minds after viewing the pictures.

**Focus-listening**
1. Prepare for listening with useful strategies.
2. First time, listen to the audiotape without a tapescript.

**Post-listening**
1. Using a cooperation strategy: Immediately after listening, students are divided into small groups. Students discuss what they heard and share their notes in English.
2. During the discussion, the teacher encourages students to use a questioning strategy in which students may ask questions or clarify unclear ideas with the teacher or with their group.
3. Ask volunteer students of each group to describe their thought, if they answer they can get points as follows:
   1) What do you already know about the topic?
   2) What ideas would you expect to hear?
   3) What helped you understand?
   4) What problems did you have?
4. Replay the tape: This time, listen to a short segment, stop the tape and ask students think again.
5. Ask each group to discuss again, fill in the missing part of their notes, and exchange their notes with other groups to get ideas.
6. If student still do not understand, listen to the tape again.
7. Distributing tapescript. (see Focus Sheet II.6-4) Encourage students to choose any activity to assist their comprehension of the whole concept.
8. Return tapescript.
9. Distribute Work Sheet II.6-5, and ask students to answer open-ended questions.
10. Distribute Work Sheet II.6-6. Students interview their classmates to compare the difference between boys and girls in the U. S. and Taiwan.

**Responding to diversity with a range of activities**
1. By developing strategies, students can get feedback and comprehension.
2. Make sure that students respond to each step of the activities. If students do not feel comfortable with the task or activities, the teacher should stop or postpone them.

3. Because this lesson may be difficult for students, the teacher should slow down every step and use a translation strategy in order to help students’ listening processing.

4. Allow them to use an English-English dictionary as a supplement but encourage them to make a guess.

Assessment

1. The teacher will use a performance checklist to keep students’ records. (see Table 5.1)

2. From observation of activities.

3. Collect their notes and Work Sheet II.6-5 and II.6-6 for teacher’s evaluation.

4. Test: Look at a picture first. Then listen to the tape and summarize it. (see II.6-7 Test Sheet)

5. Homework: Have students to use a self-evaluation strategy to evaluate their progress after sessions. (see II.6-8 Homework Sheet)
Focus Sheet II.1-1 Pre-Listening

Prior Knowledge about Language (Reading)

When you do something wrong, you save yourself a lot of trouble by apologizing first before someone complains about you. In this case it may be even more essential to “break the bad news gently.”

Here are some useful opening expressions:

I’m not exactly sure how to put this, but...
I’ve got to apologize for....
I’m afraid I have something to tell you..
Um...this isn’t easy (for me) to say, but...

Then, you may apologize by saying:

Please accept my apologies.
Please excuse me.
Please forget me.
I’m (really) (so) (very) sorry.

You can accept an apology by saying:

Don’t worry about it.
That’s all right or OK.
No problem.

(Coffey, 1980, p. 70)
Focus Sheet II-1.2 Pre-Listening

Imagery Strategy
Look at the pictures, and try to predict the story.

(Fragiadakis, 1993, p. 62)
Focus Sheet II.1-3 Focus-Listening

Tapescript

(Phone rings: pickup)
N: Hello…
B: Hi, Nancy. This is Bill.
N: Oh, hi. I’m looking forward to the concert on Friday.
B: Uh, that’s what I’m calling about. We were supposed to meet on Friday night, right?
N: Yeah. Um, in front of the National Concert Hall.
B: Look, we’re kind of busy here at work these days. I’m afraid that we have to change to Saturday night. If you don’t mind…
N: Saturday night? OK.
B: Sorry about the change.
N: Oh, no problem. But…if you feel tired, we could cancel our plan. Or postpone to next time, when you have the free time.
B: No, it’s a wonderful concert. I don’t want to miss it.
N: OK, it’s up to you. But if you really don’t have the time, just inform me. OK?
B: I will. OK, see you on Friday.
N: Saturday. Not Friday.
B: Oh, Yeah.. Bye.
N: Bye. (hang up)

(On Saturday night, Nancy had been waiting for an hour. She called Bill several times, but nobody was at home. She didn’t know what happened to Bill. Finally, she gave up. She was very upset about Bill. After she got home, she called Bill again, but he still wasn’t at home. She told his roommate that Bill missed the appointment. On Sunday morning, Bill rushes to Nancy’s apartment, but Nancy is leaving …)
Focus Sheet II.1-4 Focus-Listening

Tapescript
(continue)...

B: Nancy! Uh-oh! Nancy... Wait!
N: I’m leaving right now...
B: Listen, I’m really embarrassed about last night. To be honest with you, I did not forget about our date.
N: But you didn’t show up, did you?
B: No. I didn’t mean to hurt your feelings.
N: But you did. You stood me up, Bill!
B: Listen, we can work this out. Let me make up for it. I’ll treat you to dinner tonight.
N: Aren’t you going to explain what happened?
B: Well, I guess you’ve got a point there. OK, calm down please, and I’ll tell you the truth about what happened...I’m not exactly sure how I put this, but, you know I told you about my work, right? Because I haven’t got enough sleep these days, I overslept last night.
N: You what?
B: I already set up the alarm clock, but I pushed it unconsciously...
N: But I called you several times, I thought you weren’t at home.
B: I was in a deep sleep. Listen, I’m really sorry about it. Could you forgive me?
N: I don’t know. I’m still in a bad mood, OK?
B: I know sorry didn’t cut it, but I promise...
N: Don’t, don’t do this. Anyway, I accept your apology, but I’m still leaving right now.
B: I’m truly, sincerely sorry. I can give you a ride wherever you want to go. Please give me a chance.
N: Mm... O.K., I guess so...
Work Sheet II.1-5 Post-Listening

Cooperation Strategy

A. Work in pairs and answer questions.
1. Why does Bill change the time?

2. After changing the time, when were they to go and where were they to meet?

3. What happened that night?

4. Why did Nancy go to Bill’s place?

5. What did Bill say about that night?

B. Making and accepting an apology exercise:
Discuss with your partner and imagine... if you were Bill and you missed an appointment, how do you make an apology or explain?
If your partner were Nancy and she was kept waiting, would she forgive Bill after his explanation?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bill invited Nancy for a dinner, but he forgot the time. When he arrived the restaurant, Nancy already left.</th>
<th>Now, how does Bill apologize or explain?</th>
<th>After Bill’s explanation, Does Nancy accept or not? Why?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Create a story.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Work Sheet II.1-6 Post-Listening

“Small Talk”-Jazz Chant

Students listen to the first presentation of the chant on the cassette. Students repeat each line of the chant after the teacher. It’s important to establish a clear, strong beat by counting, clapping, using rhythm sticks, or snapping fingers.

Step 1. Let’s listen...

I’m sorry I did it. I shouldn’t have done it
   I’m sorry I did it.
   I shouldn’t have done it.
   I’m sorry I did it.
   I shouldn’t have done it.
   It doesn’t matter.
   It really doesn’t.
   It doesn’t matter.
   Honestly.

I’m sorry I took it.
I shouldn’t have taken it.
I’m sorry I wore it
I shouldn’t have worn it.
I am sorry I wrote it.
I shouldn’t have written it.
   It doesn’t matter.
   Honestly.

I should have told you.
   It doesn’t matter.
I shouldn’t have done it.
   It doesn’t matter.
   It really doesn’t.
   Honestly.

Step 2. Students repeat after the teacher.
Step 3. Students are divided into two groups, each taking a role in the dialogue of the chant. Each group repeats their line after the teacher. Then, two groups switch the roles.
Step 4. Students do the chant by themselves without the teacher’s model.

(Graham, 1985, p. 42)
II.1-7 Test Sheet

Name: 
Grade: 

Self-questioning Strategy and Imagery Strategy

Look at pictures.
Step 1. Make a list of questions.
Step 2. Predict what is going to happen.
Step 3. Then listen to the audiotape and summarize the story.

(Richards, 1996, p. 22-23)
II.1-8 Homework Sheet

It’s very important to tell a story that might have happened to you. You need various techniques to give variety and interest to the story. You could create suspense by making the listener wait for important information. For example, what happened to me... (stop a few seconds) was that...

And time-order words are used to make the sequence of events clear.
Examples: Last Saturday, at 6 am, in the morning,
first, second, third, before, just before, after, after that,
until, next, meanwhile, finally.

Your paper should consist of an introduction, body, and conclusion. Remember, a well-organized paper will provide readers clear ideas of your story.

Step 1. Look at the pictures. Imagine that something happened to you so you missed the appointment.

Step 2. Write down your story according to the following pictures.

Step 3. Then record your story, bring it to the class, and only exchange the tape with classmates. You can get advice from classmates.

(Richards, 1996, p. 45-46)
Focus Sheet II.2-1 Pre-Listening

Prior Knowledge about Language (Reading)

Avoiding an invitation

Sometimes you find yourself in a situation in which you don’t want, can’t accept, or have to turn down an invitation. In English there are several ways to avoid immediately accepting or refusing an invitation. They can be used in both formal and informal contexts.

I’ll think about it and let you know.
I don’t know what my plans are yet. Let me get back to you.
I’m not sure if I can. I’ll let you know soon.
(tonight, tomorrow, in an hour...)

Refusing an invitation

There are times when someone invites you to do something and you’d like to say “No.” There are many ways to turn down an invitation politely. In addition to refusing the invitation, in English you also need to give some kind of explanation.

For example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thank you for asking but</th>
<th>I’m afraid I can’t.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thanks for asking but</td>
<td>I’m sorry I can’t.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’d like to do but</td>
<td>I have other plans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>And your explanation...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’d love to (do) but</td>
<td>I’m already busy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wish I could but</td>
<td>I have too much to do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sorry, I don’t think I can.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’ve made other plans. Sorry.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Coffey, 1980, p. 56-57)
Focus Sheet II.2-2 Pre-Listening

Imagery Strategy

Make a guess about pictures as follows.

(Fragiadakis, 1993, p. 69/83)
Focus Sheet II.2-3 Focus-Listening
Tapescript

(Phone rings: pickup)

Nancy: Hello?

Bill: Hi, Nancy. This is Bill. How're you doing?

Nancy: OK. But busy.

Bill: Uh... I was thinking we didn’t go to a concert...

Nancy: Uh, but you already gave me a ride.

Bill: Yeah, that’s right. Listen... I still feel sorry. Can you make time to go to a movie tonight? I want to treat you again.

Nancy: I wish I could, but I have a lot of things to do. Can I take a rain check?

Bill: Come on, take some time off. How about tomorrow?

Nancy: I’m sorry. I’m really very busy. Next time, OK?

Bill: OK. But you have been so busy... I’m afraid... well, if you change your mind, please let me know, OK?

Nancy: I will. Bye.

Bill: Bye. (Hang up)

At the restaurant, Nancy and Cathy are talking...

Cathy: So what’s new? Look at your face. Oh, no... don’t tell me bad news.

Nancy: Not really bad.

Cathy: What do you mean?

Nancy: To be honest with you, recently I just got a new friend at the party, and we went out once, but I decided to avoid his invitation at the second time.

Cathy: Why? Did he do something wrong?

Nancy: Yeah. He missed our appointment, because he overslept. Can you believe that? I was so angry.

Cathy: Oh... That’s too bad. But I could understand why you were so mad...

Nancy: But he’s apologized to me, gave me a ride, and want to buy me a dinner...

Cathy: That’s nice, at least he tried to make up for you. But You didn’t buy it, did you?

Nancy: I don’t know... should I just refuse or accept it? He’s kept asking me out for several times. I’m afraid I don’t know how to reject him?

Cathy: Don’t you like him, do you?

Nancy: Actually, I like him as a friend because he’s open-minded, friendly, and...

Cathy: Are you sure just a friend?

Nancy: Yeah, pretty sure. Just a friend. I know myself, OK? Don’t you think men and women can be friends? What’s your point?

Cathy: I mean maybe you like him, that’s why you got so mad at him... you know what? When he calls you, you just go straight and tell him that you’re sorry that you don’t want to go out with him. It’s not a big deal.

Nancy: Yeah, maybe I think too much...
Work Sheet II.2-4 Post-Listening

Group:
Grade:

Cooperation Strategy

A. Work together and answer questions.
1. What did Bill and Nancy say on the phone?

2. At the restaurant, what did Nancy and Cathy talk about?

3. After Nancy and Cathy’s conversation, if you were Nancy, what would you do when Bill call you (Nancy) again?

B. Before you stand up, make your invitation to ask five classmates out with you. Write down how they refuse or avoid an invitation. Take notes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Avoid or refuse an invitation</th>
<th>Student 1</th>
<th>Student 2</th>
<th>Student 3</th>
<th>Student 4</th>
<th>Student 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How about going to a movie on Friday?</td>
<td>Sorry. I’ve other plans.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
II.2-5 Self-Evaluation

Name: 
Grade: 

1. Do you think tests would help you understand better? Why? 

2. To test your understanding of the subject, what kind of tests do you prefer? 

3. In class, what do you do that most helps your learning? 

4. What do your classmates do that help your learning? 

5. What does the teacher do that most helps your learning? 

6. How do you help your classmates? 

7. How do you share your ideas with your group? 

8. Do you agree that helping each other makes learning easier? Why? 

Class behavior: Evaluate your class behavior using the following scale: 
1= needs improvement 2= inconsistent 3= satisfactory 4= good 5= excellent 

_____ attitude _____ attentiveness 
_____ cooperation _____ participation 
_____ motivation _____ class preparation (before and after) 
_____ self-correction _____ respect for classmates 

Are you satisfied with your class behavior? Why/ Why not? 

Do you like to learn from group activities or individual activities? Why/ Why not? 

(Sharkey, 1995, p. 22)
**Focus Sheet II.3-1 Pre-Listening**

**Prior Knowledge about Culture (Reading)**

All of us, at times, have trouble communicating with people. Sometimes we have difficulty communicating with people we’ve just met, and at other times we have problems communicating with people we know very well.

Sometimes our difficulties are caused by misunderstanding the words someone used, but very often words are not the most important part of the conversation. On the contrary, some studies show that when expressing attitudes, 93 percent of the message is communicated by our tones of voice, our facial expressions, and our gestures. These things are known as non-verbal behavior. In other words, how we say things can be more important than what we say.

Sometimes the same gesture can have very different meanings in different cultures. For example, in the U. S. and Canada, it is common to make a circle with your thumb and first finger. It means “OK.” In Japan, the same sign means “money.” In southern France, it stands for “zero” or “worthless.” Be careful! If you travel to Brazil or Greece, do not use this sign. It has a very bad meaning.

Look at the map and locate all the following countries:

- Brazil
- Canada
- Colombia
- Greece
- India
- Italy
- Tonga
- the Netherlands
- Nigeria
- Peru
- Spain
- Taiwan
- Germany

*(Beglar & Murray, 1993, p. 41; Helgesen & Brown, 1995, p. 16)*
Focus Sheet II.3-3 Pre-Listening

Imagery Strategy

Work in small groups and make a guess “What do the gestures mean in these places?”

1. In most countries, a nod means...
   □ Yes.
   □ No.

2. In Tonga, raised eyebrows mean...
   □ yes.
   □ money.

3. In Argentina, tapping your head means...
   □ that person’s crazy.
   □ I’m thinking.

4. In the Netherlands, tapping your elbow means
   □ that person doesn’t know want to spend money.
   □ you can’t depend on that person.

(Helgesen & Brown, 1995, p.16)
Focus Sheet II.3-4 Pre-Listening

Imagery Strategy

5. In most part of Europe, circling your head means...
   □ that person’s crazy.
   □ there’s a telephone call.

6. In Italy, flicking your chin means...
   □ I don’t know.
   □ go away!

7. In the U. S., thumbs up means...
   □ something bad.
   □ everything is OK.

8. In Germany, tossing your head means...
   □ come here.
   □ yes.
   □ no.

(Helgesen & Brown, 1995, p.17)
Focus Sheet II.3-5 Focus-Listening

Tapescript

Look at the pictures (1-8) in Focus Sheets II.3-3 and II.3-4 again and listen to the tape now. Write the names of the countries next to the meaning.

1. Woman: You know, a “nod”- moving your head up and down- means “yes” in most places, but not everywhere. Did you know that in Greece a nod means “no”?
   Man: It means “no” in Greece? I’m surprised.

2. Man: I didn’t know “raised eyebrows” means “yes” in Tonga. It means something very different in Peru.
   Woman: Yeah? What does it mean there?
   Man: Money. Raise eyebrows is a gesture for money in Peru.
   Woman: Hmm.

3. Woman: Um, Alberto, you said that tapping your head means “I’m thinking” in Argentina.
   Man: That’s right.
   Woman: You’d better be careful about using that gesture here in Canada. It means someone is crazy.
   Man: Oh, it means “crazy” in Canada? I didn’t know that! I’ll be careful.

4. Man: You know, it’s interesting that in the Netherlands, tapping your elbow means you can’t depend on someone. In Colombia, they use the same gesture, but it has a different meaning.
   Woman: What does it mean in Colombia?
   Man: Well, it means someone is cheap. That person doesn’t like to spend money.
   Woman: Oh.

5. Woman: Here’s an interesting one. You know how “circling your head” means that a person’s crazy?
   Man: Yeah.
   Woman: Guess what it means in the Netherlands!
   Man: The Netherlands? I have no idea.
   Woman: It means someone is calling on the telephone. You know, like dialing a phone.
   Man: That’s interesting.

(Helgesen, & Brown, 1995, p.18)
Focus Sheet II.3-6 Focus-Listening

Tapescript

6. Man: So flicking your chin means “go away” in Italy, right?
   Woman: Yes.
   Man: Guess what it means in Brazil.
   Woman: In Brazil? I don’t know.
   Man: That’s right.
   Woman: Huh?
   Man: In Brazil, flicking your chin means “I don’t know.”
   Woman: “I don’t know” is the meaning?
   Man: Right.

7. Woman: well, everything is “thumbs up” for my trip to Nigeria.
   I’ve never been to Africa before. I’m really looking forward to it.
   Man: Ah, you’d better be careful with that expression in Nigeria.
   Woman: Huh?
   Man: Thumbs up. In Nigeria, it means... um... well, it has a very bad
   meaning, don’t use that gesture. It will get you into a lot of trouble.
   Woman: Oh, thanks for telling me.

8. Man: You said tossing your head means “come here” for Germans?
   Woman: That’s right, but there are some other meanings. In India, it means
   “yes.” But it has the opposite meaning in Italy. In Italy it means
   “no.”
   Man: Hmm, “yes” in India, “no” in Italy. Isn’t it interesting how the same
   thing can have such different meanings?
   Woman: It sure is.

(Helgesen & Brown, 1995, p.18)
Work Sheet II.3-7 Post-Listening

Group: 
Grade: Cooperation Strategy

Write down the meanings and countries with the gestures. In Taiwan, do you have the similar gestures as these countries? If not, describe it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country/meaning</th>
<th>Country/meaning</th>
<th>Taiwan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>![Gesture 1]</td>
<td>![Gesture 2]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>![Gesture 3]</td>
<td>![Gesture 4]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>![Gesture 5]</td>
<td>![Gesture 6]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>![Gesture 7]</td>
<td>![Gesture 8]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>![Gesture 9]</td>
<td>![Gesture 10]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Work Sheet II.3-8 Post-Listening

(Continue)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group:</th>
<th>Grade:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>![Image 1](Helgesen&amp;Brown, 1995, p.16-18)</td>
<td>Country/meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>![Image 2](Helgesen&amp;Brown, 1995, p.16-18)</td>
<td>Country/meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>![Image 3](Helgesen&amp;Brown, 1995, p.16-18)</td>
<td>Country/meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>![Image 4](Helgesen&amp;Brown, 1995, p.16-18)</td>
<td>Country/meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>![Image 5](Helgesen&amp;Brown, 1995, p.16-18)</td>
<td>Country/meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>![Image 6](Helgesen&amp;Brown, 1995, p.16-18)</td>
<td>Country/meaning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
II.3-9 Test Sheet

Look at the picture and then listen to the audiotape. Answer questions.

(Helgesen & Brown, 1995, p.15)
Focus Sheet II.4-1 Pre-Listening

Prior Knowledge about Idioms in American English (Reading)

There are many idioms in American English. If English is not your native language, you may feel confused about idioms. You might misunderstand the meaning of idioms when American friends tell you something. For both pictures, we can say that “David ran into Melissa yesterday.” On the left side of the picture, that sentence “David ran into Melissa” means that David was running and then crashed into Melissa, and maybe even hurt her. On the right side of the picture, the sentence “David ran into Melissa” means that David and Melissa met each other without planning to meet. When they saw each other, they were surprised.

“Ran into” in the second picture is an idiom. An idiom is a group of words with a special meaning. This idiom means “to meet someone without planning to meet.” It does not mean that anyone was running.

(Fragiadakis, 1993, p. xi)
Focus Sheet II.4-2 Pre-Listening

Imagery Strategy

A. Look at the pictures and make a guess.

B. Here is a list of idioms. Work in small groups and guess what they mean.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Idiom</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To be in a great mood</td>
<td>to be very happy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To break the ice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To read someone’s mind</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To feel blue</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To eat like a horse</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To eat like a bird</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be in a daze</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Listen to an oral presentation from Lorenzo in class.

Good morning. My name is Lorenzo and I was born in Mexico City, but I’ve been living here in the United States for five years. While in the tenth grade I had an incident with my ESL teacher, Mrs. Del Signore.

It all began one night when I stayed up until midnight doing homework for the next day. When I finished, I put the homework paper on the dinner table and went to sleep. The next morning I woke up late and was in such a hurry to get to school on time that I forgot to take my homework.

In my ESL class, Mrs. Del Signore said, “Pass your homework to the front of your row.” Today, like everyday, she used the homework to take attendance. So, after a few minutes, she asked, “Lorenzo Gonzales is not here?” I answered, “I’m here.”

She turned and looked at me and called me to her desk to ask me about the homework. When I explained what had happened, she answered, “Quit pulling my leg. I want the truth.”

I felt my face turning red. What she said didn’t make any sense. I wasn’t close enough to pull her leg. Besides, she was standing over there, and it would have been practically impossible to pull her leg. The whole class looked at her because they did not understand her either. I’m sure I had a confused look on my face. When Mrs. Del Signore noticed it, she immediately realized the reason and apologized to me and the rest of the class. She explained what she meant by “pulling my leg.” She had thought I was kidding her about the homework, that I was just making up a story...

A story from an international student...

The international students club is giving a party for its new members. Amy, the president of the club, is upset because people are not talking to one another. She asks her advisor what she should do, and the advisor tells Amy that she needs to go and break the ice. The advisor is surprised when she sees Amy walk to the refreshment table, pick up a knife, and start chipping the ice in the ice bucket...

(Dresser, 1993, p.49)
Work Sheet II.4-4 Post-Listening

Cooperation Strategy

A. Work in pairs. Tell whether these sentences are true (T) or false (F).
1. Lorenzo forgot to do his homework.
2. Lorenzo overslept the next morning.
3. Mrs. Del Signore uses the homework to take attendance.
4. Lorenzo could not really pull Mrs. Del Signore’s leg, because she was sitting at her desk.
5. Lorenzo was the only student who did not understand what his teacher meant.
6. “Pulling someone’s leg” is an idiom that means to arrive late.
7. Finally, Mrs. Del Signore realized that Lorenzo didn’t understand the meaning of “pulling my leg.”
8. Amy was the president of the international students club.
9. The party was given for every freshman.
10. At the beginning of the party, people talked a lot to one another.
11. The advisor gave Amy a suggestion to chip the ice in the ice bucket.
12. “Break the ice” means that make people more relaxed.

B. So do you really understand what “pulling someone’s leg” means? Now, work in pairs and discuss about the main idea of the two stories and write them down.

C. Ask your partner the following questions and write them down.
1. When do you feel blue?
2. Please give me an example that the person can read your mind.
3. Do you eat like a bird or horse? What do you eat?
4. When are you in a great mood?
5. Make a sentence about “in a daze.”
II.4-5 Test Sheet

Matching Exercise

Match each idiom with the correct picture and explain it.

1. To eat like a bird

2. To feel blue

3. To break the ice

4. To eat like a horse

5. To be in a great mood

6. To read someone’s mind

7. To be in a daze

8. To pull someone’s leg
II.4-6 Homework Sheet

Name: 

Self-Assessment of Listening Comprehension

The purpose of this assignment is for you to discover how good you are at listening to dialogue.

Use any English language video film or cable TV program that interests you. Although there are usually Chinese translations on the screen, they are often not accurate word-for-word translations of exactly what is being said on screen. Usually, they are summaries. Therefore, do not rely on this as a method for learning the exact meaning of sentences.

The first time, please cover up the Chinese captions at the bottom of the screen. Watch a section of the film or the program in English only. Summarized what has happened. Rewind the tape (if you watch a program on cable TV, you had better videotape it) and watch again. Revise your summary. Finally, watch again with Chinese captions. Check your summary against the Chinese captions.

Scoring:
For each point you have written in your summary.
Give yourself 2 marks if it is absolutely correct.
Give yourself 1 marks if it is approximately correct.
Give yourself 0 marks if it is wrong.

You could now calculate your score as a percentage using the following formula:

\[(number\ of\ correct\ points) \div (total\ number\ of\ points\ in\ your\ summary) \times 100\]

Are you satisfied with your score?

You have to make your own decision about how good you want to be. The following is only a guideline:

More than 75% = good.
50%-75% = Ok, but you might want to practice more.
Less than 50% = this kind of comprehension is giving you problems.

Try a very short section of the video or the program first and gradually build up to longer sections.

(Gardner, 1996, p. 21)
Focus Sheet II.5-1 Pre-Listening

Prior Knowledge about the Family in the U. S. (Reading)

The American family has gone through many changes in the past fifty years. Primary among these changes are the number of single parent families and the number of mothers who work outside the home. Obviously, children have heavier responsibilities in these families. However, bringing up children to be independent has always been a part of the American culture. At an early age, American children learn to do things on their own. They learn to take care of themselves by cleaning their room, helping with the dishes and the laundry, and spending time away from their parents, either in daycare, with a babysitter, or alone. Older children often do work for other people, such as babysitting or cutting the grass. Most teenagers try to find summer or after-school jobs so that they have their own spending money. While in college, young people usually work part-time and during summer vacations, they work in a variety of jobs ranging from construction work to waiting on tables in restaurants.

When children grow up and have their own family, they usually live very far away from their parents due to the fact that Americans move so often. Even they live very close by, they do not see their parents very often. Most of the relationship between the elderly and their grown-up children is not close.

(Abraham & Mackey, 1997, p. 99)
Focus Sheet II.5-2 Pre-Listening

Imagery Strategy

Make a guess, "What are a father and a daughter talking about?"

(Abraham & Mackey, 1997, p.107)
Focus Sheet II.5-3 Focus-Listening

Tapescript

Listen to two of voice; one is from father and the other one is from his daughter.

Father: My wife and I have two kids. We’re having a real problem with our daughter Shu-yi. She used to be wonderful, but now she’s impossible! At age 17, she has a boyfriend, and she wants to go out alone with him to movies and to parties. We want her to wait until she’s 20 to go out on dates. What’s the hurry? She’s much too young to have a boyfriend. We also don’t want her to go to parties unless we know the family. We take her and pick her up, but we don’t want her to go around along with a boy. Also, she likes to go out with a bunch of friends and come home after midnight. Although we really worry about her, she always says that all her friends do the same things as she does. She doesn’t seem to care about her reputation, but we know how important it is to be a good girl, especially when she’s ready to get married. No one will want to marry a girl with a bad reputation.

Daughter: I don’t understand why my parents always pick on my clothes, hairstyles, and even my boyfriend. They’re completely out of touch. I ask them, “What’s wrong with those?” They usually say, “Why do you have to be against us? Is there anything wrong with our values? When we were young, we spent more time with family, and we always obeyed our parents, and so did our friends…” I don’t think they like me. I feel that only my boyfriend and friends understand me. Why is it so difficult to communicate with them?

(Abraham & Mackey, 1997, p.108-109)

American: Are Chinese parents really strict?
Chinese: Strict by western standards maybe, but we don’t think unreasonably so. Parents are more and more willing to listen to what their children have to say, as you can see by just looking at all of the teenagers wearing fashionable clothes and hairstyles. The entire concept in Taiwan of family has dramatically liberalized in recent decades, resulting in more rights for the child within the family. Oh, a kid can’t run off and play any old time he or she likes, or stay out ‘till all hours of the night, but the previously typical scene of a Chinese boy or girl unquestioningly accepting a parent’s scolding is definitely on the wane.

(Lui, 1995, p. 8)
A. Tell whether these sentences are True (T), false (F), or impossible to know (IM).

1. Shu-yi has always been difficult.
2. Shu-yi can go to parties alone with her boyfriend if her parents know the family.
3. None of Shu-yi’s friends can go out with boys either.
4. Shu-yi will be able to date when she is 17.
5. Shu-yi’s parents think that she should spend more time with family.
6. Shu-yi’s parents don’t worry that she comes home late.
7. According the article, Shu-yi and her parents can communicate very well.
8. In Taiwan, Children have more rights within the family.
9. Parents don’t listen to what their children say.
10. Children can come home late.
11. In Taiwan, parents still scold their children.
12. Teenagers wear fashionable clothes and hairstyles.

B. Circle the letter of the choice with the same meaning as the underlined word.

1. Her reputation is very important.
   a. the way she lives b. what people think c. values about her

2. Did you always obey your parents?
   a. agree with them b. respect them c. do what they say

3. They are completely out of touch.
   a. in contact b. not popular c. not aware

4. They start to date.
   a. go out alone together b. change in age c. feel strongly about each other

5. Do you want me to pick you up?
   a. come to get you b. drive c. put you higher

C. Write down the main idea.
Father


Daughter


Chinese parents
Work Sheet II. 5-5 Post-Listening

Name:
Grade:

D. Interview: Now, stand up and interview five classmates about the following questionnaire.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Your Parents</th>
<th>You</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can you have a boyfriend/girlfriend?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can you go home late?(after 11pm)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should you study hard?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are your parents very strict?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do your parents listen to you?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

E. In your country, what are the most common things that parents worry about? Physical danger, education, friends, violence outside the home or others?
Work Sheet II.5-6 Post-Listening
Game Time!

"I have to ask my parents."

Work in pairs. Student A plays first. When student A meets one of parents (student B plays a parent) and she/he asks a question, student B answers no/yes. Then students switch the roles.

(Grahan, 1979, p. 30)
II.5-7 Test Sheet

Name:
Grade:
Look at the picture and make a guess first. Then listen to the audiotape and write the main ideas.
Focus Sheet II.6-1 Pre-Listening

Prior Knowledge about Gender Differences in American (Reading)

_It begins at the beginning_ by Deborah Tannen

Even if they grow up in the same neighborhood, on the same block, or in the same house, girls and boys grow up in different worlds of words, anthropologists Caniel Maltz and Ruth Borkers summarize research showing that boys and girls have very different ways of talking to their friends. Although they often play together, boys and girls spend most of their time playing in same-sex groups. Their favorite games are different, and their ways of using language in their games are separated by a world of difference.

Boys tend to play outside, in large groups, and their groups have a leader who tells others what to do and how to do it. Boys’ games have winners and losers and systems of rules. Finally, boys frequently argue about who is best at what.

Girls, on the other hand, play in small groups or in pairs; the center of a girl’s social life is a best friend, in their most frequent games, everyone gets a turn. Many of their activities (such as playing house) do not have winners or losers. Girls are expected not to show that they think they are better than the others. Girls don’t give orders; they express their preferences as suggestions. Whereas boys say, “Gimme that!” and “Get outta here!” girls say, “Let’s do this,” and “How about doing that?” Much of the time, they simply sit together and talk.

Read more information about the difference between men and women.

Asking questions: in male-female conversations, the female asks most of the questions. Women see questions as a way to keep a conversation going, while men see them as requests for information, men think, if she wants to tell me something, she’ll tell me. A woman thinks, if I don’t ask, he’ll think I don’t care.

(Gill & Hartmann, 1993, p. 96)
Focus Sheet II.6-2 Pre-listening

Take this test for fun. You may figure out the reason why men and women are not the same.

**Question 1.** Which picture (a, b, c, or d) is the same as the picture on the left?

![Picture Options]

**Question 2.** For one minute, look at the items in Box A. Then cover it up and look at the items in Box B. Cross out (x) anything that wasn’t in Box A. How many items can you find?

![Items in Box A]

(Gill & Hartmann, 1993, p. 94-95)
Focus Sheet II.6-3 Pre-listening
(Continue)

Imagery strategy
Look at the picture and what does the artist think about communication between men and women?

(Gill & Hartmann, 1993, p.94-95)
Focus Sheet II.6-4 Focus-Listening

Tapescript

You are going to listen to Deborah Tannen (an expert on language) and Helen Fisher (an expert on human culture) talk about how women and men think and speak on a talk show.

L. J.: Uh, my impression is that women like to talk a lot, and men don’t like to talk at all...

D.T.: ... Yes, the most frequent complaint by women about relationships with men are-number one-he doesn’t talk to me and number two-he doesn’t listen to me... Um, you comment that you think women talk a lot. I’d really like to explain that in terms of the following anecdote. I was giving a talk in a living room in a suburban area and there were women and men there, there was one couple sitting on the couch, and the woman didn’t talk at all; she didn’t open her mouth the whole evening, and the man was very vocal—one of the most vocal people in the group. It was the end of the evening, I made the observation that women complain that their husbands don’t talk to them, and he volunteered; he spoke up and he said, “That’s absolutely right.” He pointed to his wife, and he said, “She’s the talker in our family.” And this, I think, really captures the question: Who talks more—women and men? Um, everybody laughed in the room as you just did, and he looked hurt, and he said, “But it’s true!” At the end of the day, I come home, and I have nothing to say, and she talks all evening, and if she didn’t, we’d spend the evening in silence.” Who talks more?... At home, in what I call private speaking or rapport talk, that’s when women talk a lot. In public,... then it’s the man that talks more, and women think men talk too much because they’re thinking of the public situation, when they don’t talk. And men think women talk too much because they’re thinking of the at-home situation, where they don’t think talk is necessary.

H.F.: I’m not at all surprised when Deborah said, “Women want to keep talking after the argument because for women, talking is intimacy. I mean, when women get together, they sit face to face and talk... and it’s the reverse for men. I mean, men get intimacy, there’s a great many psychological studies that men get intimacy out of side-by-side doing-doing things together... But I tell you one thing um, back to the basics here, I mean, if men really—if a man really wants to, to please a woman, sit down and talk to her... And if a woman wants to get along with a man, she should do something with him, pick one thing that that man does and do it with him, uh, because that’s intimacy to a man.

(Gill & Hartmann, 1993, p. 96)
Cooperation Strategy

Work in a small group of four, and answer the following questions.

A. According to Deborah Tannen, who talks more—men or women?

B. According to Helen Fisher, how can men make women happy?

C. According to Helen Fisher, how can women make men happy?

D. In your culture, do people complain "Women talk too much, and men don't talk enough"?

E. Deborah Tannen said that women talk a lot in private and men talk a lot in public. Is this true in your culture?

F. Helen Fisher said, "If a man wants to please a woman, sit down and talk to her. And if a woman wants to get along with a man, she should do something with him." Do you agree with this?

G. What's a typical (usual, common) conversation that you have with your friends (male and female)?

(Gill & Hartmann, 1993, p. 97)
Work Sheet II.6-6 Post-Listening

Name:  
Grade:  

(Continue)

Interview: Ask classmates and write down their opinions.

A.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>the U. S.</th>
<th>Taiwan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do boys and girls usually play together?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are their games similar or different?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who plays in large group with a leader?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who probably has one “best friend”?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who plays in small groups?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who gives commands (for example, “give me that!” or “Get out of here!”)?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who probably tells other children: “I’m better then you are”?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B.  

**Male-Female Conversation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In general ...</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Who asks most of the questions?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who uses the words “you” and “we” a lot?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who thinks “Questions keep a conversation going”?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who asks questions when they want information?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who makes more statements of fact or opinion?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who prefers to talk about marriage problems?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who doesn’t like to discuss marriage problems?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Gill & Hartmann, 1993, p. 98)
II.6-7 Test Sheet

Think about the following picture. Then listen to the audiotape and write down the main ideas.

(Abraham & Mackey, 1997, p. 96/185)
II.6-8 Homework Sheet

Name:

Self-Evaluation Strategy

Congratulations! The class is over. Please complete this self-evaluation form in order to assess your learning progress. Students are welcome to meet the teacher if you have questions.

1. The first day of class, what were your main difficulties in listening?

2. What strategies did you really feel useful?

3. Did you enjoy learning from all the activities in class? Why/why not?

4. After the half of the semester, did you feel you improved in listening? Why/why not?

5. Did you like all the homework? Why/why not?

6. By the end of the semester, did you feel more comfortable when you listened to native English speakers? Why/why not?

7. Do you think all the strategies will help you become an active learner? Why/why not?

8. Do you like all the lessons that you have learned? Why/why not?

9. Did you like to work in a small group or an individual? Why/why not?

10. Do you think all the assessments and teacher observation help you? Give yourself a score. Why/why not?
REFERENCES


