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Promoting listening strategies use in elementary English as a foreign language computer-assisted learning environment

Makiko Kojima

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PROMOTING LISTENING STRATEGIES USE IN ELEMENTARY ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMPUTER-ASSISTED LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

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
Makiko Kojima
March 2001
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COMPUTER-ASSISTED LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

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March 2001

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Date March 15, 2001
ABSTRACT

In Japan, English education in elementary schools is still in the process of innovation. At present, English education is taught beginning at the junior high school level at all government schools, but the predominant methodology in English classes is still grammar-translation teaching. Japanese schools should focus on teaching students to speak and listen in English.

Two keys may unlock the pedagogical stalemate of English education in Japan: fostering English communicative competence and introducing English education at the elementary school level. In this project, focusing on listening comprehension strategies, the methodology and the curriculum design of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching at the elementary school level is analyzed.

This project provides a series of innovative teaching concepts and pedagogies for teachers to address their instructional problems, and to plan and evaluate their teaching methods so that students can enjoy learning English.

The purpose of this project is to seek the most appropriate and effective way for elementary-level students to acquire listening skills in a computer-assisted language learning (CALL) environment. Listening strategies emphasize students'
learning processes and promote listening skills. The teacher's role in strategy-based instruction is as facilitator, communicator, and strategy trainer.

This project consists of five chapters. The first chapter, the introduction, provides a background of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Japan. The second chapter, the literature review, investigates the theoretical concepts of this project. The third chapter, the theoretical framework, provides the design and function of the model based on the theoretical concepts in the second chapter. The fourth chapter, the curriculum design, explains the manner in which the concepts of the model fit into the curriculum. The fifth chapter, the assessment, provides a method to evaluate the effectiveness of the instruction. Finally, a unit is presented that incorporates the theoretical framework.
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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

A focus on communicative competence has long been seen as necessary for English education in Japan. At present, English education is taught beginning at the junior high school level at all government schools. The predominant methodology in English classes is still grammar-translation teaching. As a result, the schools mass-produce Japanese students who are not good at speaking or listening to English even though they have studied English for six to ten years. Therefore, it is time to reconsider the pedagogy of English education in Japan. Japanese schools should focus on teaching students to speak and listen in English.

Two keys may unlock the pedagogical stalemate of English education in Japan: fostering English communicative competence and introducing English education at the elementary school level. In this project, I will focus on the methodology and the curriculum design of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching at the elementary school level, and analyze and pursue what future English education at the government elementary schools in Japan should be like.

Present Conditions and Problems of English Education in Japan

Several social conditions influence contemporary English
education in Japan. The first factor is the entrance examinations which are intensive and competitive at the senior high, college, and university level. The necessity to perform well on these exams becomes the "Examination War" or "Examination Hell." English is one of the compulsory components of the entrance examinations at each level. Normally English examinations include reading, writing, and grammar, but not listening or speaking. For this reason, most English classes at the secondary school level are focused on reading, writing, and grammar. The second factor is the lack of knowledge and ability on the part of English teachers for fostering students' communication level. English teachers, on the whole, still continue the conventional way of teaching which is focused on grammar-translation education. Moreover, teacher training courses at the universities have not been sufficient to provide future English teachers the knowledge and skills that are needed for present and future English education in Japan.

In this way, English education at Japanese schools is still based on the old-style methodology that is affected by various social problems, although the necessity of reformation of the present English education is widely recognized. However, the very root that causes these problems is that a strong academic background is still required in Japanese society. For example,
it is believed that the better university or school a student 
gradiuates from, the better job can be obtained. This has 
stimulated the "Examination War."

What English Education is Necessary in Japanese Schools?

The purpose of English learning for Japanese students who 
study it as a foreign language is, I think, to be able to 
communicate with people who are from a variety of countries and 
cultures all over the world. It is said that English is now 
established as an international language which goes beyond the 
walls of countries and cultures. Because of this, English 
education at Japanese schools should be focused on fostering 
communication competence. The school education should be 
changed and reformed to some extent into what is required 
according to the time and the society.

Then, what kind of English education is required at the 
present Japanese schools? First, what they need to do is to 
switch the conventional methodology focused on 
grammar-translation teaching into the new methodology focused 
on the communicative approach. Second, administrators should 
introduce English education to the elementary school level. 
Although there are pros and cons about this idea (Shirahata, 
1994), I strongly agree with the introduction of English 
education to the elementary school level. For I believe that
there is a critical period to start foreign language learning. The "critical period" is referred to as any phenomenon in which there is a maturational change in the ability to learn, with a peak in learning at some maturationally definable period, and a decline in the ability to learn, given the same experiential exposure, outside of this period (Newport, 1991, p. 112). Although the absolute age of the critical period has not yet been discovered by researchers (Danesi, 1994), it is said that it is between the ages of two and ten years. However, in Japan, children start learning English from the age of thirteen, which means the age after the critical period. This is one of the most crucial factors which exacerbates the problems of present English education in Japan, because I believe that developing communication competence in foreign language learning has much to do with starting foreign language learning during the critical period. I am convinced that introducing English education to the elementary school level in Japan would be one of the key factors to solve the present problems in Japanese English education. This initial step would increase future social, economic and cultural ties between Japan and the world.

Present Condition and Problems of English Education at the Elementary School Level in Japan

What prevents the Ministry of Education of Japan from
introducing English to the elementary school level, although some of the other Asian countries have already started English education at the elementary school level (Koike, 1994)?

In fact, English education has already been introduced to some of the private elementary schools in Japan. However, the Ministry of Education has not instituted it at the government elementary schools and it remains at the tentative stage at forty-seven development schools that were assigned by the Board of Education (Koike, 1994). This means that in each of the forty-seven prefectures (provinces or states) in Japan, English education has been introduced in only one government elementary school. One of the reasons why the Ministry of Education has not determined to do so is, as I mentioned before, that there are many arguments from various fields for and against the idea.

The primary argument for introducing English education to the elementary school level in Japan is as follows: elementary students are fit for foreign language acquisition, because they have fresh interest and curiosity, frank ability of expression, and flexible ability of absorption especially in the sound aspect. An argument against it is that the most important acquisition at the elementary school level is communication competence in Japanese. In other words, foreign language learning at the early stage when Japanese language ability is insufficient might
have a negative influence upon the development of Japanese
language learning. Other potential arguments and problems are,
for example, what should be done about securing teachers; what
should be the purpose of English learning; the content of the
curriculum; how students' progress should be assessed; and how
English teaching should relate to the fundamental purpose of
elementary education (Goto, 1994). In addition to these, one
cannot overlook the problems such as the teacher training, and
lack of established methodology and teaching materials.

Target Teaching Level

As is evident, there are many potential problems regarding
the introduction of English education at the elementary school
level in Japan. However, I am convinced that introducing
English education at the elementary school level would
contribute greatly to the development of English education in
Japan, if one could determine the appropriate age/grade to start
English teaching, and could establish the proper educational
goal, effective methodology, and relevant curriculum framework
in English education at the elementary school level. I propose
that starting to learn English before the critical period ends
has a close relation to development of children's communication
competence. Also, elementary school students have a remarkable
aptitude for foreign language learning. I think that this is
valuable in the sense that we can give them an interest and a motivation to study higher levels of English at the time they study junior high, senior high, college, and university. For this reason, elementary school is my target level to teach in Japan.

Proposed Solutions

Then, what are key points that determine success for English education at the elementary school level in Japan? I propose four primary solutions to attain the ideal English education at the elementary school level. First, in so far as purposes, it is important to foster students’ understanding of global issues, intercultural communication competence, and development of logical thinking competence. Second, it is indispensable to incorporate elements of play or game in class activities and to plan classes so that students can enjoy studying. Third, it is essential for Japanese teachers to collaborate with paraprofessionals who are native English speakers, in order to encourage students to acquire accurate pronunciation and natural conversation competence. Fourth, it is necessary to relate English teaching with language activities in other subjects content. For example, by relating English to Japanese, children could understand that English is a language activity itself. Also, it is possible to help them acquire the
ability of analysis, integration, and discussion of materials or information, by relating these to social studies.

If education is a means by which to prepare children for the complicated world that they inhabit, and to give them tools with which to understand new challenges, the educational system should offer and expand English-teaching curricula as early as possible. Research has shown that through foreign language study, elementary school children receive the opportunity to expand their thinking, to acquire global awareness, to extend their understanding of language as a phenomenon, and to reach an advanced proficiency level in that foreign language (Curtain, 1990). Namely, parents, educators, and policymakers should recognize the unique characteristics of the elementary school students and various benefits which are gained by beginning foreign language study at the elementary school level. Also, they should offer and develop foreign language education by making the most use of children’s characteristics and abilities, so that they can acquire not only language communication skills but also a global understanding.

Purpose of the Project

In this project, I am going to analyze what might be the appropriate age/grade to start English learning for Japanese children, taking into account educational, social,
psychological, and biological aspects. Then, I am going to pursue what the methodology and the curriculum should be in the future English education at the elementary schools in Japan.

As I mentioned before, I believe that the introduction of English education at the elementary school level would further the Japanese national interest. Fostering Japanese who have both the ability to communicate with people from other countries and cultures and the global understanding would eventually contribute to the progress of the Japanese situation in the international society. My goal in this project is to design the curriculum which helps students acquire communication competence, and to analyze what methodology makes it possible.

Content of the Project

This project consists of five chapters: introduction (Chapter One), review of the literature (Chapter Two), theoretical framework (Chapter Three), curriculum design (Chapter Four), and proposed assessment (Chapter Five). Chapter One describes the problems of English education in Japan and the purpose of the project. Chapter Two explains how the five main key concepts of this project, which are 1) rationale for elementary school foreign language learning, 2) communicative competence as the goal of language learning, 3) computer-assisted instruction in ESL/EFL, 4) learning
strategies in ESL/EFL, and 5) listening comprehension strategies in second language acquisition for ESL/EFL elementary level students, have evolved in the study of TESOL. Chapter Three gives a theoretical framework that was established based on the combination of all the five key concepts of this project. Chapter Four explains the connection of the instructional lesson units to the theoretical framework that is given in Chapter Three. Finally, Chapter Five proposes the assessment that corresponds to the instructional unit introduced in Chapter Four.

Significance of the Project

The immediate purpose of this project is to pursue a plan by which EFL teachers can develop students’ listening comprehension skills in elementary CALL (computer-assisted language learning) environment, focusing on learning strategies use. This project develops the concept that acquiring listening comprehension strategies would greatly contribute to other language skills, such as reading, writing, and speaking skills. In other words, listening comprehension strategies can be used as a basis of communicative language learning.

Moreover, what should be exaggerated is the teachers’ role in a classroom. Teachers should be facilitators in any situation— even in a CALL environment— who motivate students to learn English. Only the teachers’ passion for language teaching
makes this possible.

The next chapter provides a review of literature about the five key concepts of this project. Chapter Two gives the foundation for the theoretical framework which is presented in Chapter Three.
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Rationale for Elementary Foreign Language Learning

Although the necessity of introducing English education to the elementary school has been long noted in Japan, the Ministry of Education has not formulated a concrete plan of enactment. One of the reasons for this is that there are many arguments from various fields for and against the idea of introducing English education at the elementary level (Shirahata, 1994, p. 32). However, the needs of society at this time demand reform in public elementary education. English education definitely should be mandatory in Japanese schools, with a focus on communication competence. It is particularly urgent that foreign language learning be enhanced before children become adolescents. This means English education must take advantage of the so-called "critical period."

Importance of the Critical Period

The "critical period" is referred as "any phenomenon in which there is a maturational change in the ability to learn, with a peak in learning at some maturationally definable period, and a decline in the ability to learn, given the same experiential exposure, outside of this period" (Newport, 1991, p. 112). Although the absolute age of the critical period has not yet been discovered by researchers, it is said to be between the
ages of two and ten years. However, in Japan, children start learning English from the age of thirteen, after the critical period. This may be one of the most crucial factors which exacerbates the problems of present English education in Japan, because fostering communication competence in foreign language has much to do with starting foreign language learning during the critical period.

Research on the Critical Period

The "critical period" hypothesis, as advanced by Lenneberg (1967), asserts that natural language acquisition by exposure can take place only during the "critical period" in a child's life (Prakash, 1984). Since the introduction of Lenneberg's hypothesis, a number of studies have investigated the question whether there is an age-related limitation on the learning of a second language, assuming that the first language has already been acquired. For example, through the results of psychological investigation, Lambert and Klineberg (1967) showed evidence that children reach an important developmental stage at the age of ten. Also, Curtain and Pesola (1988) showed that children are in the process of moving from egocentricity to reciprocity, and information introduced before the age of ten is eagerly received. Taking a neuroscientific perspective, Danesi (1994) asserted that there exists a "language organ" in
the brain that equips humans by the age of two with the ability to use the rules of a "universal" grammar to develop the specific languages that cultures require of them. From a maturational perspective, Johnson and Newport (1989) stated that there are two aspects of the critical period hypothesis: the first factor is that early in life, humans have a superior capacity for acquiring languages and if the capacity is not exercised during this time, it will disappear or decline with maturation. The second factor is that children will be superior to adults in acquiring a second language as well as a first (p. 79).

Although the critical period hypothesis regarding foreign/second language acquisition has been investigated and argued by many scholars, researchers such as Danesi (1994) have come to the conclusion that there are no clear-cut findings to suggest biological constraints on language acquisition, but, rather, there is considerable influence from psychological factors such as motivation, cognitive style, and affective variables. Also, Scovel (1988) remarks that the critical period applies mainly to the acquisition of pronunciation. This suggests that the hypothesis probably should be recast in order to account for the loss of the ability to acquire native-like pronunciation after puberty. However, acquiring better pronunciation in foreign/second language is crucial in a sense
that children grow communication competence. In fact, Flege (1999) showed that earlier is better in regard to the pronunciation of a second language, judging from the results of recent studies examining the relation between the age of learning second language and degree of foreign accent in the second language. As Seliger (1978) and Walsh and Diller (1981) have suggested, perhaps there are many critical periods corresponding to the various levels, or subsystems, of language. Despite a number of unresolved problems, the critical period concept, as it has evolved, continues to have considerable heuristic value in investigating the language development of learners whose exposure to a new language begins at different ages.

It is difficult to discover the absolute age of the critical period, because it is related to many factors, such as social, biological, psycholinguistic, neuroscientific, neurological, neurophysiological, and anthropological aspects. As Eubank and Gregg (1995) have suggested, perhaps there are many critical periods corresponding to the various levels, or subsystems, of language. Despite this, many researchers presume that the critical period in foreign/second language acquisition would be between ages of two and ten years. If this is true, these ages comprise the elementary school years. Namely, this means
that foreign language education would be more effective if started at the elementary school level.

Rationale for Beginning Foreign Language Learning at the Elementary Level

Curtain (1990) offers a compelling rationale for beginning foreign language study at the elementary level. Her general rationale consists of five parts: that elementary language study would permit a longer sequence of instruction/achievement of proficiency; development of a pro-global attitude; enhancement of cognitive skills; enhancement of communication skills; and last, personal benefits. These will be discussed in turn.

Longer sequence of instruction/achievement of proficiency. Studies by Curtain and Pesola (1988) show that there is a direct correlation between the amount of time devoted to language study and the language proficiency that the students attain. It can be argued, therefore, that children who begin foreign language study in elementary school, and who continue such study for a number of years, have a better chance of developing a high level of foreign language proficiency than do students whose foreign language instruction begins in the post elementary school years. Because the level of proficiency plays a role in the achievement of positive benefits from knowledge of a foreign language, the economic, political, social, and intellectual benefits of
foreign language proficiency are gained, in most cases, when students achieve advanced levels of language skill and cultural understanding.

**Development of a pro-global attitude.** During their elementary school years, children are open to ideas of global understanding. Study of a foreign language and culture can serve as an important vehicle by which to expand their intercultural views. With this expansion, children will have the freedom to explore the wealth of values and perceptions of the world. They will not be restricted to any one narrow view of life or one limited set of options (Carpenter & Torney, 1973).

**Enhancement of cognitive skills.** Foreign language learning enhances cognitive development and basic skills performance in elementary school children. Fuchsen (1989) writes that “foreign language study necessitates the acquisition of new learning strategies because it is foreign; basic to preparation for a changing world is the development of abilities to meet new challenges” (p. 6). This idea that exposure to “foreignness” can lead to cognitive change was well known to Piaget; he believed that cognitive development takes place when a child is faced with an idea or experience that does not fit into his or her realm of understanding (Ginsburg & Opper, 1969). The cognitive conflict becomes the catalyst for new thinking.
Thus, foreign language study becomes the catalyst for cognitive and psychological development in young children because of the "conflict" that such study presents. In addition, children who are adequately exposed to two languages at an early age experience certain gains: they are more flexible and creative, and they reach high levels of cognitive development at an earlier age than their monolingual peers (Curtain, 1990).

Enhancement of communication skills. The study of foreign languages has also been shown to have positive effects on memory and listening skills. While children are developing the ability to communicate in a different language system, they also learn to see languages as a phenomenon in itself. This is known as metalinguistic awareness (Diaz, 1983). Children become aware that language and its objects are independent of one another, and that there are many ways in which to refer to one object. This may also be the reason why language learning skills transfer from one language learning experience to another. Knowledge of one foreign language facilitates the study of a second foreign language (Curtain & Pesola, 1988).

Personal benefits. Many personal benefits can be gained from the study of foreign languages; individuals who study foreign languages and cultures enhance their abilities in international and intercultural communication. They expose
themselves to a global perspective, and enhance their career potential in the ever-growing arena of international trade and cross-cultural professional exchange.

If education is a means by which to prepare children for the complicated world that they inhabit, and to give them tools with which to understand new challenges, the educational system should offer and expand the foreign language curriculum as early as possible. Research has shown that through foreign language study, elementary school children receive the opportunity to expand their thinking, to acquire global awareness, to extend their understanding of language as a phenomenon, and to reach an advanced proficiency level in that foreign language (Curtain, 1990). If the critical period does positively affect foreign/second language learning, then English education should be introduced to the elementary school level as soon as possible.

Parents, educators, and policymakers should recognize various benefits which are gained by beginning foreign language study at the elementary school level, making the most use of children’s characteristics and abilities so that they can acquire not only communication skills but also a global understanding. Communicative Competence as the Goal of Language Learning

The ultimate goal of language learning is that learners are able to communicate in the foreign language. According to Curtain, "the ultimate goal of language learning is to develop communicative competence, which includes the ability to understand and produce language in a natural and meaningful context." This means that learners should be able to use the foreign language effectively in real-life situations, to express their ideas clearly, and to engage in meaningful conversations with native speakers. Communicative competence involves not only grammatical accuracy and vocabulary knowledge, but also the ability to understand and respond to non-verbal cues, to use language appropriately in different contexts, and to adapt their language use to suit different audiences and purposes. elementary school level, making the most use of children’s characteristics and abilities so that they can acquire not only communication skills but also a global understanding. Communicative Competence as the Goal of Language Learning

The ultimate goal of language learning is that learners are able to communicate in the foreign language. According to Curtain, "the ultimate goal of language learning is to develop communicative competence, which includes the ability to understand and produce language in a natural and meaningful context." This means that learners should be able to use the foreign language effectively in real-life situations, to express their ideas clearly, and to engage in meaningful conversations with native speakers. Communicative competence involves not only grammatical accuracy and vocabulary knowledge, but also the ability to understand and respond to non-verbal cues, to use language appropriately in different contexts, and to adapt their language use to suit different audiences and purposes.
Schumann (1972), many studies in foreign language education have emphasized the need to teach students how to communicate in the target language.

Importance of Communicative Competence

The term communicative competence was introduced by Hymes (1972). Hymes criticized Chomsky's (1965) notion of competence as too limited in its failure to consider the social and functional rules of language, and proposed the term communicative competence to represent the use of language in social context, the observance of sociolinguistic norms of appropriacy. At the same time, Savignon (1972) used the term communicative competence to characterize the ability of language learners to interact with other speakers and to make meaning, as distinct from their ability to perform on discrete-point tests of grammatical knowledge.

According to Brown (1994), communicative competence is different from linguistic competence: linguistic competence is knowledge about language forms, but communicative competence contains knowledge and skills that enable people to communicate functionally and interactively. Thus, communicative competence is the aspect of language learners' competence that enables them to "convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts" (Brown, 1994,
That means language is used for social purposes, such as commanding, persuading, negotiating, and developing interpersonal relationships. Thus, when people learn a language, they should also learn when, where, and how to use language appropriately.

According to Canale (1983), communicative competence consists of four components: grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Grammatical competence involves knowing the language code: vocabulary, word formation and meaning, sentence formation, pronunciation, and spelling. This type of competence focuses on the skills and knowledge necessary for the accurate speaking and writing (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995, p. 14). It focuses on sentence-level grammar.

In contrast, discourse competence focuses more on the relationships between sentences. It involves the ability to "connect sentences in stretches of discourse and to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances" (Brown, 1994, p. 228). Discourse could range from simple spoken conversation to long written texts.

Beyond the sentence and discourse levels, sociolinguistic competence "requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: The roles of the participants, the
information they share, and the function of the interaction" (Savignon, 1983, p. 37). The adequacy of an utterance refers to both meaning and form.

Strategic competence involves the manipulation of language in order to meet communicative goals (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995, p. 15). Strategic competence is "the verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to insufficient competence" (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 30). In a follow-up to the previous article, Swain revised her earlier notion of strategic competence to contain "communication strategies that may be called into action either to enhance the effectiveness of communication or to compensate for breakdowns" (Swain, 1984, p. 189).

Chesterfield and Chesterfield (1985) found a natural order of strategies in students’ development of a second language. These incorporate sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic factors. Teachers who are aware of this order can recognize the strategies and use them to build upon students’ developing competence.

Teachers will be specifically able to increase students’ skills in discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence by building experiences into the curriculum that involve
students in solving problems, exploring areas of interest, and designing project. On the other hand, students carry over knowledge of how to communicate from experiences in their first language. This knowledge can be tapped as they develop specific forms and usage in English (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995, p. 16).

Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative competence has been discussed and investigated by many researchers in the field of foreign language teaching. Communicative language teaching (CLT) involves setting up and managing lifelike communicative situations in the language classroom, such as role-plays, problem-solving tasks, or information-gap activities. Moreover, CLT involves leading learners to acquire communicative skills incidentally by seeking situational meaning. That is, learners are not specifically taught the strategies, maxims, and organizational principles that govern communicative language use but are expected to work these out for themselves through extensive communicative task encouragement (Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, & Thurrell, 1997).

As was mentioned earlier, Savignon (1983) suggested that a classroom model of communicative competence includes Canale and Swain's (1980) four components that are grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence,
and strategic competence. She further proposed five components of a communicative curriculum that include language arts, language for a purpose, personal second language (L2) use, theater arts, and beyond the classroom (Savignon, 1997). These elements together help support both theoretical and practical foundations for CLT. Yet it is clear that Savignon (1997) did not rely on these as the sole arbitrator of CLT. In particular, with regard to the four competences, she concluded, "Whatever the relative importance of the various components at any given level of overall proficiency, one must keep in mind the interactive nature of their relationships. The whole of communicative competence is always something other than the simple sum of its parts" (p. 50).

The same could also be said about the five curriculum components. Savignon (1991) cast an even wider net over what influences and challenges are found in the promotion of CLT: "CLT thus can be seen to derive from a multidisciplinary perspective that includes, at least, linguistics, psychology, philosophy, sociology, and educational research. The focus has been the elaboration and implementation of program and methodologies that promote the development of functional language ability through learner participation in communicative events. Central to CLT is the understanding of language
learning as both an educational and political issue" (p. 265).

To be sure, there are other conceptualizations of communicative competence and CLT. For instance, Bachman (1990) charted a theoretical framework for communicative language ability that includes knowledge structures, strategic competence, psychophysiological mechanisms, context of situation, and language competence. Language competence is further divided into organizational competence (grammatical and textual competences) and pragmatic competence (illocutionary and sociolinguistic competences) (Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999). Brown (1994) proposed a definition of CLT to include the following issues: 1) "Classroom goals are focused on all of the components of communicative competence"; 2) "Language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful process"; 3) Fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques"; and 4) "Students ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively" (Brown, 1994, p. 245). Richards and Rodgers (1986) concluded, "Communicative Language Teaching is best considered an approach rather than a method. Thus although a reasonable degree of theoretical consistency can be discerned at the levels of language and learning theory, at the levels of design and
procedure there is much greater room for individual interpretation and variation than most methods permit" (p. 83). These perspectives offer possibilities of what CLT is and give ideas of what can transpire in a L2 classroom.

Communicative competence is "not a complication of items in memory but a set of strategies or creative procedures for realizing the value of linguistic elements in contexts of use, an ability to make sense as a participant in discourse, whether spoken or written, by the skillful deployment of shared knowledge of code resources and rules of language use" (Widdowson, 1978, p. 34). Therefore, language teachers should be sensitive to the importance of teaching foreign or second languages for communicative purposes.

As a country with one of the largest English learning population in the world, Japan should be deeply involved in CLT. However, due to economic, administrative, cultural, and population constraints, and the academic abilities of classroom teachers, Japan has to work to adapt CLT to local conditions. Problems occurring in English education in Japan seem to mostly depend on the traditional grammar-translation teaching styles. Motivated classroom teachers are the potential key to overcoming the existing constraining factors, if teachers can be provided applicable linguistic and psychological theories and useful
methods through stimulating teacher training courses.

Computer-Assisted Instruction in ESL/EFL

The advent of computers has enriched the concept of communication and has created a new technological sublanguage. As to this movement, the use of computers in language education has become increasingly popular because studies show that it has the potential to advance English proficiency in ESL/EFL classrooms by involving students actively.

In Japan, as well as the other Asian countries, rapid industrialization, globalization, and the need to access the Internet have created a further need to learn English. Despite this necessity, however, computers have not been sufficiently and effectively used in English education at Japanese schools. Based on the result of the research on the frequency of using computers in English class in Japan, Ito (1999) shows that only 20.6 percent of the Japanese junior high school teachers have used computers during English class at least once per term. Some of the top reasons that prevent teachers from using computers are as follows: insufficient time for English class (the average hours of English class per week is less than four hours) and the lack of appropriate instructional materials, management, and budget for computer use in English class (p. 67).

However, it is urgent to establish effective computer use
in English education in Japan. Cotton and Wikelund (1997) state that "the 'information age' has clearly arrived and in the '90s the educational use of computer technology will surely continue to grow" (p. 1). Although there are many problems that prevent the use of computer in English education in Japan, if these restrictions were reduced, the computer use in English education would be promoted to a greater degree. In order to realize the sufficient and effective use of computers in English class, it is important for all people who are concerned with education, such as teachers, educators, administrators, and parents, to recognize the importance of computer use in English education.

Definitions of CBI, CMI, CAI, CALL, and MCALL

There are a variety of terms for computer-based instruction according to its characteristics and instructional functions. Below, definitions for each term are offered.

**Computer-based instruction (CBI).** CBI is a general term which refers to "all kinds of educational computer use which includes individual learning activities and instructed computer activities, such as tutorials, simulations, drill and practice, word processors, database, instructional management, and other applications" (Yu, 1997, p. 12). Computer-managed instruction (CMI) and computer-assisted instruction (CAI) are two divisions of CBI.
Computer-managed instruction (CMI). CMI refers to using a computer system "to manage information about learner performance and learning recourse options in order to prescribe and control individualized lessons" (Bozeman & Baumbach, 1995, p. 26). Teachers may use CMI when they guide students to appropriate learning resources; for example, by organizing students’ data and making instructional activities, or evaluating students’ performance and keeping track of their progress (Buake, 1982; Lin, 1995; Cotton & Wikelund, 1997).

Computer-assisted instruction (CAI). CAI refers to the use of a computer as a teaching tool to help teachers and students to complete instructional goals (Bourne, 1990). According to Chapelle and Jamieson (1986), CAI has evolved around three distinguishable instructional ideas: individualization, record keeping, and answer judging. Individualization in CAI refers to the fact that the computer enables students to work alone and at their own pace. Record keeping in CAI is beneficial for providing the student and/or teacher with a profile of the student’s mastery of material. Also, it is beneficial in the area of research; data can be collected to search for patterns in students’ learning. Answer judging is the third advantage of CAI. This occurs after students answer a question posed by the computer; the computer informs them whether the answer is
right or wrong, and if the answer is wrong, the program provides students with a meaningful explanation as to why.

**Computer-assisted language learning (CALL).** CALL is a more specific term which "concerns the use of computers to assist in second or foreign language (L2) instructional activities" (Dunkel, 1991, p. 28). In short, CALL is CAI applied to second language learning.

According to Wyatt (1984), the potential roles within CALL are grouped into three main categories: the roles of instructor, collaborator, and facilitator. The instructional role, which has been historically identified as CAI, has two predominant types of activity: drill-and-practice exercises and tutorial programs (Frederick, 1980). Drill-and-practice programs are designed to provide students, who are assumed to have already received an introduction to the topic, with carefully structured opportunities to use and master the relevant points. On the other hand, tutorial CALL takes on the burden of introducing the topic to students, assuming little or no prior introduction. In tutorial CALL, there are often elaborate branching possibilities to provide extra instruction and practice for students who experience difficulty in grasping the material. Both drill-and-practice and tutorial programs generally have associated management systems that can provide extensive score
and progress reports to students and their teachers. In the instructional role, the computer program presents material and conducts practice activities as an authority figure. It teaches students in a highly preplanned fashion, and they have only to follow the directions and work at producing the anticipated language forms and responses (Wyatt, 1984, p. 7).

The distinguishing characteristic of the second role, collaborative CALL, is that the initiative is turned over to the student or group of students. Sometimes the end result of the activity will be predetermined, and sometimes it will be completely unpredictable. More important, the path to the final goal and the language used by students will vary quite widely because these will depend on the students' individual decisions. In other words, students are themselves responsible for initiating and directing the activities that occur in the learning environment (Wyatt, 1984, p. 7).

The third category consists of facilitative applications of the computer. Here, the computer simply serves as a tool in other language-learning activities (Coburn, Kelman, Roberts, Snyder, Watt, & Weiner, 1982). It should be emphasized that the "other activities" referred to are not necessarily computer-assisted activities. For example, a writing class can be taught in an entirely traditional manner except that some
or all of the writing assignments are done using a computer as a word processor. Through its ability to store each draft of an assignment and provide easy editing techniques, the computer can greatly facilitate the writing process (Wyatt, 1984, p. 8). Similarly, a potential role for the computer in reading classes is that of electronic dictionary (Jamieson & Chapelle, 1986).

Multimedia computer-assisted language learning (MCALL). MCALL is the combination of multimedia and CALL. Here, multimedia is defined as "a combination of video and audio instructional materials on a common platform in hypertext format" (Soo & Ngeow, p. 3, 1998). Soo and Ngeow (1998) state, "traditional CALL software concentrated on teaching about language rather than showing learners actual instances of language interaction as they occurred. By comparison, multimedia is a far more powerful medium than CALL and its comparison with traditional CALL should be done as cautiously as when one compares the computers of today with those of a decade ago" (p. 3). MCALL provides a data-rich and intellectually stimulating learning environment that allows learners to engage in constructive higher-order learning. Because multimedia technology has only recently matured and its application in education and language learning is far from advanced, its alleged effectiveness needs to be further researched.
As was described, there are a variety of terms for computer-based instruction according to its characteristics and instructional functions. Recently, MCALL may be the most powerful way of instruction in a classroom. But it is certain that the possibility of CAI would increase more and more in the future according to the growth of technologies.

The Benefits Offered by Computer-Assisted Instruction in ESL/EFL

Computer-assisted instruction contributes to a variety of beneficial outcomes in ESL/EFL learning and teaching. As a result of the study, "Computer-Assisted Metacognitive Strategies and the Reading Comprehension Skills of ESL Elementary School Students," Carrasquillo and Nunez (1988) give practical implications for ESL teachers, curriculum developers, and reading instructors as follows: 1) the use of the computer as a medium of instruction enables students to work at their own pace while acquiring metacognitive skills; 2) the flexibility and adaptability of the computer technology allows students to recreate situations, repeat tasks, and manipulate their own learning process; and 3) computer-aided reading instruction can promote comprehension when metacognitive strategies are programmed into software.

In addition to this, Wyatt (1984) emphasizes some other benefits of computer-assisted instruction in ESL/EFL. First of
all, he mentions "interactivity" as the important advantage of computers in education in a sense that computer programs respond differently and appropriately to the "best" answer, alternative correct answers, predicted wrong answers, and other wrong answers. Thus, immediate and informative feedback can be provided, and students are generally kept continuously aware of the results of their use of language. The second benefit is what computers in education effectively offer to the learning process. Wyatt states, "Well-designed programs are highly student centered. One facet of this is self-pacing: students are generally given complete control over the speed of presentation of material. For example, while students are answering questions, the program will not continue until the students take the necessary action at every step. Moreover, the emotionally neutral tone and absence of a peer group audience permit students to take risks, make mistakes, and try again to a much greater extent than they might be willing to do in the 'public' classroom" (p. 16). Wyatt's third benefit is "individualization" (p. 16). As only one student is assumed to be using the material, it can be designed to adapt to individual strengths and weakness. Students experiencing problems may be given messages pinpointing the difficulty, followed by repeated opportunities to try again. The fourth benefit listed by Wyatt
is "extensive class administrations and management" (p. 17). Detailed records of student usage, scores, and performance can be maintained for the information of both teachers and students. Moreover, course grades and statistics can be computed and printed out to the teacher's specifications. The last benefit is the "pedagogical effectiveness of instructional CALL materials" (p. 17). Wyatt mentions that qualitative studies have been reported that fit in with the intuitive evidence of ESL teachers who have used instructional CALL materials with very positive results in terms of student acceptance and satisfaction (p. 18).

Soo and Ngeow (1998) state another benefit of computer use in education: cost effectiveness. During their process of research on MCALL, they found that "the MCALL program yielded a fifty percent improvement over teacher-taught classes in 31 percent less time at potentially 83 percent less cost" (p. 6).

Thus, there are many benefits in computer-assisted instruction in ESL/EFL. These benefits would greatly contribute to the advancement of effective second language learning. However, one cannot overlook that there are also limitations in the use of CAI.

The Limitations of Computer-Assisted Instruction in ESL/EFL

Despite many benefits of computer-assisted instruction in
ESL/EFL, there are some problems and misunderstandings that keep teachers from using the computer as a tool. Lewis and Doorlag (1991) warn that computers may replace teachers yet focus on low-level skills for rote memory exercises. Also, Kennedy (1989) points out that the computer is no more than a sophisticated piece of technological hardware that can be used well or badly (p. 65).

**Inadequate teacher training.** Teacher training is important, and is the most neglected element in the area of computer-assisted learning. Classroom teachers should have training in using the computer application, and need to be highly involved in using software so that they can deal with the difficulties that students may encounter. However, the teacher training for this requires a considerable amount of time. Moreover, school administration does not often provide adequate teacher training. But it is urgent to establish qualified teacher training for computer-assisted instruction in ESL/EFL that enables teachers to experience and share the power of technology (Soo & Ngeow, 1998, p. 8).

**Negative attitudes of the teacher.** Another barrier which prevents teachers from using computers in education can be psychological (Kait, 1996). In fact, some teachers have a negative image about the computer. They are afraid that
computers may replace them; or they do not have the confidence to acquire totally the necessary knowledge and skills. Through workshops on computer-assisted instruction, the concept of the computer as a teaching medium should be clearly stated to keep conservative teachers accept this technology (Simonson & Thompson, 1994).

Financial problems and technical matters. Not only computer software and hardware but also other new technologies, such as interactive video or other multimedia equipment, are very expensive. One of the difficulties in school computer use is a lack of up-to-date hardware and software. According to Simonson and Thompson (1994), "most school systems are not financially equipped to replace computer equipment every two or three years, as the rate of development of the industry would dictate" (p. 134). In addition, CAI requires a special classroom, along with technicians to keep the computers working properly.

As was mentioned, some of the biggest restrictions that keep CALL from being incorporated into the EFL curriculum correlate to the lack of the teacher’s understanding of its importance. However, what should be emphasized is that the teacher’s role is always most important even in a CALL environment. Even in the future, computers will never replace
teachers though they are much more developed and are able to even communicate with people. In this sense, what is urgent is that teachers understand both benefits and limitations and effectively incorporate CAI into ESL/EFL curriculum.

Learning Styles in Computer-Assisted Instruction in ESL/EFL

According to Oxford (1990), learning is conscious knowledge of language rules and is derived from formal instruction (p. 4). Recent learning theories show that learning is an active process of constructing meaning rather than acquiring knowledge (Soo & Ngeow, 1998). Instruction should then be a process of supporting that process of construction, not merely transmitting knowledge (Duffy & Cunningham, 1995). This construction process requires each learner to individually construct his/her own understanding of a concept by solving authentic problems. This is based on interacting with an environment that includes other learners using the target language in authentic situations. Because learners are central to this meaning construction process, they must have ownership of the learning process as well as the problem itself (Savery & Duffy, 1995). Therefore, students should be given autonomy in setting up their personal learning objectives and given responsibility for their own learning (Mar-Molinero & Wright, 1993).

There is strong evidence that individuals process
information differently depending on their learning styles (Dunn & Griggs, 1995). According to Reid (1995), learning style is defined as “an individual’s natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, processing and retaining new information and skills.” Learning styles are assumed to be heavily influenced not only by the individual but also by culture. It is more than likely that every classroom will have several dominant learning styles co-existing. To make matters more interesting, good learners may use several learning styles in quick succession. Hinkelman and Pysock (1992) found that “learners with mixed modality strengths may have a better chance of success than those with a single modality strength because they can process information in whatever way it is presented.” Soo and Ngeow (1998) state that it is almost impossible for a single teacher to cater to several learning styles simultaneously but MCALL inherently has the potential to do so.

What Can CALL Software Do?

There are many software programs that teach ESL and EFL. Rote memorization drills are clearly no longer the sole means to learn language. Language software uses a variety of approaches to teach language skills. Some software even uses cutting-edge speech recognition software to enable students to hear dialogs from native speakers. Others incorporate humor and
colorful graphics on video, audio tapes and CD-ROM to provide a multiple-format approach to language learning. There are also translation tools available that can be used by students or teachers to translate foreign languages into English. Moreover, search programs enable users to browse the Internet to visit the many resources available on the subject of language learning (Claybourne, 1999).

Especially, multimedia software may truly motivate students and enrich the ESL/EFL learning environment. It is often amazing to see what happens when students receive individualized support and extended language practice opportunities. For example, video production and television programming introduced to enhance the interaction with the multimedia components may greatly contribute to students’ successful acquirement of communication skills. In multimedia projects in the classroom, students learn how to operate the camera, use the microphone, develop questions for on-street interviews, write scripts for television, create a storyboard, and produce a commercial, public service announcement, or short production. These students may gradually become more proficient in English usage, writing and speaking. The video camera enables them to review their presentations before the final production. Practicing, previewing, and revising their
presentations will thrust students into using English more than ever before (Bowman & Plaisir, 1996).

Review of the Computer Software for Applicability in ESL/EFL

In this section, a number of multimedia computer programs that provide opportunities for exposure and production are examined and analyzed in order to evaluate their relative merits as means to developing the target language.

Listening and vocabulary. There are several advantages that computers have over the audio recorder: listening to voices in a visual context create a stronger memory link than voices alone; plus instant, accurate playback enables students to hear a particular part of a segment without searching tediously through an audiotape, which is quite difficult even on an audiotape player with a counter. These seem to imply that students can receive input faster with computers unlike out-to-date technology. The ease of the replay system and the student’s ability to control it makes the CALL environment a very rich source of listening input, especially when dealing with the full contextual support of multimedia (Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 190).

Probably one of the earliest multimedia programs, The Rosetta Stone (1995) is popular amongst schools, tourists, and other casual language learners. The Rosetta Stone begins by
presenting individual words at the zero level (in any one of a dozen or so languages) in several display modes (photos, text, and sound), offering learners the option of recording and a testing mode, which allows students to either type words or click the mouse on the appropriate photo or text. As learners progress through the multiple skill levels, full sentences are then introduced. Students can use listening as a mean of testing themselves (with or without simultaneously seeing the text) and clicking on a photo, or they can simply listen to the labels on the photos read in sequence. In the full school version, test scores are then kept in a permanent student file for the teacher to review (Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 190).

The Rosetta Stone (1995) has had a lot of popularity, and teachers report that their adult students love it. Despite the beautiful photos, however, there are three very strong critiques of using this software as a valid input device for language development: 1) There are neither contextualized words nor sentences beyond the photos, which are unrelated to each other, and therefore, there is no story line, character development, or coherent setting; 2) there is no social contextualization; and 3) being that the computer is not a good conversation partner, there is no built-in opportunity for interaction (Hanson-Smith, 1999, pp. 190-192).
Another favored software for language input is the point-and-click environment, as, for example, in Community Exploration (1994). One of the pioneer programs in multimedia language software, Community Exploration has been used remarkably well. Instead of showing unrelated photos on a screen, landscapes and rooms with people, actions, and objects are presented in a naturalistic association. From an overview of a city, users are able to click on a building to enter it. They click figures displayed on screen to hear a word and one or more sentences related to the setting. Students zoom in from a city scene to specific neighborhoods and buildings that provide the context in which to explore words and sentences. Sound effects and short, sometimes humorous animations enhance the realism and motivates the student to explore further. Students may also record their voices, as well as save their vocabulary tests scores to a file.

One problem faced with this software program is the overuse of its special effects, that is, exaggerated sound effects or animation that, despite its entertainment value, may keep students from learning the words. Often times, this problem presents itself in software targeted toward children. The latent assumption seems to be that children can only be amused or entertained rather than taught, an approach that devalues
the learning process (Hanson-Smith, 1999, pp. 192-193).

Discourse. Although Community Exploration (1994) allows students to listen to words and sentences and easily to record their own voices for vocal comparison, the software does not focus on the discourse functions of language. Two CD-ROMs, Learning English: Home and Family (1994) and Learning English: Neighborhood Life (1994) were simultaneously developed along with Community Exploration. They are based on dialogues and narratives appropriate to a typical situation that a newcomer may face in the United States (Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 196).

Each dialogue presented in the phases of the software provides a naturalistic language input punctuated by drawings, animations, and sound effects. The script is provided for reading input. Testing in the software involves having students select on scale items in the market and move boxes into a new home using the mouse. The heightened interactivity of the software should not be confused with sociolinguistic interactions between people, although the short narratives and dialogues model these well in the presentation mode (Hanson-Smith, 1999, pp. 196-197).

Two other program softwares that present naturalistic settings, discourse, and human action for adult learners are MacESL (1992) and Accelerated English (1995). Both programs
present narratives based on many typical situations, such as finding employment, interviewing for a job, and renting a home, through the use of sound and animated drawings as well as through text and sound. The presentations are followed by practice in completing cloze passages, matching sentence halves, ordering the story, and so on. This allows learners to access input in a variety of ways, for example, reading and listening to the text or viewing the animated drawings while listening to the script. While taking advantages of their preferred learning modes, students are able to gain entry into the language. In both programs, students can record their own voice in order to compare it with the model (Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 197).

Although many software programs take full advantage of the computer’s ability to handle sound and graphics, Quick English (1997) goes a step further by providing video-based dialogues that allow the high intermediate to advanced learner to listen to realistic-sounding conversations that take place in typical work or home venues. Students can then listen to and watch the video with or without seeing the text, read the script and review the video, and later take a test. One original feature of the software is that students can branch a conversation to alternate versions of the videos; one might contain a negative response to a question as well as another containing a positive response.
Thus, students can thus reuse the same video passage several times as a way to practice various structures (Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 198).

As an addition to stand-alone or networked multimedia software designed for ESL/EFL learners, the Internet provides a number of free, authentic listening resources that are particularly appropriate as input for intermediate to advanced learners (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1. Authentic Language Sources
(Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 199)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>URL</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MTV Online</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Internet Movie Database</td>
<td><a href="http://us.imdb.com/">http://us.imdb.com/</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>Voice of America's home page</td>
<td><a href="http://www.voa.gov/">http://www.voa.gov/</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>CNN Interactive</td>
<td><a href="http://www.cnn.com/">http://www.cnn.com/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA Today</td>
<td><a href="http://www.usatoday.com/">http://www.usatoday.com/</a></td>
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Advances in push-pull or "streaming" technology, which allows the smooth play of audio files and live videoconferencing, will provide increasing opportunities to use the Web for both real-time and asynchronous listening activities and conversations (see Duber, 1997; Li, 1998; Trickel, 1997; and see Table 2.2).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interactive World Wide Web Pages for Students</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 517)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CNN San Francisco:</td>
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<td>Interactive Learning Resources</td>
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Table 2.2. Interactive World Wide Web Pages for Students
(continued)

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<tr>
<td>PIZZAZ!</td>
<td><a href="http://darkwing.uoregon.edu/~leslieob/pizzaz.html">http://darkwing.uoregon.edu/~leslieob/pizzaz.html</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schumann's Foreign Language Tests/Exercises</td>
<td><a href="http://ourworld.compuserve.com/homepages/joschu/">http://ourworld.compuserve.com/homepages/joschu/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Smithsonian Institution</td>
<td><a href="http://www.si.edu">http://www.si.edu</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking About Daily Routines</td>
<td><a href="http://grove.ufl.edu/~krickel/teslmini/activity.html">http://grove.ufl.edu/~krickel/teslmini/activity.html</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.2. Interactive World Wide Web Pages for Students (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The University of Maine</th>
<th><a href="http://www.ume.maine.edu/">http://www.ume.maine.edu/</a></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing Center Online</td>
<td>wcenter/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welcome to the White House</td>
<td><a href="http://www.whitehouse.gov/">http://www.whitehouse.gov/</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, CD-ROMs are now "being developed with Internet links" sometimes referred to as connected CD so that students may watch a video on the CD-ROM" (Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 199).

Reading. The second major mode for language learning input is reading. Although a combination of skills, such as skimming, scanning, and predicting the meaning of words in context, is useful, extensive reading for meaning and the ability to read large amounts of text at nativelike speed is also important.

Beyond skills, reading with a purpose can provide beneficial target language input in an interactive setting. However, for more holistic, extensive reading input, the computer has definite disadvantages (see Table 2.3).

None of these drawbacks is serious when the texts are relatively short. Also, despite these shortcomings, the computer provides several clear advantages over written texts.
Table 2.3. Disadvantages of Computer Use for Reading
(from Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 200)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disadvantage</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eyestrain</td>
<td>Reading from a monitor produces serious eyestrain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eye-focus Continuity</td>
<td>The breaks between screens can disrupt the flow of reading far more than page turning can, as students must guide the mouse pointer to a button or scroll bar in order to advance to the next screen. In so doing, the eyes leave the text and must reposition themselves. By contrast, students can turn pages in a book without changing their visual focus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size of Print</td>
<td>Pages are usually much smaller on screen than in a book and contain less text, further disrupting the cognitive work the mind performs in predicting and constructing larger meanings from words, sentences, and paragraphs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Many multimedia programs, even those not written specifically for language learners, allow teachers to take advantage of the computer's sound capabilities to read the text aloud, often while highlighting individual words or sentences. For example, in Destination: Ocean (1995) and other software in the Imagination Express series, targeting native-English-speaking middle school students, learners can
click on the audio option to hear the text read; each word highlights as it is spoken.

A second advantage that computers have over written texts is that, in paced reading, the need to scroll rather than turn pages can operate to the learner’s advantage, which can slow down reading for meaning otherwise. This means that the computer can be set to scroll pages automatically at a certain rate. NewReader (McVicker, 1995) uses this function with any plain-text file imported into the software by either a teacher or a student. The student sets a pace on the slide bar located at the bottom of the screen, and a line guides the eye downward through the text.

The teacher should prepare several global comprehension questions to ensure that students do not become bored, when using paced reading activities; however, even without follow-up, setting a reading pace of about 350 words per minute can give college-bound, motivated adult students a good idea of the reading speed that an academic degree will require of them.

A third advantage of using computers for reading is that hypertext or hypermedia links allow instantaneous glosses in the form of pictures, animations, video, and related reading material. When using hypermedia, teachers need to set up specific guidelines for students to follow as they use their
mouse. For example, the teacher need to specify that before the students click on any links, they should read the entire passage or essay and then return to the beginning of the reading (Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 203).

One particularly clear advantage of the CALL environment is the computer’s ability to give contextual support in a wide variety of media programs made for students attempting to read in the form of content. Some CD-ROM programs provide a multimedia-based lesson plan as well. Macmillan/McGraw-Hill’s Multimedia Literature series is one of the best packages of CALL reading support. Each one of the software program are intended for the middle-school-level native speaker, and is directly linked to fictional or non-fictional text in the curriculum. Due to the softwares the intelligent array of cognitive support, this program is readily adaptable to the intermediate-level nonnative speaker of the same age. For example, in Do Not Disturb (1995), the learner uses a simulated tracking beeper and binoculars to observe and take notes of a bear in a little on-screen journal. Then, specifying in the answer to each question where they got the information, students use the textbook, a diagram of the bear, short videos, and their own notes to answer questions about bear’s habits. Before having access to the diagram and video, students first must prepare
a checklist based on past knowledge about what they believe. While students' view and listen to the video, they confirm or correct their initial predictions. Finally, students use both their notes and their answered questions to write a paper based on a set of writing prompts. Papers are peer edited using another set of prompts for evaluation already built into the software. The educational value of this program is clear, and the cognitive skill-building and vocabulary development aspects of this software is highly developed (Hanson-Smith, 1999, pp. 204-205). For somewhat younger students, there is another similarly well-designed series of software, Discoveries, by Houghton Mifflin, presents an attractive 360-degree photo of a natural habitat. Discoveries: In the Desert (1995), for example, allows users to explore the southwestern desert scene from the United States, allowing users to click on a number of various animals and plants for reference information. The entrance to the library is a cabin set in the panorama, where further information about the desert and its inhabitants may be found. Advantages of multimedia support for content-based vocabulary and reading input and writing activities is made clear by this software (Hanson-Smith, 1999, pp. 205-206). Teachers are beginning to consider the Internet as a marvelous source of free multimedia reading materials, generally
aimed towards the sixth to eighth grade level of native speaker. Project Gutenberg (http://www.gutenberg.net/) collects copyright-free texts worldwide and places them in an on-line archive where users can access them on the Internet. Both teachers and students may download these materials and use them either as on-screen texts or printed out on paper for reading. In addition, there is a vast array of media-supported reading on the Web contains. Sites on science, history, and culture are available and often not only come with audiovisual support but also have a relation to television programs. Another good source of reading materials with visual support are travel and tourism sites on the Web. As the numerous photos, audio files, and videos give context to the written articles, news sites, such as CNN Interactive (http://www.cnn.com/) or USA Today (http://www.usatoday.com/), are particularly useful for intermediate-level learners of English. CNN San Francisco: Interactive Learning Resources (1998, http://www.cnnsf.com/education/education.html) not only provides reading materials prepared at a beginning level of English, but also includes comprehension questions scored on-line along with writing suggestions. Classline: The Daily Teaching System (1997, http://www.usatoday.com/classline/clfront.htm) provides a daily lesson plan using the news, entertainment, and sports
stories of USA Today (Hanson-Smith, 1999, pp. 203-204).

Speaking. Ideally, listening and speaking occur together in an interaction that fosters such desirable social goals as maintaining friendships, group identification, and saving face as well as the exchange of information. However, language learners tend to not have any opportunities in interacting with native speakers in a meaningful way. Before plunging into the deep waters of real conversation, the CALL environment may be an ideal safe haven for learners to practice interaction between native speakers (Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 207).

Due to the early limitations of technology, the older computer software focused primarily on non-oral output from the learner. However, voice technology is increasingly allowing learners to give spoken responses as well. For example, in the Triple Play Plus! series (Syracuse Language Systems/Random House), which provides French, Spanish, and English, the learner are able to order food at a café. The computer responds only if it understands what the student has said. In a similar vein, in TRACI Talk: The Mystery (1997), by speaking to the computer the student helps solve a mystery (Hanson-Smith, 1999, pp. 207-208).

Because computer’s speech recognition capability is still fairly limited, users must choose one of several fixed answers
for the software to recognize the spoken response. Moreover, speech recognition does not help with accent reduction, though the software recognizes even a heavy nonnative accent as long as the whole utterance can be compared to the canned script. Even given these limitations, speech recognition technology is able to provide learners with a positive whole language experience that prepares them for interaction with conversation partners outside the lab. Talking to a machine can be still less intimidating than talking to a human (Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 208).

The web sites of the producers of several television series (e.g., National Geographic Society, http://www.nationalgeographic.com/; NOVA Online, 1997, http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/nova/) currently have interesting materials that foster interactive use of television or video. In PBS TeacherSource (1998, http://www.pbs.org/teachersource/), there are tips and lesson plans to accompany PBS shows; A&E Classroom: Classroom Materials Pages (1997, http://www.aetv.com/class/teach/) offers materials which are designed to be used with A&E Television Network shows. Many of these Web sites offer live chat on-line as well. The interactivity possible on the Web is increasingly being cross-linked with the more passive television broadcast system (Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 210).
Writing. The extensive use of the word processor for composition is one of the most significant advances in the teaching of language. When students are freed by technology to write at length and revise globally, the focus shifts from local corrections to communication and from recopying to reorganizing. Furthermore, writing becomes a communicative act between reader and writer, when students find an authentic audience beyond the teacher and participate in peer editing (Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 210).

In a more formal composition classroom, software that encourages peer interaction has come to play an increasing role in the teaching of writing. Software such as Daedalus Integrated Writing Environment (DIWE, 1997), CommonSpace (1997), and Web-B-Mail (Pfaff-Harris, 1996) allows students to form small groups electronically (either within one classroom on an local area network [LAN] or across the world on the Internet) so as to brainstorm ideas, read and respond to each other’s writing with comments in margin-windows, and assist in peer editing and evaluation. Because of the function that each member’s contribution is saved to a file or bulletin board for all to see, the teacher and the group leader can easily keep track of each member’s contributions and maintain the direction of the discussion or review the previous discussion in order
Another advantage of an electronic writing environment is that the teacher can switch from group to group on-line and read the entire transcript of the discussion up to that moment without making any learner self-conscious, instead of popping in to hear one student for a few seconds. At the end of the session, the entire transcript is saved, and each participant is able to get a printout to take home. This kind of interaction can produce considerable depth of thought and a sense of an authentic audience because the peer group, not the teacher, determines the course of discussion. Another important advantage is that the peer group do not have to be physically present in any one geographic space (Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 211).

In a classroom, the teacher may organize the electronic discussion groups across generations and language differences and furnish a specific set of questions in order to brainstorm or to review and analyze the content of an essay. Email Projects Home Page (Gaer, 1997, http://www.otan.dni.us/webfarm/emailproject/email.htm), which is designed for beginning students, provides a simple form for reporting on readings and a place to post written comments on other's writings. More advanced level students may be guided to develop their own focused discussion questions for readings and rubrics for
HUT Interneb Writing Project (Vilmi, 1998, http://www.hut.fi/~rvilmi/Project/) offers ideas for discussion and composition either on the Web, as students across the globe read the same materials, or in a classroom if only LAN access is available. Many Web sites provide chat rooms or bulletin boards that allow students to interact at their own pace with native speakers. For example, Biography Magazine (1997, http://www.biography.com/read/) has message boards on movie stars, historical figures, and even mythical and fictional characters, a wonderful writing supplement to a reading unit or course. Also, Heinle & Heinle Museum of Cultural Imagery (1996, http://www.thomson.com/heinle/museum/welcome.html) has pictures of friends from different cultures in various settings around the world, a “schoolroom” where students may write poems or responses to stories and photos, and a “café,” that is, a bulletin board on which to converse with others about the stories they have posted and about cross-cultural issues. These sites give learners many opportunities to express themselves in a variety of language and thought modes (Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 212).

Choosing the right software. The software must provide a wide range of materials on all levels of difficulty, in a variety of formats, with a diversity of appeal. It must also be compatible with the current district computer, computer systems
and networks. It is most important that students are comfortable and will actually use the programs (Northup & Tracy, 1998).

According to Northup and Tracy (1998), there are some important questions to be asked when educators choose the best language teaching software programs (see Table 2.4).

The exiting, interactive nature of multimedia software programs truly helps students feel more confident as they tackle their unfamiliar and difficult language acquisition (Northup & Tracy, 1998).

Table 2.4. Questions to Ask in Choosing Right Software (Northup & Tracy, 1998)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>For ESL programs, are the majority of the students from one native language (i.e., Spanish) or variety of different native languages?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level of</td>
<td>For ESL, what are the levels of English proficiency: students with no English at all; those who have some conversational English, those who need grammar help, etc.?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proficiency</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capability</td>
<td>For both foreign language and ESL programs, what are the capabilities of existing hardware, speed and size of computers, number of computers, etc.?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of Computers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

60
Table 2.4. Questions to Ask in Choosing Right Software
(continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Capability of Network</th>
<th>Is the software program networkable? Will it be used in the lab or on an individual computer?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cost</td>
<td>How much money is available to spend on the software? This may seem obvious, but understanding budget limitations will help to focus the search for best value.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The CALL environment gives students the opportunity to engage in many different styles of learning and to expand their relatively impoverished classroom environments with the excitement of contact with exotic environments and the global community. Although computer technology is at present still only groping toward ideal ease of use and interaction, many recent innovations—super-high-speed processors, digital videodisc, streaming, wireless connections, Web TV, and connected Web CD-ROM—will enhance the CALL environment further (Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 215). In the future, multimedia may become as easy to use as the telephone and considerably simpler to use than the videocassette recorder or audiotape deck. In the meantime, both software and Internet sites give the language teacher an exceedingly rich ser of resources to enhance input.
The Roles of the Teacher in Computer-Assisted Instruction in ESL/EFL

Soo and Ngeow (1998) define the roles of the teacher as follows: "The teacher is no longer a transmitter of knowledge; rather he or she has become a mentor and a manager of the learning environment to aid his or her students in constructing knowledge. The teacher’s main task is creating a learning environment that will provide learners with opportunities to experience the content they are learning" (p. 2). But this construction process is not always an easy task, and supporting the learners can be a demanding job.

On the other hand, computers can help in this complex role. However, it is the teacher who plays a key role throughout. It is true that the computer serves another vital function, but it is no substitute for the teacher (Cheung, 1987, p. 8). Stewart (1983) states that the "computer will never replace the good teacher" and indeed may well require one for proper use" (p. 74).

In return, the teacher will need to acquire a measure of technical expertise to do basic maintenance on the hardware. The successful application of the computer to the classroom situation mostly depends on the enthusiasm of the individual teacher (Lutzeier, 1987). In short, in the new learning
environment of CAI in ESL/EFL, teachers need to act primarily as a "resource provider and mentor, with students as apprentices who gradually advance themselves to gain an increasing measure of skill and independence over time" (Pennington, 1996).

Studies show that CAI in ESL/EFL plays a significant role not only for motivating learners but also for the learners' process of constructing knowledge. The teacher needs to understand both benefits and limitations of CAI in ESL/EFL in order to take full advantage of the computer as a tool in the classroom, adjusting his/her own teaching style.

Considering the current condition of CAI in Japan, teachers do not tend to make the best use of the computers. However, it is important to take into consideration the possibilities of computer use in education, because it is obviously necessary to educate people so that they can survive in a continuously changing society in which computers play a significant role. Furthermore, to compete in the global economy, Japanese must be able to use the recognized international language, English, at a level of proficiency acceptable not only to the Japanese people but also to the international community. The effective use of computers in EFL classrooms would meet this challenge and greatly contribute to the further development of Japanese education and also serve the national interest for Japan.
Learning Strategies in ESL/EFL

The lack of motivation and real opportunity for practicing a target language constitute a major problem in input-poor foreign language environments (Kouraogo, 1993). The two main problems in English education in Japan are grammar-translation methodology, and little motivation for communicative competence. These are mostly caused by the immediate purpose for studying English: to achieve a good score on the entrance examinations of colleges or universities. Most Japanese language-learning contexts offer learners few opportunities to hear and read outside or even inside classrooms. However, it is time for English education in Japan to start fostering suitable interactive and collaborative language classes for the purpose of creating autonomous learners.

Learning strategies deserve more attention in these contexts where unconscious acquisition caused by exposure to an abundant second language input outside the classroom is likely to be less important than conscious strategies in influencing gains in linguistic and communicative competence (Krashen, 1981). Second language research has supported the effectiveness of using learning strategies (Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Oxford & Crookall, 1989). The use of appropriate language learning strategies may lead to Japanese school students' improved
proficiency in overall or specific skill areas.

Importance of Learning Strategies

There has been a growing interest in considering the task from the learner's point of view and in changing the focus of classroom from teacher-centered one to a learner-centered one (Rubin, 1987). Language learning strategies focus on the learner as the center of the learning process (Kang, 1997). According to Oxford (1989), language learning strategies are defined as "behaviors or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed, and enjoyable" (p. 235).

An understanding of learning strategies is important in second language learning for several reasons (Stewner-Manzanares, Chamot, Kupper, & Russo, 1985, p. 14). First, students who are successful language learners use such strategies regularly; good learners, like good teachers, know how to organize and use information most effectively for acquiring new skills. Second, many students who do not yet use the strategies can learn how to use them. Third, students who have acquired learning strategies can better store and retrieve vocabulary and important concepts in the new language. Finally, students can use effective learning strategies when a teaching strategy is not working or the material is too difficult.
The use of learning strategies can give students a new way of organizing difficult tasks, provide them with additional resource for important information, or simply focus their attention on the learning tasks (Stewner-Manzanares, et al., 1985, p. 15).

The Relationship of Learning Strategy Use and Learning Style

Studies show the strong relationships between learning strategy use and learning style (Oxford, 1989; Ehrman & Oxford, 1989). Learning style is defined as "a fascinating interactive process, the product of student and teacher activity within a specific learning environment" (Keefe, 1987, p. 3). Butler (1987) states that learning style is a generic term, an umbrella concept, and a name for recognizing individual learning differences (p. 9). There are currently multiple systems for diagnosing learning styles. Among these, Grasha's (1990) group of learning styles is one of the most salient systems. He divides students' learning styles into six categories: competitive, collaborative, avoidant, participant, dependent, and independent.

Moreover, learning style has much to do with multiple intelligences. According to Gardner (1993), multiple intelligences are the various abilities that children possess, and they naturally direct them to learn different ways.
Gardner's multiple intelligences are classified as follows: linguistic, musical, visual/spatial, logical-mathematical, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and natural. He defines intelligence as the ability to solve problems or make things that are valued in one's culture. Also, he states that a classroom that respects multiple intelligences offers a variety of materials and helps ease children into activities that they may find threatening. According to these studies, for example, "visual/spatial" multiple intelligence students used visually-based learning strategies like taking notes and writing word groups while "musical" multiple intelligence students liked working with tapes and practicing aloud.

Furthermore, strategy use might be related to ethnic origins or instructional background (Kang, 1997, p. 7). According to Politzer & McGroarty (1985) and Reid (1987), some Asian students used strategies that were different from those of students from other cultural backgrounds. Politzer and McGroarty (1985) indicated that Asian students reporting fewer good language learning strategies still outperformed Hispanics in using monitoring strategies. Differences in learning strategy use by national origin caused Politzer and McGroarty (1985) to ask whether current conceptions of good language learning strategies might be ethnocentrically biased, because
the Asian students surpassed Hispanic students in average gains in linguistic competence even though the Hispanic reported using learning modality preferences which were strongly influenced by national origin (Kang, 1997, p. 7).

Classification of language learning strategies across research studies is a problem. Many researchers use different and conflicting strategy definitions or classification systems (Oxford, 1993). This disagreement about definitions creates difficulty in comparing results. For example, O’Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, and Russo (1985a) state that learning strategies are divided into two types: metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies. On the other hand, Oxford’s (1993) classification system is as follows: 1) three indirect strategies (metacognitive, social, and affective) and 2) three direct strategies (memory, cognitive, and comprehension). This system classifies and describes students’ strategies in more detail than other systems, hence it was easier to identify students’ strategies for classifying.

Thus, classification of language learning strategies differs depending on the researchers. However, there are two important components that usually appear and play a significant role in the process of effective use of learning strategies: metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies. Below,
definitions for each term are offered.

Metacognitive Strategies.

Metacognition refers to the knowledge and self-control that individuals have over their own thinking and learning activities (Brown & Deloache, 1978; Baker & Brown, 1984). Metacognitive strategies involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring of comprehension or production while it is taking place (Toriyama, 1993). Metacognitive strategies can be divided into eight elements: 1) self-management, 2) functional planning, 3) advance organization, 4) directed attention, 5) selective attention, 6) delayed production, 7) self-monitoring, and 8) self-evaluation. Each of these strategies involves planning, monitoring, or evaluation in some way (Stewner-Manzanares et al., 1985, p. 16). Definitions for these eight elements will be stated in turn (from Stewner-Manzanares et al., 1985, pp. 17-21).

Self-management. Self-management is understanding the conditions that help one learn and arranging for the presence of those conditions. This is a general strategy that can be used in any activity.

Functional planning. Functional planning combines hypothesizing, identifying, and organizing the language functions necessary to carry out and upcoming language task.
Advance organization. Advance organization involves making a general but comprehensive preview of the organizing concept or principles in an anticipated learning activity. Students can review materials or consider a task in advance by looking for the principles underlying a forthcoming lecture, orally presented lesson, or communication task. Students may also initiate discussions on the topics with other students or with the teacher in order to grasp the principles.

Directed attention. Directed attention implies deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distracters. Directed attention is a general strategy that can be used in any activity. Students can train themselves to focus full attention on the learning task in the following ways: 1) deciding that an upcoming activity will require full attention; 2) telling themselves that focusing attention will aid their learning; and 3) consciously avoiding distractions such as looking out the window or listening to extraneous conversation.

Selective attention. Selective attention requires deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of input, often by scanning for key words, concepts, and/or linguistic markers. Students actively listen for specific sounds, structures, meanings, and pieces of information to enhance learning and
Retention.

Delayed production. Delayed production arises from consciously deciding to postpone speaking and to learn initially through listening comprehension. In some cases, students may choose to postpone completely any speaking in the target language until they have acquired enough knowledge of the second language to begin conversing.

Self-monitoring. Self-monitoring is checking one's comprehension during listening or reading or checking the accuracy and/or appropriateness of one's oral or written production while it is taking place.

Self-evaluation. Self-evaluation results from checking the outcomes of one's own language learning against and internal measure of completeness and accuracy. This includes reviewing strengths and weakness, and redirecting learning based on results of the review.

Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies involve directly manipulating or transforming learning materials in order to enhance learning or retention. Learners using cognitive strategies apply specific techniques to particular learning tasks. A cognitive strategy is appropriate for a specific task, whereas metacognitive strategies can be applied to a wide variety of
learning tasks and situations (Stewner-Manzanares et al., p. 14). The eight cognitive strategies recognized were as follows: 1) resourcing, 2) grouping, 3) note taking, 4) imagery, 5) auditory representation, 6) transfer, 7) inferencing, and 8) cooperation (p. 23). Definitions for these eight elements will be stated in turn (from Stewner-Manzanares et al., pp. 23-27).

Resourcing. Resourcing means using target language reference materials. Students use dictionaries, encyclopedias, and any other written materials in the target language that enhance comprehension and further learning.

Grouping. Grouping consists of reordering or reclassifying and perhaps labeling the material to be learned based on common attributes. With this strategy students find common aspects in large amounts of material, and rearrange the material according to common aspects.

Note taking. Note taking involves writing down the main idea, important points, outline, or summary of information presented orally or in writing. Note taking can be as simple as writing down a new word or phrase to aid retention of those items or as complex as following a lecture by outlining main points.

Imagery. Imagery is the process of relating new information to visual concepts in memory via familiar, easily
retrievable visualizations, phrases, or locations. For example, students can visualize a picture or the image of the written item to aid retention and recall. They can actively visualize actions, people, and settings in dialogues for study in class and at home.

Auditory representation. Auditory representation involves retaining the sound or similar sound for a word, phrase, or longer language sequence. In other words, storing words or phrases by how they sound. Students may learn a song phonetically with no regard for meaning.

Transfer. Transfer results from using previously acquired linguistic or conceptual knowledge to facilitate a new language-learning task. Students relate similarities in the first and second languages. Transfer can be used in a positive way, as in producing and comprehending the second language by capitalizing on similarities found between the first and second languages. In some cases, however, transfer results in the overgeneralization of a rule or phrase, resulting in the learner not being understood.

Inferencing. Inferencing employs available information to deduce meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information. Students guess the meaning of unknown items by using the surrounding words or sentences as clues, and
also use knowledge of the topic or situation to arrive at the meaning of unknown materials in a conversation or lecture.

**Cooperation.** Cooperation requires working with one or more peers, family members, or other individuals to obtain feedback, pool information, or model a language activity. This strategy can take a variety of forms. For example, students ask a peer for clarification of what the teacher said. Students pool information and give each other feedback assignments done at home, or one student models pronunciation, structure, or an appropriate phrases for another student in class or out of class. In other cases, students ask a family member to quiz them on material to be learned. In addition, students can work together in class to create a joint product that will receive a group grade.

**Limitations of Learning Strategies**

There are a few notes of caution about the improvements that active learning and the use of learning strategies can make in classrooms (Stewner-Manzanares et al., 1985, p. 15). In some of the studies, learning strategies have seemed resistant to transfer across learning tasks. Stewner-Manzanares et al. (1985) provide two ways for overcoming this resistance. One is to align any cognitive strategy with companion metacognitive strategies, so that students may plan for the use of the cognitive
strategy while learning and appraising its success. This could encourage refinements in the subsequent application of the strategy. A second way for overcoming resistance to transfer is to provide varying examples of learning activities in which students can apply the learning strategies.

A second note of caution is that certain strategies may be most useful only with certain types of learning activities or individual learning styles. Teachers may wish to experiment with the types of student learning styles for which particular learning strategies are most appropriate; the results of such experimentation will lead to a greater understanding of how to use these important concepts.

Although studies in the use of learning strategies with language acquisition are somewhat limited, existing research is highly promising and suggests that future applications of learning strategies in language classes may improve student learning and facilitate the task of the teachers.

Pedagogical Implications for Learning Strategies

Yang (1993) gives pedagogical implications for the learning strategies as follows: 1) teachers should be advisors, facilitators, helpers, guides, and consultants to their students; 2) to remove students' erroneous beliefs or misconceptions, teachers can try to provide students with useful
information about the nature and process of second language learning; 3) teachers need to have a communicative approach and strategy training; and 4) as recommended by several researchers (e.g., Rubin, 1987; Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Oxford, 1990), strategy training is best integrated into content language teaching by language teachers instead of by researchers.

Teachers can benefit their students profoundly by showing them how to become independent learners who actively assimilate information provided by the teacher and then continue learning on their own. Teaching students to become independent learners involves giving them special strategies for developing a variety of important skills. In addition to this, it involves ensuring that they continue to apply these strategies by adapting teaching techniques without changing the curriculum content. In ESL/EFL instruction, teachers can provide learning strategies for both receptive and productive skills at all levels of proficiency (Stewner-Manzanares et al., 1985, p. 10).

Thus, teachers need to motivate students to become actively involved in their own learning by applying the strategies wherever they see opportunities to do so. Throughout this effort, teachers may realize an important goal of instruction for learners is to be independent of the specific teaching approach used in the classroom (Stewner-Manzanares et al., 1985,
p. 11). Learning strategies play an important role in the process of second language acquisition. The use of learning strategies affects students' achievement. Therefore, it is important for educators in Japan to understand their students' beliefs and learning strategy use and provide the students with effective learning strategies. This is because educator's ultimate mission is to have students acquire the ability to survive in the world by themselves.

Listening Comprehension Strategies in Second Language Acquisition for ESL/EFL Elementary Level Students

Listening comprehension has become the keystone of many theories of second language acquisition (SLA) and instruction that focus on the beginning levels of second language proficiency (O'Malley, Chamot, & Kupper, 1989). Listening comprehension skill may be the first and the most important step that leads to and correlates with all the other language skills such as speaking, reading, and writing despite whether it is the first language or second language.

Regarding the first language, all human beings acquire it firstly through listening. Actually, Krashen (1982) stated that humans acquire language by listening, not by speaking. Through acquiring the listening comprehension skills, humans acquire the other skills such as speaking, reading, and finally
writing. This is the natural development of language proficiency for all human beings. On the other hand, when one learns a second language, one may learn it in a similar fashion as one acquires the first language, especially when young. In fact, Lenneberg (1967) asserts that natural language acquisition by exposure can take place only during the "critical period" in a child's life. Moreover, recent studies examining the relation between the age of learning second language and the degree of foreign accent in the second language, Flege (1999) showed that earlier is better in regard with the pronunciation of a second language.

It has been noted for a long time that the current ESL/EFL instruction should focus on communicative language teaching (CLT) to foster learners' communicative competence. In this sense, it is considerably important for instructors to give learners as many opportunities to listen to authentic second language as possible, and teach listening comprehension strategies. This is because the process of acquiring the second language should also be similar to that of acquiring the first language, as well as being enhanced by conscious strategies. Through this process, learners may be able to most naturally and effectively acquire the communicative competence in the second language learning.
In recent years, a considerable amount of research has emphasized the importance of effective listening comprehension skills and strategies for ESL/EFL learners. Below is described research on the listening process, the strategic processes involved in listening comprehension, implications for classroom methodology and materials, and the teacher's role, especially for ESL/EFL elementary level students.

Listening for Comprehension: The Listening Process

According to O'Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989), listening comprehension is viewed theoretically as an active process in which individuals focus on selected aspects of aural input, construct meaning from passages, and relate what they hear to their existing knowledge. As a complement to the focus on what instructors can do to aid listening comprehension in instructional settings, there has been a parallel but apparently independent emphasis on what listeners do while comprehending.

Listening to spoken language has been acknowledged in second language theory to consist of active and complex processes that determine the content and level of what is comprehended (Howard, 1983; Byrnes, 1984; Call, 1985). These processes use utterances as the basis for constructing meaning-based prepositional representations that are identified initially in short-term memory and stored in long-term memory (O'Malley et
Anderson (1983) differentiates comprehension into three interrelated and recursive processes: perceptual processing, parsing, and utilization. During a single listening event, the processes may flow one into the other, recycle, and may be modified based on what occurred in prior or subsequent processes. These three processes overlap and are consistent with listening comprehension processes identified elsewhere (Clark & Clark, 1977; Howard, 1983; Call, 1985).

In perceptual processing, attention is focused on the oral text and the sounds are retained in echoic memory (Loftus & Loftus, 1976; Neisser, 1967). The essential characteristics of echoic memory are that capacity limitations prevent specific word sequences from being retained longer than a few seconds, and that new information to which the listener attends replaces the former information almost immediately (O'Malley et al., 1989).

In the second listening comprehension process, parsing, words and messages are used to construct meaningful mental representations. The basic unit of listening comprehension is a proposition, which consists of a relation followed by an ordered list of arguments (Anderson, 1983; Kintsch, 1974). Through parsing, a meaning-based representation of the original sequence of words can be retained in short-term memory: this representation is an abstraction of the original word sequences
but can be used to recreate the original sequences or at least their intended meanings (O’Malley et al., 1989).

The third process, utilization, consists of relating a mental representation of the text meaning to existing knowledge. Existing knowledge is stored in long-term memory in propositions and in schemata, or interconnected networks of concepts. Connections between the new text meaning and existing knowledge occur through spreading activation in which knowledge in long-term memory is activated to the degree that it is related to the new meanings in short-term memory. As Faerch and Kasper (1986, p. 264) note, “Comprehension takes place when input and knowledge are matched against each other.”

Recent work on the process of listening suggests that this is not the whole explanation and that comprehension can only occur when the listeners can place what he/she hears in a context, even if this context has to be provided by the listener him/herself (Underwood, 1989, p. 3). Brown and Yule (1983) say that the listener has to place language in a “context situation” in order to work out what the speaker means. For example, native speakers, when listening, can call upon their accumulated knowledge of the culture and background of the speaker and the situation and will know from previous experience more or less what to expect. From lifelong experience, native speakers can
put what they hear in context, even though they may sometimes need to make adjustments when speakers do not say what they expect them to say.

One important part of this overall situational context in which the listener places what he/she hears is, in Brown and Yule's terms, the "co-text" which they define as "whatever has already been said in a particular event." It is by placing what follows in relation to what has already been said that the listener establishes the speaker's meaning. With the knowledge, the listener is in a position to realize what is going on and to predict the kind of thing that might follow (Underwood, 1989, p. 3).

Using the same ability, a listener can frequently predict what the completion of an individual utterance might be after hearing only part of it. Garrod (1986) states that this context "has to be taken into account at all stages of comprehension." This suggests that the act of comprehension requires listeners to place the words in context at the same time as they process the sounds.

If the listener knows what is being spoken about, and preferably what is going to be spoken about, and something about the speaker and the speaker's intentions, comprehension is much easier. So, if in addition the language is a foreign one, the
listener's problems are even more acute. He/she may not able to provide a suitable context (because of lack of background knowledge, or lack of knowledge of the speaker or the speaker's intentions) and may then resort to trying to derive meaning from the individual syntactic and semantic components of the utterance and the manner in which it is spoken, without having anything to relate it to (Underwood, 1989, p. 4).

Listening for Comprehension: Strategic Processing

Listeners engage in a variety of mental processes in an effort to comprehend information from oral texts. Yet there is rarely a perfect match between input and knowledge: gaps in comprehension occur and special efforts to deduce meaning or to facilitate new learning may be required, especially with second language learners (Faerch & Kasper, 1986). Mental processes that are activated in order to understand new information that is ambiguous or to learn or retain new information are referred to as learning strategies (O'Malley et al., 1989).

The importance of analyses of strategic processing lies in three research-based conclusions: 1) the frequency and type of strategies used differentiates effective from ineffective learners; 2) strategic modes of processing can be trained; and 3) use of strategic processing can be shown to enhance learning
(Derry & Murphy, 1986; O’Malley, et al., 1985b; Weinstein & Mayer, 1986). One additional finding of significance in the context of this discussion is that strategies for second language acquisition do not appear to differ from general strategies used with other skills such as reading and problem solving, although the specific applications may differ (O’Malley et al., 1985a).

Two types of learning strategies that second language learners regularly report using are metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies (O’Malley et al., 1985a; Wenden & Rubin, 1987). Metacognitive strategies involve knowing about learning and controlling learning through planning, monitoring, and evaluating the learning activity. Metacognitive strategies are generally considered to be applicable across a variety of tasks, whereas cognitive strategies may be more tailored to specific learning activities such as rehearsal, organization, and elaboration (O’Malley et al., 1989).

Regarding listening strategies in ESL/EFL, O’Malley et al. (1989) showed that the principal strategic resources students deployed to aid in comprehension—self-monitoring, elaboration, and inferencing—differentiated effective from ineffective listeners and were applied in a variety of ways depending on the phase of comprehension. Moreover, they showed the evidence from their study that, in general, the effective listeners made
use of both top-down and bottom-up processing strategies, while ineffective listeners became embedded in determining the meanings of individual words.

In this way, studies prove that learning strategies, as well as listening strategies, are important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence (Oxford, 1990, p. 1).

Implications for Classroom Methodology and Materials

Many studies have been done to find the effective methodologies and materials to foster learners' listening strategies. For example, Matthews (1982) described that instructors can lead learners to become more self-confident and independent in their listening abilities and to comprehend real language messages before they actually acquire comparable knowledge of the target language by 1) explaining listening strategies such as predicting, sampling, hypothesis-creating, and checking, 2) focusing on them separately and sequentially, and 3) teaching ways to control them. Matthews also emphasizes that through the use of those listening strategies, the exercises would focus first on understanding the message and then the language forms.

From the study on listening strategies of ESL college
students, Murphy (1985) showed that listening is an interpretive language process in which a variety of strategies are interwoven, and that textual and non-textual information combined with the strategies used determines the listener's interpretation of what he/she hears. Murphy suggests that methods of listening instruction should be integrated with activities involving reading, speaking, and writing.

Although researchers have formally discovered and named listening strategies, there is no complete agreement on exactly what strategies are; how many strategies exist, how they should be defined, demarcated, and categorized; and whether it is possible to create a real, scientifically validated hierarchy of strategies. Despite such problems in classifying strategies, research continues to prove that listening strategies help learners take control of their learning and become more proficient.

The Teacher's Role for ESL/EFL Elementary Level Instruction

Needless to say, teachers play a significant role for enhancing their students' motivation, increasing their confidence, and helping them become successful listeners. However, in addition to understanding the knowledge of listening process and listening strategies and the effective methodologies, teachers should know the potential problems that learners tend
to face when learning to listen to English.

In fact, language learners often feel inundated with problems when they first attempt to listen to a new language (Underwood, 1989, p. 16). Although problems are many and various, they are not all experienced by all students nor are they experienced to the same degree by students from different backgrounds. Whatever the reasons for these problems, it is important to recognize the features of the spoken language and to understand how they affect language learners, so that they can be borne in mind when selecting and using listening materials and activities. Underwood (1989) categorized the problems that learners may encounter when learning to listen are as follows: 1) lack of control over the speed at which speakers speak; 2) not being able to get things repeated; 3) the listener’s limited vocabulary; 4) failure to recognize the “signals”; 5) problems of interpretation; 6) inability to concentrate; and 7) established learning habits. It is important that students should not be daunted or discouraged by the difficulties they, and sometimes their teachers, perceive in learning to listen to English. Teachers are urged to treat the listening session as an opportunity for them and their students to enjoy “doing things” in English.

Focusing on the elementary level students, however, the
situation may be different from other level of learners, although the problems above apply to the elementary level students to some extent. For example, children are less emotionally resistant than adults to learning a new language (Elkind, 1970). Also, children are less inhibited about producing a new language than adults are, so they often attempt to speak sooner, thus making more rapid gain via this essential practice (Hoffman & Kossack, 1990). In other words, elementary level students may be especially able to profit by listening instructions in English.

Based on these ideas, what kind of things should teachers take into consideration when they give listening comprehension activities to the learners? Underwood (1989) says that the teacher’s objectives should include the following: 1) exposing students to a range of listening experiences; 2) making listening purposeful for the students; 3) helping students understand what listening entails and how they might approach it; and 4) building up students’ confidence in their own listening ability.

Teachers who make it clear that they believe in the value of listening work and who plan and conduct listening sessions in a purposeful way will find that their students grow in confidence and soon begin to experience the pleasure that listening successfully can bring. Above all, teachers’
enthusiasm will certainly enhance learners' motivation, increase their confidence, and help them become successful listeners.

In summary, this chapter has provided an overview of each key component in this study. In the section "Rationale for Elementary School Foreign Language Learning," the importance of the critical period is emphasized for the purpose of fostering learners' communicative competence, and rationales for beginning foreign language learning at the elementary level are provided. In the section "Communicative Competence as the Goal of Language Learning," the development of the communicative competence theory was given, along with the definition and the purpose of communicative competence. Moreover, CLT was introduced as a crucial approach to fostering students' communicative competence. In the section "Computer Assisted Instruction in ESL/EFL," the high correlation was described among rapid industrialization, globalization, and the need to access the Internet, and the need to learn English; then the benefits and limitations of CALL, relationship with learning styles, and the teacher's role in CALL were provided. In the section "Learning Strategies in ESL/EFL," the key components of learning strategies were shown along with its limitations and pedagogical limitations. Finally, in the section
“Listening Comprehension Strategies in Second Language Acquisition for ESL/EFL Elementary Level Students,” listening comprehension by means of both the listening process and strategic planning was explained; then implications and teacher’s role in teaching listening comprehension strategies were discussed.

The next chapter provides a theoretical framework that synthesizes these key concepts, focusing on the listening comprehension strategies that can be taught in an elementary CALL environment for the purpose of fostering students’ communicative competence. In addition, the crucial relationship between listening comprehension strategies and learning strategies is discussed.
CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The purpose of this project is to find out the most appropriate and effective way to have elementary-level students acquire listening skills in a CALL environment. However, this is not the only aim. As was mentioned earlier, acquiring listening skills and effective listening comprehension strategies may positively influence the other language skills, such as reading, writing, and speaking. In this sense, the indirect or ultimate goal of this project is to have students eventually improve all language skills.

This chapter describes the role of the EFL teacher in an elementary CALL environment. In addition, it provides a theoretical framework to guide instruction.

Communicative Competence as a Goal of Language Learning

The ultimate goal of language learning is that learners are able to communicate in the foreign language. As Savignon (1972) says, communicative competence means the ability of language learners to interact with other speakers, to make meaning, as distinct from their ability to perform on discrete-point tests of grammatical knowledge.

However, English education in Japan seems to focus only on linguistic competence, which is knowledge about language forms, rather than communicative competence. This traditional
teaching/learning style might come from the fact that, since opening of the country to the world in 1868 until right after the World War II, Japan really needed to absorb and assimilate the culture of Western countries and technologies in order to develop as a country. In order to do this, the Japanese needed to translate and understand written texts; that means they did not need to acquire the skills to communicate with people in English. But times have changed. English is currently becoming an international language, a tool to communicate with people from all over the world. Japan no longer has to concentrate on absorbing and assimilating Western cultures and technologies. What Japan has to do now is both to sustain its culture and establish its international status as one of the most developed countries in the world. Reflecting these goals, English education should change and focus on communicative competence.

In this sense, all English teachers should try to employ CLT techniques. Also, teachers need to increase students' skills in discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence, which are the crucial factors of communicative competence, by building experiences into the curriculum that involve students in solving problems, exploring areas of interest, and designing projects.
Importance of CALL

The advent of computers has enriched the concept of communication and has created a new technological sublanguage. According to this movement, the use of computers in language education has become increasingly popular because studies show that it has the potential to advance English proficiency in ESL/EFL classrooms by involving students actively.

In Japan, as well as the other Asian countries, rapid industrialization, globalization, and the need to access the Internet have created a further need to learn English. Despite this necessity, however, computers have not been sufficiently and effectively used in English education at Japanese schools, as was mentioned in Chapter Two.

However, it is urgent to establish effective computer use in English education in Japan. Although there are many problems that prevent the use of computer in English education in Japan, if the restrictions in CALL environment in Japan were reduced, the computer use in English education would be promoted to a greater degree. In order to realize the sufficient and effective use of computers in English class, it is important for educators to recognize the importance of computer use in English education.

As was mentioned in Chapter Two, one of the biggest
restrictions that keeps CALL from being incorporated into the EFL curriculum is the lack of teachers' understanding of its importance. However, what should be emphasized is that the teacher's role is always preeminent, even in a CALL environment. Even in the future, computers will never replace teachers though they are becoming much more developed and are able to even communicate with people (recent technology has already equipped computers with the ability to recognize what people say and to respond to it).

Importance of Learning Strategies

The ultimate mission of educators is to have students acquire the abilities of thinking critically, solving problems, expressing what they think logically and effectively, and listening and understanding others' ideas: in other words, the ability of surviving in this world by themselves. This concept should be a fundamental idea in any educational situation.

Teaching learning strategies to students might be the most important task of all educators. Thus, it is necessary for classroom teachers to earn how to teach learning strategies.

Acquiring Listening Comprehension Skills in Second Language Learning

Listening comprehension may be the first and the most important ability that leads to and correlates with all the other
language skills such as speaking, reading, and writing, despite whether it is the first language or second language.

As was mentioned earlier, regarding the first language, all human beings acquire it in the beginning through listening. By listening, humans acquire the other skills such as speaking, reading, and finally writing. This is the natural development of language proficiency for all human beings. The second language may be acquired in the same manner as the first language, especially for the young learners such as elementary-level students.

It is important for teachers to give students as many opportunities to listen to authentic second language stimuli as possible so that the process of acquiring the second language will be similar to that of acquiring the first language. Through this process, learners may be able to most naturally acquire communicative competence in the second language (see Figure 3.1).

Integrating Concepts to Achieve the Goal of this Project

Figure 3.1. shows how each concept that was presented in Chapter Two, such as CALL, learning strategies, and listening comprehension skills, should be integrated in order to achieve the ultimate goal of this project, which is acquiring communicative competence in second language learning.
Figure 3.1. Relationship Between Concepts of the Project

Starting learning second language during the "critical period"

- **Learning Strategies**
  - Immediate goal

- **Successful and independent learners**
  - Immediate goal

- **CALL instruction**

- **Listening Comprehension Strategies**

- **Acquiring Listening Skills**

- **Acquiring Reading Skills**
  - Transfer

- **Acquiring Speaking Skills**
  - Transfer

- **Acquiring Writing Skills**
  - Transfer

- **Acquiring Communicative Competence in EFL**
For the purpose of acquiring communicative competence in EFL, starting second language learning during the “critical period” is one of the most crucial elements. Thus, the target teaching level of this figure mainly focuses on elementary-level students, because beginning foreign language learning at the elementary level promotes a longer sequence of instruction leading to proficiency, development of a pro-global attitude, enhancement of cognitive skills, enhancement of communication skills, and personal benefits.

In order for students to become successful and independent learners, both learning strategies and CALL instruction play an important role in a classroom. Learning strategies help students know how to organize and use information most effectively for acquiring new skills, and better store and retrieve vocabulary and important concepts in the new language. Also, students can use effective learning strategies when a teaching strategy is not working or the material is too difficult. Thus, acquiring learning strategies has much to do with becoming independent learners. CALL environment also helps students become successful and independent learners. As was mentioned in Chapter Two, a CALL environment not only motivates learners but also positively contributes to the learners’ process of constructing both knowledge and meaning. Moreover, a CALL
environment gives students better opportunities to acquire and use, especially, metacognitive strategies. As Carrasquillo and Nunez (1988) state, 1) the use of the computer as a medium of instruction enables students to work at their own pace while acquiring metacognitive skills; 2) the flexibility and adaptability of the computer technology allows students to recreate situations, repeat tasks, and manipulate their own learning process; and 3) computer-aided instruction can promote comprehension when metacognitive strategies are programmed into software.

If listening comprehension strategies are incorporated into the CALL environment and used with learning strategies, students will be able to effectively acquire listening skills. For example, many interesting and exciting features with a variety of visual and auditory components on the computer screen will motivate students to challenge themselves to listen to English. Moreover, students can appropriately acquire listening strategies because computers allow them a better environment to acquire those strategies, such as individualization, self-pacing, and interactivity.

Once students acquire listening comprehension strategies, they can easily transfer those strategies to reading comprehension, because reading is also an input process as is
listening. Moreover, though speaking and writing are output processes, the fundamental strategies for both listening and reading will give students implications and suggestions for effective writing and speaking strategies use as well. Once again, this works because on the one hand, the target teaching level is elementary, in which students are in the “critical period”; and on the other hand, listening may be the first and the most important step that leads to and correlates with all the other language skills such as speaking, reading, and writing, whether in the first or second language. If students acquired all language skills using each of the strategies, eventually, they would acquire communicative competence in EFL at the same time. This is the fundamental concept of this project.

Effective Use of Listening Comprehension Strategies

Then, how should listening comprehension strategies be taught in an elementary CALL environment in order for students to acquire communicative competence in EFL?

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 in order to ascertain what works best for them (Mendelsohn, 1994). That is, learning is an active process, but strategies interact with appropriate input processing to enhance
Figure 3.2. A Model of the Process of Teaching Listening

**Pre-listening**
- Self-management
- Functional Planning
- Advance Organization

**Cogntive Strategies**
- Resourcing
- Imagery

**Metacognitive Strategies**

**While-listening**
- Directed Attention
- Self-monitoring
- Self-question
- Affective

**Cognitive Strategies**
- Grouping
- Note Taking
- Auditory Representation
- Inferencing

**Metacognitive Strategies**

**Post-listening**
- Delayed Production
- Self-evaluation

**Cognitive Strategies**
- Cooperation
- Repetition
- Translation
- Question for clarification

**Metacognitive Strategies**

Gaining and Identifying Background Knowledge

Identifying Social Functions of Target Language

Assessing comprehension and expanding utilization

Strategy Input and Practice

Utilization of Strategies While Listening

Involvement of Strategies
comprehension.

Figure 3.2. shows the process of teaching listening in EFL using both metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies. Each strategy should be used in accordance with its purpose in an appropriate situation. A series of listening activities is divided into three stages: pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening. Each listening stage has a relevancy and sequence with the next.

Pre-Listening Stage

The purpose of activities during pre-listening stage is gaining and identifying background knowledge in order to develop students' awareness and get them ready for the while-listening stage. Pre-listening work can consist of a whole range of activities, including the teachers' giving background information; the students' reading something relevant; the students' looking at pictures; a discussion of the topic/situation; a question and answer session; written exercises; and previewing instructions for the while-listening activity. Each of these activities helps to focus the students' minds on the topic by narrowing down the things that the students expect to hear and activating relevant prior knowledge and already-known language. Metacognitive strategies such as self-management, functional planning, and advance organization
are useful especially during the pre-listening stage, and cognitive strategies such as resourcing and imagery help students to get ready for the while-listening stage.

While-Listening Stage

The purpose of activities during the while-listening stage is to identify social functions of target language through the process of constructing knowledge and meaning. The nature of while-listening activities should be interesting so that students feel they want to listen and carry out the activities. Also, while-listening activities should be within the range of what most people can do. Failure rapidly leads to demotivation, and activities with potential "sticking points," where students are likely to get into difficulties, should be used sparingly in the early stages. Moreover, while-listening work should be "simple" in the sense that it should be easy to handle. It should provide opportunities to succeed for students who listen well, but who may be less strong in other skills. Examples of while-listening activities are marking/checking items in pictures, putting pictures in order, completing pictures, making models/arranging items in patterns, form/chart completion, text completion (gap-filling), spotting mistakes, seeking specific items of information, and so on. Using metacognitive strategies such as directed attention, self-monitoring, self-question, and
affective would be useful during the while-listening stage. On the other hand, cognitive strategies such as grouping, note taking, auditory representation, and inferencing would be helpful to promote students' comprehension for the task provided.

Post-Listening Stage

The purpose of activities during post-listening stage is to assess comprehension and expand utilization of the social functions of the target language. Post-listening activities embrace all the work related to a particular listening text, and are done after the listening is completed. The nature of post-listening work should be intrinsically motivating, because at this stage the students have time to think, to discuss, and to write. If the pre-listening stage has built up expectations in the listeners, and the while-listening stage has satisfied these expectations, it is hard to sustain interest at the post-listening stage unless the post-listening activity is interesting in its own right. Ideas for post-listening activities are problem-solving and decision making, interpreting, role-play, and written work. Form/chart completion, extending lists, sequencing/grading, matching with a reading text, extending notes into written responses, summarizing, jigsaw listening, identifying relationships
between speakers, establishing the mood/attitude/behavior of the speaker, and so on. Metacognitive strategies such as delayed production and self-evaluation are useful during the post-listening stage, and cognitive strategies such as cooperation, repetition, translation, and question for clarification are helpful in order to achieve the purpose of the post-listening activities.

As previously mentioned, research evidence on low-achieving or high students supports the assertion that strategies can be taught. In Figure 3.2., both metacognitive and cognitive strategies are divided into pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening stages, because each of them is useful in a specific situation. However, if teachers think one strategy can be used in the other two listening stages, they should actively take advantage of it. This depends on teachers' judgment and flexibility. Teachers can give students labels for strategies, and tell them why the strategies are useful. 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. Table 3.1. presents a master list of learning strategies.

The first part of this chapter has provided a theoretical framework which incorporates all of the important concepts in
this project, such as communicative competence, CALL, "critical period," learning strategies, and listening strategies. The second part has focused on the use of listening strategies and has explained in detail how and when those should be taught. Based on these theoretical ideas, the next chapter, Curriculum Design, explains the manner in which the concepts of the model fit into the curriculum.
Table 3.1. A Master List of Learning Strategies  
(from Chamot & O'Malley, 1994, pp. 62-63;  
Stewner-Manzanares, Chamot, Kupper, & Russo, 1985, pp. 16-27)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive</td>
<td>Self-management</td>
<td>Understanding the conditions that help one learn and arrange for the presence of those conditions.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Functional planning</td>
<td>Hypothesizing, identifying, and organizing and the language functions necessary to carry out and upcoming language task.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Advance organization</td>
<td>Asking a general but comprehensive preview of the organizing concept or principles in an anticipated learning activity.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Directed attention</td>
<td>Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distracters.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Self-monitoring</td>
<td>Checking one’s comprehension during listening or reading or checking the accuracy and/or appropriateness of one’s oral or written production while it is taking place.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-questioning</td>
<td>Learners asking themselves questions about the material or anticipate possible extensions of the information.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Affective</td>
<td></td>
<td>Managing personal emotion to get attention to tasks.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Delayed production</td>
<td>Consciously deciding to postpone speaking and to learn initially through listening comprehension.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-evaluation</td>
<td>Making comments to judge themselves about how well they have learned.</td>
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<td>----------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imagery</td>
<td>Relating new information to visual concepts in memory.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Grouping</td>
<td>Recording or reclassifying and labeling the material to be learned based on common attributes.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note taking</td>
<td>Writing down the main idea, important points, outline, or summary of information presented orally or in writing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auditory representation</td>
<td>Retaining the sound or similar sound for a word, phrase, or longer language sequence.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<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>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperation</td>
<td>Working with one or peers to obtain feedback, pool information, or model a language activity.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>Imitating a language mode, including overt practice and silent rehearsal.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>Using the first language as a base for understanding or producing the second language.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question for clarification</td>
<td>Asking teachers, peers, or native speakers to obtain feedback and pool knowledge, or model an activity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER FOUR: CURRICULUM DESIGN

The project is based on four principles discussed in Chapter Three for the purpose of fostering successful and independent learners, which are the following: the importance of communicative competence in EFL; the necessity to start learning second language during the “critical period”; the significance of learning in a CALL environment in order for students to be motivated and enjoy learning; and the need to provide learning strategies in order to improve listening comprehension. Target of this project is fifth or sixth grade students at elementary schools, who have studied English for at lease four years and have achieved the low-intermediate level of proficiency.

The Characteristic of the Curriculum

Based on the purpose of this project, which is fostering the successful and independent learners, students are asked to learn a variety of learning strategies.

Each lesson asks students to identify new strategies or to review the strategies that they already learned. After identifying or reviewing strategies, they are encouraged to use those strategies during the listening task. Students are not forced to use all strategies that they already learned for each upcoming listening task, but they are encouraged to try as many and appropriate strategies as possible and are given the support.
to do so by the teacher and their classmates.

Every lesson provides students an opportunity to discuss the following points with their group members immediately after they listened to the task: what helped them understand, what problems they had, and whether receiving strategies informed as the pre-listening input helped them to understand the listening task. After this discussion, they are given chances to listen to the task again in order to more effectively apply strategies in listening comprehension.

After the listening activities, students have the opportunity to do self-assessment in order to check their comprehension of the task, including new vocabulary. At this stage, they can work with their group members. As the final stage of a lesson, they are given an assessment task that tests what they learned in the lesson and how well they can apply the strategies to the new context.

By repeating this process, students 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 not only in a classroom but also in any situation that they have the chance to listen to English. Strategies use will make language learning easier and more interesting than before. This is the important key to become a successful
The Content of Unit

The unit of this project focuses on American topics. Teachers will be able to use this unit as a starting point of teaching culture in order to develop students' pro-global attitude. This unit aims to develop students' functional language, and provides students with sample English from the real world. Although listening is the central focus on the project, speaking, reading, and writing are also involved. The listening materials of this unit are derived from the Internet, all of which are recorded by native English speakers and selected from educational and academic content on line. Students listen to those materials by using RealPlayer™.

This unit contains six lessons. Lesson One introduces Halloween as one of most exciting events in the United States. Students listen to some part of the Halloween chain story. Lesson Two provides a song of Halloween. In this lesson, students are especially encouraged to repeat and imitate native speakers' English. Lesson Three is about American slang. Students learn not only American slang itself but also when to use it or in what kind of situation they can use it. Lesson Four presents diversity in America, which is one of the most important characteristics of the United States. By listening to some
short articles and a story spoken by a native speaker, students learn the situation of "melting pot" or "salad bowl" in the United States. Lesson Five provides a glimpse into the daily life of Americans. Students are encouraged to predict what the story is about by using some pictures based on the story. Lesson Six is about the Gold Rush, one of the most significant historical events in the United States. They learn what the Gold Rush was and listen to a song related to the Gold Rush.

Although the unit is all about America, it consists of a variety of subject areas. For example, listening to a Halloween chain story can be related to language arts, listening to songs can be related to music, learning diversity in the United State can be related to social science, and learning about the Gold Rush can be related to history. Through learning about the United States from these various perspectives, students will be able to be more interested in learning about other cultures and eventually establish pro-global attitudes.

The Procedure of the Curriculum

Each of the six lessons features tasks in three stages of listening, including pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening stages and assessments. Each lesson includes objectives, strategies, vocabulary, materials, and activities which are divided into three stages (pre-listening,
while-listening, and post-listening), and assessment.

In the pre-listening stage, students are to involve their background, interests, and prior knowledge. Students are asked to think about some questions related to the topic of the lesson. Then, the teacher provides strategies for students and encourages them to use the strategies when they listen to the task.

In the while-listening stage, the main activity is receiving information by integrating strategies into listening. Students pay full attention to the listening tasks without scripts.

In the post-listening stage, students think about their strategies use during listening, and try to apply them better when they listen again. After they listen again, they are given the chance to do self-assessment about what they learned. The post-listening stage provides students with group activities so that they can exchange feedback with one another.

Each lesson has an assessment part at the end for the teacher's evaluation. Students' notes are also collected to evaluate. But the teacher needs to evaluate not only using results of the assessment but also by observing how and what students are working on during the class. The teacher uses a checklist to keep students' records (see Table 4.1.).
Homework is given after every lesson. Homework is always assigned in order to strengthen or expand the strategy use that they learned in the class. For the most part, when they do homework, students can choose content that interests them.
Table 4.1. Student Performance Checklist

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity Involvement</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategy Use</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Sheet</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment Sheet</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homework</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grading scale: 5 (excellent), 4 (good), 3 (average), 2 (poor), 1 (very poor)
CHAPTER FIVE: ASSESSMENT

Purpose of Assessment

According to Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995), assessment is “a process to determine a learner’s performance or knowledge in his/her current level. The results of the assessment are used to modify or improve the learner’s performance or knowledge” (p. 176). Thus, purpose of assessment should be to inform students of their academic progress and to improve learning.

Nunan (1988) states that “in a learner-centered curriculum model both teachers and learners need to be involved in evaluation” (p. 116). Namely, assessment is not only a teachers’ task. In order for students to evaluate their achievement, teachers should give them many opportunities of self-assessment here and there in a class. Through experiencing this several times, learners will know when, what, and how to evaluate their performance and knowledge even in different situations outside the classroom. This results in successful independent learners.

Types of Assessment

The forms of assessment used in Japanese schools to determine students’ achievement are mostly test scores only. However, test scores cannot measure students’ real achievement. The test grade is just one of the many methods to assess students’
According to Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995), there are three methods to assess students' achievement as follows: performance-based assessment, standardized test, and teacher observation and evaluation.

Performance-Based Assessment

Performance-based assessment is testing that corresponds directly to what is taught in the classroom. Performance-based assessment includes two major components such as classroom tests and portfolio assessment. Classroom tests are highly convergent (one right answer required) or open-ended, with many answers possible. When testing only outcomes of learning, these tests tend to divide knowledge into small pieces away from an applied context. However, more authentic tests of ability require students to have a repertoire of responses that need judgment and skill in using language to meet challenges within the target culture (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). On the other hand, portfolio assessment is often used with the term "alternative assessment." The purpose of portfolio assessment is as follows: maintaining a long-term record of students' progress; providing a clear and understandable measure of student productivity instead of a single number; offering opportunities for improved student self-image as a result of showing progress and
accomplishment; and providing an active role for students in
may include writing samples such as compositions, letter,
reports, drawings, and dictation; student self-assessments;
audio recordings such as retellings and oral think-alouds;
photographs and video recordings; semantic webs and concept
maps; and/or teacher notes about students (Glaser & Brown, 1993).

Standardized Tests

The second major method of assessment is standardized tests.
These tests for second or foreign language teaching offer methods
for employing a common standard of proficiency or performance
in spite of variations in local conditions or student abilities.
The advantages of standardized tests are speed in administration
and convenience in scoring. The category of standardized tests
can be divided into norm-referenced tests and
criterion-referenced tests. Norm-referenced tests compare
student scores against a population of students with which the
test has been standardized. Criterion-referenced tests are
used principally to find out how much of a clearly defined domain
of language skills or materials students have learned. Its
focus is on how the students achieve in relation to the material,
rather than to one another or to a national sample (Diaz-Rico
& Weed, 1995).
Teacher Observation and Evaluation

The third major method of assessment is teacher observation and evaluation. The major purposes of teacher observation and evaluation are documenting student progress and diagnosing student needs. Assessment by teacher observation and evaluation includes two elements as follows: observation-based assessment and teacher-made tests. Observation-based assessment may be implemented by observing and noting individual differences between students. In addition, teachers may record a cooperative or collaborative group working together. Observations may be formal or informal. They may be based on highly structured content or on divergent and creative activities. Multiple observations show student variety and progress (Crawford, 1993). On the other hand, teacher-made tests are often the basis for classroom grading. Tests may assess skills in reading comprehension, oral fluency, grammatical accuracy, writing proficiency, and listening. Canale (in Cohen, 1991) offers criteria for good communicative teacher-made tests as follows: tests should put to use what is learned; the focus is on the message and function, not just on the form; there is group collaboration as well as individual work; respondents are called on to resolve authentic problems in language use, as opposed to contrived linguist problems; and
testing looks like learning.

Grading

McCormick and Pressley (1997) note that grading "requires teachers to make judgment about students performance" (p. 395). Teachers may grade their students in order to diagnose individuals or group's progress and to modify or improve their performance or knowledge. Teachers can use a rating from low level to high, such as that developed by O'Malley and Pierce (see Table 5.1.).

Table 5.1. Sample of Scoring Rubric (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996)

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

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). Therefore, assessments should be interesting and involve many kinds of activities. In fact, 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). 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, pp. 32-33).

Types of Assessment Appropriate for this Unit

In the unit of this project, performance-based assessment--including both classroom tests and portfolio assessment--is useful, because students need to directly assess and/or to be assessed what they learned in a class. This type of assessment should be frequently incorporated into each lesson so that students slowly but surely progress and eventually attain a certain degree of achievement. Standardized tests may not be useful in this unit. However, these tests can be used both before and after students learn some listening strategies in order to
see how much they have improved overall in English proficiency by learning the strategies. Teacher observation and evaluation play a significant role in assessment of this unit, because the most important part of the unit is the activities during pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening stages. Both observation-based assessment and teacher-made tests are useful.

Thus, teachers should grade achievement using a variety of methods. As was mentioned earlier, Japanese schools still tend to grade the students only by test scores. However, what is important is a learning process itself. Test scores may also be one of the outputs in the process and should be considered, but this should not be the only method to evaluate students' achievement. Teachers need to incorporate a variety of assessment methods into the curriculum and to grade their students for the purpose of modifying and improving their performance.
APPENDIX A: LESSON PLANS

American Tour: Sounds, Sites, and Culture

Lesson One: Halloween Part I

Lesson Two: Halloween Part II

Lesson Three: American Slang

Lesson Four: Diversity in America

Lesson Five: Americans' Daily Life

Lesson Six: The Gold Rush!
Lesson One: Halloween Part I

Objectives:
1. Introduce strategies as a pre-listening activity
2. Listen to RealPlayer™ recording of native-speaker English
3. Use strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension

Strategies:
Self-management, note taking, cooperation strategies

Vocabulary:
dangerous, hop, chill, stormy, novel, escape, conductor, aisle, ragged, whisper, sculpt, wearily

Materials:
Computers, Focus Sheet 1-1, 1-2, 1-3, 1-4, and 1-5, Work Sheet 1-1, Assessment Sheet 1-1, Online Webpage:
http://grove.ufl.edu/~ktrickel/Listening/halloween/hallframe.html

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge:
1. The teacher evokes students' background, interests, and prior knowledge. The teacher asks students questions as follows:
   1) What can you imagine when you hear Halloween?
   2) What do they do on the day of Halloween?
2. Students write their ideas on the board based on these questions.

Task Chain 1: Introducing strategies as a pre-listening activity
(Pre-listening stage)
1. The teacher explains what strategies are and how strategies can help students.
2. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 1-1 and explains about self-management strategies and note taking strategies in order to prepare for listening, using examples to make students understand self-management strategies.
Task Chain 2: Listening to RealPlayer™ recording of native-speaker English (While-listening stage)
1. Students are divided into groups of three.
2. The teacher writes down the webpage address on the board. Students open the webpage (see Focus Sheet 1-2): http://grove.ufl.edu/~ktrickel/Listening/halloween/allframe.html
3. The teacher explains that students are going to listen to the Halloween chain story online.
4. Students prepare for listening and using strategies.
5. Students click the part that says, “Click here to listen to entire story.”
6. The first time, students listen to the RealPlayer™ without a script.
7. After they finished listening to Part One, students stop the RealPlayer™.

Task Chain 3: Using strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension (Post-listening stage)
1. Immediately after listening, students volunteer to describe their thoughts while listening. Students are asked questions as follows:
   1) What helped you understand?
   2) What problems did you have?
   3) Did pre-listening activities help you to understand the story?
2. Students replay Part One of the story. This time, each group of students can listen to a short segment, then stop the RealPlayer™ and think again.
3. Using a cooperation strategy: Students discuss Part One with their group members by showing their notes to each other.
4. The teacher distributes the script (see Focus Sheet 1-3) and asks each group whether there are any words they do not know. New words are introduced by using a transparency of Focus Sheet 1-4. Students pronounce the words correctly.
5. Students replay Part One again.
6. Students work on the questions on Work Sheet 1-1 with their
7. The teacher gives students answers. Students self-assess to reconfirm new words and the content of Part One.

Assessment:
1. The teacher collects students’ notes and Work Sheet 1-1 for evaluation.
2. Students listen to Part Two of the Halloween story (see Focus Sheet 1-5) once (if necessary, twice) and work on the questions of Assessment Sheet 1-1.
3. The teacher collects and scores Assessment Sheet 1-1.
4. Homework: Students 1) select one story among the rest of the Halloween chain story; 2) listen to the part they selected by using strategies they learned in this lesson; and 3) summarize it.
Lesson Two: Halloween Part II

Objectives:
1. Introduce strategies as a pre-listening activity
2. Listen to RealPlayer™ recording of native-speaker English
3. Use strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension

Strategies:
Self-management, note taking, cooperation, repetition and auditory representation strategies

Vocabulary:
howl, witch, broom, fright, cackle, sight

Materials:
Audiotape, cassette player, computers, Focus Sheet 2-1, 2-2, 2-3, and 2-4, Work Sheet 2-1, Assessment Sheet 2-1, Online Webpage: http://store.yahoo.com/melody/halloweenhowls.html

Involving students’ background, interests, and prior knowledge:
1. The teacher evokes students’ background, interests, and prior knowledge. The teacher asks students questions as follows:
   1) Do you know any Halloween songs?
   2) What kind of characters or things is usually there in Halloween songs?
2. Students write their ideas on the board based on these questions.

Task Chain 1: Introducing strategies as a pre-listening activity
(Pre-listening stage)
1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 2-1 and explains repetition and auditory representation strategies in order to prepare for listening, using examples to make students understand repetition and auditory representation strategies.
Task Chain 2: Listening to RealPlayer of native-speaker English
(While-listening stage)
1. Students are divided into groups of three.
2. The teacher writes down the webpage address on the board. Students open the webpage (see Focus Sheet 2-2):
http://store.yahoo.com/melody/halloweenhowls.html
3. The teacher explains that students are going to listen to the Halloween song called "Witches, Witches, Witches" online.
4. The teacher asks students to take notes while listening to the song.
5. Students prepare for listening and using strategies.
6. Students click the part that says, "Witches, Witches, Witches."
7. The first time, students listen to the RealPlayer™ without a script.
8. After they finished listening to the song, students stop the RealPlayer™.

Task Chain 3: Using strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension (Post-listening stage)
1. Immediately after listening, students volunteer to describe their thoughts while listening. Students are asked questions as follows:
   1) What helped you understand?
   2) What problems did you have?
   3) Did pre-listening activities help you to understand the song?
2. Students replay the song. This time, each group of students can listen to a short segment, then stop the RealPlayer™ and think again.
3. Using a cooperation strategy: Students discuss the song with their group members by showing their notes to each other.
4. The teacher distributes the lyrics (see Focus Sheet 2-3) and asks each group whether there are any words they do not know. New words are introduced by using a transparency of Focus Sheet 2-4. Students pronounce the words correctly.
5. Students replay the song again.
6. Using repetition and auditory representation strategies: Students sing the song all together without the lyrics. After that, they repeat this one more time.

7. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 2-1 and asks students to work on the questions with their group members.

8. The teacher checks the answers. Students self-assess to reconfirm new words and the pronunciation.

**Assessment:**

1. The teacher collects students' notes and Work Sheet 2-1 for evaluation.

2. Students listen to "Witches, Witches, Witches" and work on the question of Assessment Sheet 2-1.

3. The teacher collects and scores Assessment Sheet 2-1.

4. Homework: Students 1) choose one popular English song; 2) listen to it by using strategies they learned in this lesson; and 3) write down the lyrics.
Lesson Three: American Slang

Objectives:
1. Introduce strategies as a pre-listening activity
2. Listen to RealPlayer™ recording of native-speaker English
3. Use strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension

Strategies:
Self-management, note taking, cooperation, repetition and auditory representation strategies

Vocabulary:
flick, awesome, airhead, couch potato, whoa, bet, hit the sack

Materials:
Computers, Focus Sheet 3-1, 3-2, 3-3, 3-4, 3-5, and 3-6, Work Sheet 3-1, Assessment Sheet 3-1, Online Webpage:
http://www.esl-lab.com/slang/slangcon1.ram?
http://www.esl-lab.com/slang/slangrdl.htm

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge:
1. The teacher evokes students' background, interests, and prior knowledge. The teacher asks students questions as follows:
   1) What is slang?
   2) Do you know any American slang?
   3) In what kind of situation do you think they can use slang words? How about your culture?
2. Students write their ideas on the board based on these questions.

Task Chain 1: Introducing strategies as a pre-listening activity
(Pre-listening stage)
1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 3-1. Students review four strategies (self-management, note taking, repetition, and auditory representation strategies) that they learned so far.
**Task Chain 2: Listening to RealPlayer™ recording of native-speaker English (While-listening stage)**

1. Students are divided into groups of three.
2. The teacher writes down the webpage address on the board. Students open the webpage (see Focus Sheet 3-2): http://www.esl-lab.com/slang/slangconv1.ram?
3. The teacher explains that students are going to listen to the conversation between two men online.
4. The teacher asks students to take notes while listening to the conversation.
5. Students prepare for listening and using strategies.
6. Students click the part that says, "Play."
7. The first time, students listen to the RealPlayer™ without a script.
8. After they finished listening to the conversation, students stop the RealPlayer™.

**Task Chain 3: Using strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension (Post-listening stage)**

1. Immediately after listening, students volunteer to describe their thoughts while listening. Students are asked questions as follows:
   1) What helped you understand?
   2) What problems did you have?
   3) Did pre-listening activities help you to understand the conversation?
2. Students replay the conversation. This time, each group of students can listen to a short segment, then stop the RealPlayer™ and think again.
3. Using a cooperation strategy: Students discuss the conversation with their group members by showing their notes to each other.
4. The teacher distributes the script (see Focus Sheet 3-3) and asks each group whether there are any words they do not know. New words are introduced by using a transparency of Focus Sheet 3-4. Students pronounce the words correctly.
5. Students replay the conversation again.
6. Using repetition and auditory representation strategies: Students repeat each sentence of the conversation after the RealPlayer™ without the script. The teacher gives students five minutes to practice.

7. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 3-1 and asks students to work on the questions with their group members.

8. The teacher checks the answers. Students self-assess to reconfirm new words and the content of the conversation.

Assessment:

1. The teacher collects students' notes and Work Sheet 3-1 for evaluation.

2. Students open the webpage:
   http://www.esl-lab.com/slang/slangrd1.htm

3. Students listen to the sentences online and write down the answers on Assessment Sheet 3-1.

4. The teacher collects and scores Assessment Sheet 3-1.

5. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 3-6 and has students self-assess what they learned in this lesson.

6. Homework: Students 1) watch part of any American TV program or movie; 2) listen to it by using strategies they learned; and 3) write down five new slang words and their meanings.
Lesson Four: Diversity in America

Objectives:
1. Introduce strategies as a pre-listening activity
2. Listen to RealPlayer™ recording of native-speaker English
3. Use strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension

Strategies:
Self-management, note taking, cooperation, affective strategies

Vocabulary:
diversity, huge, influence, immigrant, prevalent, exposure

Materials:
Computers, Focus Sheet 4-1, 4-2, 4-3, 4-4, 4-5, and 4-6, Work Sheet 4-1, Assessment Sheet 4-1, Online Webpage:
http://www.englishlistening.com/itemdtl.phtml?raid=008-06

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge:
1. The teacher evokes students' background, interests, and prior knowledge. The teacher asks students questions as follows:
   1) Have you ever heard of "melting pot" or "salad bowl"? What do these words mean?
   2) What is diversity?

Task Chain 1: Introducing strategies as a pre-listening activity
(Pre-listening stage)
1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 4-1 and has students read an article about diversity in America.
2. Students are asked what they learned from this article.
3. Students write their ideas on the board.
4. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 4-2 and introduces affective strategy in order to prepare for listening.
Task Chain 2: Listening to RealPlayer™ recording of native-speaker English (While-listening stage)

1. Students are divided into groups of three.
2. The teacher writes down the webpage address on the board. Students open the webpage (see Focus Sheet 4-3):
http://www.englishlistening.com/itemdtl.phttnl?raid=008-06
3. The teacher explains that students are going to listen to the conversation between two men online.
4. The teacher asks students to take notes while listening to the story titled "Diversity in California."
5. Students prepare for listening and using strategies.
6. Students click the part that says, "Listen."
7. The first time, students listen to the RealPlayer™ without a script.
8. After they finished listening to the story, students stop the RealPlayer™.

Task Chain 3: Using strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension (Post-listening stage)

1. Immediately after listening, students volunteer to describe their thoughts while listening. Students are asked questions as follows:
   1) What helped you understand?
   2) What problems did you have?
   3) Did pre-listening activities help you to understand the conversation?
2. Students replay the story. This time, each group of students can listen to a short segment, then stop the RealPlayer™ and think again.
3. Using a cooperation strategy: Students discuss the conversation with their group members by showing their notes to each other.
4. The teacher distributes the script (see Focus Sheet 4-4) and asks each group whether there are any words they do not know. New words are introduced by using a transparency of Focus Sheet 4-5. Students pronounce the words correctly.
5. Students replay the story again.
6. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 4-1 and asks students to work on the questions with their group members.
7. The teacher checks the answers. Students self-assess to reconfirm new words and the pronunciation.

Assessment:
1. The teacher collects students’ notes and Work Sheet 4-1 for evaluation.
2. The teacher explains that students are going to listen to an audiotape about “Melting Pot or Salad Bowl” (see Focus Sheet 4-6) and work on the questions of Assessment Sheet 4-1.
3. The teacher starts playing the audiotape.
4. The teacher collects and scores Assessment Sheet 4-1.
5. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 4-6 (script of the audiotape) and has students self-assess.
6. Homework: Students 1) record any news program on TV that provides both English and Japanese; 2) listen to it in English at first by using inferencing strategy; 3) write down the main ideas; and 4) listen to it in Japanese, and check your understanding.
Lesson Five: Americans' Daily Life

Objectives:
1. Introduce strategies as a pre-listening activity
2. Listen to RealPlayer™ recording of native-speaker English
3. Use strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension

Strategies:
Self-management, note taking, cooperation, repetition, auditory representation, affective, imagery strategies

Vocabulary:
semester, graduate, routine, academic, consecutive, relax

Materials:
Audiotape, cassette player, computers, Focus Sheet 5-1, 5-2, 5-3, 5-4, 5-5, and 5-6, Work Sheet 5-1 and 5-2, Assessment Sheet 5-1, Homework Sheet 5-1, Online Webpage:
http://grove.ufl.edu/~ktrickel/teslmini/btm.html

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge:
1. The teacher evokes students' background, interests, and prior knowledge. The teacher asks students questions as follows:
   1) Do you have any friend from other countries?
   2) Do you think their daily life is different from ours?
   3) How is it different?
2. Students write their ideas on the board based on these questions.

Task Chain 1: Introducing strategies as a pre-listening activity
(Pre-listening stage)
1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 5-1 and explains about imagery strategy in order to prepare for listening, using examples to make students understand imagery strategy.
Task Chain 2: Listening to RealPlayer™ recording of native-speaker English (While-listening stage)

1. Students are divided into group of three.
2. The teacher writes down the webpage address on the board. Students open the webpage (see Focus Sheet 5-2):
3. The teacher explains that students are going to listen to the story titled “Peter’s Day” online.
4. Using imagery strategy: The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 5-3 and has students predict what happens in the pictures of Focus Sheet 5-3.
5. The teacher asks students to take notes while listening to the story.
7. Students click the part that says, “Listen.”
8. The first time, students listen to the RealPlayer™ without a script.
10. After they finished listening to the story, students stop the RealPlayer™.

Task Chain 3: Using strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension (Post-listening stage)

1. Immediately after listening, students volunteer to describe their thoughts while listening. Students are asked questions as follows:
   1) What helped you understand?
   2) What problems did you have?
   3) Did pre-listening activities help you to understand the story?
2. Students replay the story. This time, each group of students can listen to a short segment, then stop the RealPlayer™ and think again.
3. Using a cooperation strategy: Students discuss the story with their group members by showing their notes to each other.
4. The teacher distributes the script (see Focus Sheet 5-4) and asks each group whether there are any words they do not know. New words are introduced by using a transparency of Focus Sheet 136.
5. Students pronounce the words correctly.

5. Using repetition and auditory representation strategies: Students 1) replay the story again; 2) try to imitate the speaker's intonation, pronunciation, and accent; and 3) repeat the words, phrases, and sentences right after the speaker said by stopping and replaying the RealPlayer™.

6. Using cooperation strategy: The teacher distributes Work Sheet 5-1 and asks students to work on the questions with their group members.

7. The teacher checks the answers. Students self-assess to reconfirm new words and the content of the story.

Assessment:

1. The teacher collects students' notes and Work Sheet 5-1 for evaluation.

2. The teacher explains that students are going to listen to the story about Harold's daily life online and work on the questions of Assessment Sheet 5-1.

3. Students open the webpage (see Focus Sheet 5-6): http://grove.ufl.edu/~ktrickel/teslmini/btm.html

4. Students start playing the RealPlayer™.

5. The teacher collects and scores Assessment Sheet 5-1.

6. Homework: Each group of students is going to create and record a short story based on the pictures of Homework Sheet 5-1 and turn it in next time.
Lesson Six: The Gold Rush!

Objectives:
1. Introduce strategies as a pre-listening activity
2. Listen to RealPlayer™ recording of native-speaker English
3. Using strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension

Strategies:
Self-management, note taking, cooperation, repetition, auditory representation, affective, self-evaluation strategies

Vocabulary:
dusty, trail, rattlesnake, coyote, shadow, prowl, pale, depressed, precious, confidence, gleam, squirrel, hawk, brilliance

Materials:
Computers, Focus Sheet 6-1, 6-2, 6-3, 6-4, and 6-5, Work Sheet 6-1 and 6-2, Assessment Sheet 6-1, Homework Sheet 6-1, Online Webpage:
http://www.pbs.org/goldrush/
http://www.u.arizona.edu/~cphillip/westernsong.html

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge:
1. The teacher evokes students' background, interests, and prior knowledge. The teacher asks students questions as follows:
   1) Have you ever heard of the Gold Rush? What do you imagine when you hear the Gold Rush?
   2) What is the Gold Rush?
2. Students write their ideas on the board based on these questions.

Task Chain 1: Introducing strategies as a pre-listening activity
(Pre-listening stage)
1. Students are divided into groups of three.
2. The teacher writes down the webpage address on the board.
Students open the webpage (see Focus Sheet 6-1):
http://www.pbs.org/goldrush/
3. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 6-1.
4. The teacher explains that students are going to be given ten minutes to look at the assigned webpage and to complete Work Sheet 6-1.
5. The teacher checks the answers of Work Sheet 6-1.
6. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 6-2. Students review strategies that they learned so far.

Task Chain 2: Listening to RealPlayer™ recording of native-speaker English (While-listening stage)
1. The teacher writes down the webpage address on the board. Students open the webpage (see Focus Sheet 6-3):
http://www.u.arizona.edu/~cphillip/westernsong.html
2. The teacher explains that students are going to listen to the song titled “Riding West of Tucson” online.
3. Students try to use as many strategies they learned as possible while listening to the song.
4. Students prepare for listening and using strategies.
5. Students click the part that says, “Riding West of Tucson.”
6. The first time, students listen to the RealPlayer™ without a script.
7. After they finished listening to the song, students stop the RealPlayer™.

Task Chain 3: Using strategy training in order to increase listening comprehension (Post-listening stage)
1. Immediately after listening, students volunteer to describe their thoughts while listening. Students are asked questions as follows:
   1) What helped you understand?
   2) What problems did you have?
   3) Did pre-listening activities help you to understand the song?
2. Students replay the song. This time, each group of students can listen to a short segment, then stop the RealPlayer™ and
think again.
3. Using a cooperation strategy: Students discuss the song with their group members by showing their notes to each other.
4. The teacher distributes the lyrics (see Focus Sheet 6-4) and asks each group whether there are any words they do not know. New words are introduced by using a transparency of Focus Sheet 6-5. Students pronounce the words correctly.
5. Students replay the song again.
6. Students sing the song all together without the lyrics. After that, they repeat this one more time.
7. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 6-2 and asks students to work on the questions with their group members.
8. The teacher gives students answers. Students self-assess to reconfirm new words and the content of the song.

Assessment:
1. The teacher collects students' notes and Work Sheet 6-1 for evaluation.
2. The teacher explains that students are going to listen to the same song again and fill in the blanks on Assessment Sheet 6-1.
3. The teacher collects Assessment Sheet 6-1.
4. Distribute Homework Sheet 6-1 and explains the self-evaluation strategy.
5. Homework: Students use a self-evaluation strategy to evaluate their progress after sessions (see Homework Sheet 6-1).
Focus Sheet 1-1
Self-Management and Note Taking Strategies

Self-Management Strategy
1. Reduce anxiety.
2. To improve concentration, learn to pay attention to the speaker.
3. Maintain a positive attitude.
4. Get used to listening to RealPlayer™ recordings by native English speakers.
5. Listen to stress: In spoken English, important words are usually stressed. This means that they are higher, louder, and spoken more clearly.
   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).
   Example: “Could you tell me where the library is?” changes to
   “Cudja tell me where the library is?”
   This is called a reduction 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, pp. 3-5)

Note Taking Strategy
1. Prepare to take notes: The notes need to be short and clear.
2. Note taking helps a listener concentrate on listening. In addition, to retain the information, review notes after class.
3. Listening to keywords: When taking 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, make a list such as “when,” “where,” “how,” “who,” and “why.”
Focus Sheet 1-1 (continued)
Self-Management and Note Taking Strategies

4. Use abbreviations and symbols: Shorten words and use symbols as much as possible. Meanwhile, develop or create a personal system for them. These will save time and allow a 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>
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<tr>
<td>#</td>
<td>number</td>
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<tr>
<td>&lt;</td>
<td>is smaller/less than</td>
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<tr>
<td>&gt;</td>
<td>is larger/more than</td>
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<tr>
<td>+/-&amp;</td>
<td>plus, in addition, and</td>
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<td>%</td>
<td>percent</td>
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<tr>
<td>$</td>
<td>money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>increase, go up, rise</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>decrease, go down</td>
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<tr>
<td>therefore, as a result</td>
<td></td>
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<td>cause</td>
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<td>include</td>
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<td>@</td>
<td>each</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>approximately</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>question, unclear, doubt</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

b) The list of abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
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<td>w/</td>
<td>with</td>
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<tr>
<td>w/o</td>
<td>without</td>
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<td>btw</td>
<td>between</td>
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<td>e.g.</td>
<td>for example</td>
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<td>am</td>
<td>morning</td>
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<td>pm</td>
<td>after noon, evening</td>
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<td>i.e.</td>
<td>that is</td>
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<td>yr.</td>
<td>year</td>
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<td>re:</td>
<td>concerning, regarding</td>
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<td>mo.</td>
<td>month</td>
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<td>etc.</td>
<td>and so on</td>
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<td>wk.</td>
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<td>vs.</td>
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<td>ch.</td>
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<td>Ib.</td>
<td>pound</td>
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<td>hr.</td>
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<td>pro</td>
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<td>lang</td>
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<td>com</td>
<td>communication</td>
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<td>st.</td>
<td>study</td>
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(Ferrer-Hanreddy & Whalley, 1996, pp. 39-40)
Click here to listen to the entire story

Table of Contents:

Introduction
Part One
Part Two
Part Three
Part Four
Part Five
Part Six
Part Seven
Part Eight
Part Nine
Part Ten
Part Eleven
Part Twelve
Part Thirteen
Part Fourteen

**Directions:** Listen to the Halloween chain story by clicking on the link in the left frame. Read the text of the story while you listen and fill in the blanks with the missing words. The story is divided into 14 parts, but the audio will play the entire story.

http://grove.ufl.edu/~ktrickel/Listening/halloween/hallframe.html
Halloween can be a dangerous time to travel, if you're on your own.

I learned this several long years ago, having just hopped onto a train late one chill and stormy Halloween evening for a brief but important journey through the deserted middle part of our country.

After taking a seat near the rear of what I at first believed to be an otherwise unoccupied car, I removed a book from my bag -- a novel by a purple-prosed horror writer much given to using capital letters and a lot of exclamation points -- and was just about to settle in with the hope of finding some sort of dreamy escape from the ills of real life when the conductor padded down the aisle so quietly that he was almost upon me before I saw him.

"Tickets, please?" he said in a rather ragged voice that he barely raised above a whisper.

I was shocked to see that in addition to the usual blue uniform and dark conductor's cap he was wearing a black cat mask that sported long dark whiskers on either side of his neatly sculpted feline nose. He took my ticket in his thick-fingered paw, paused a moment, and said, "And who are you supposed to be?"

But I was not in the mood or Halloween antics. "Just a traveler," I said wearily.
Focus Sheet 1-4
New Words

dangerous
hop
chill
stormy
novel
escape
conductor
aisle
ragged
whisper
sculpted
wearily
PART TWO: (02:07-03:27)

BAILEY WHITE

He punched my ticket with three quick snaps and said, "Enjoy the ride." As he sashayed down the aisle I saw that he had a lumpy tail attached to the seat of his pants with a big silver safety pin.

"And who are you supposed to be?" the conductor had asked. In fact, I am the sales representative for the most respected chicken hatchery in the Midwest, but just this morning my wife had stood on the porch in her pink furry slippers, and shouted at me, "You're nothing but a god damned chicken salesman!" We sell rare and exotic chickens, and we are recognized by the ALBC for preserving vanishing livestock breeds. But my wife says, "A chicken's a chicken," and then she goes into her chicken imitation, growling "brk, brk, brk," with her little pointy elbows flapping up and down.

I looked out at the stormy night, the dry stalks in abandoned cornfields lashed by rain. "Who are you supposed to be?" I thought; and then I saw the face, or a reflection of a face beside my own in the window, and I whirled around and looked across the aisle, up and down the rows of empty seats.
Work Sheet 1-1
Halloween Part I

A. Choose the appropriate word from the list and write down in the blanks.

1) She ________ to the mountains for several months.
2) It is ________ for children to play in the street.
3) Jerry ________ a statue out of stone.
4) He answered in a ________ voice.
5) Mary ________ over a fence.
6) There was a ________ in the air yesterday evening.
7) My seat is on the ________.
8) Don’t go out in this ________ weather.
9) My sister likes to read a detective ________.
10) ________ is a person who works at the station as a guard.
11) Richard spoke something to her in a ________.
12) Because Shannon was so tired, she ________ answered my question.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>dangerous</th>
<th>stormy</th>
<th>conductor</th>
<th>whisper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hop</td>
<td>novel</td>
<td>aisle</td>
<td>sculpted</td>
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<tr>
<td>chill</td>
<td>escape</td>
<td>ragged</td>
<td>wearily</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

B. Based on the Part One of the Halloween story, write “True” or “False” in the blanks.

1) Halloween can be a fun time to travel, if you’re on your own. ________

2) I went on an important journey on a sunny, beautiful day. ________

3) After taking a seat, I started reading a novel. ________

4) The conductor said to me, “And who are you supposed to be?” ________

5) I wearily answered the conductor, “Just a traveler.” ________
Assessment Sheet 1-1
Halloween Part I

Listen to the Part Two of the Halloween story and put the following sentences in a right order.

a) I looked out at the stormy night, the dry stalks in abandoned cornfields lashed by rain.
b) I remembered that my wife had shouted at me, "You're nothing but a god damned chicken salesman!"
c) He punched my ticket with three quick snaps and said, "Enjoy the ride."
d) I whirled around and looked across the aisle, up and down the rows of empty seats.
e) I saw that he had a lumpy tail attached to the seat of his pants with a big silver safety pin.

Right Order:

Use this space for note taking.
Focus Sheet 2-1
Repetition and Auditory Representation Strategies

**Repetition Strategy**
Repetition strategy is imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal. To use this strategy, repeat what a native speaker says, and imitate native speakers' pronunciation, intonation, and accent.

**Exercise:** Repeat immediately after the audiotape. Imitate the pronunciation, intonation, and accent as much as possible.

A: Have you tried calling him?
B: Yes, but I keep getting his answering machine. And he hasn't returned my calls.
A: Maybe he's out of town.
B: Maybe. Or maybe he's not interested any more.

(Elbaum & Peman, 1989, p. 324)

**Auditory Representation Strategy**
Auditory representation strategy is retaining the sound or similar sound for a word, phrase, or longer language sequence. In other words, storing words or phrases by how they sound. A song may be learned phonetically with no regard for meaning. What is recalled is sound alone. New words or phrases may be stored with familiar items that sound similar (Stewner-Manzanares, Chamot, O'Malley, Kupper, & Russo, 1985, p. 25).

You are to:
1. Listen for several phrases and repeat them immediately.
2. Note down phrases.
3. Repeat the phrases.
4. Close eyes, repeat by referring back to the auditory presentation.

(Stewner-Manzanares, Chamot, O'Malley, Kupper, & Russo, 1985, p. 32)
HALLOWEEN HOWLS

featuring Andrew Gold with guest appearances by Linda Ronstadt and David Cassidy

Witches, Witches, Witches Listen to a sample!

Shake those chains, rattle those bones and let the ghoul times roll. Pack fun into fright with this original collection of 12 sweetly scary songs for kids. Including Monster Mash, The Addams Family, Ghostbusters and Spooky, Scary Skeletons.

Regular price $11.98 CD $7.98 Cassette
SPECIAL 10% discount $10.78 CD $7.18 Cassette

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http://store.yahoo.com/melody/halloweenhowls.html
Witches, Witches, Witches

Witches on their brooms
Witches, witches, witches on their brooms
Every year, this very night
They all come out, give me a fright
You hear them cackle as they fly by the moon
Witches, witches, witches on their brooms
Watch the skies on Halloween
Witches, witches, witches on their brooms
The strangest sight I've ever seen
Witches, witches, witches on their brooms
Focus Sheet 2-4
New Words

howl
witch
broom
fright
cackle
sight
Work Sheet 2-1
Halloween Part II

A. Connect each word to the appropriate meaning.
1) howl • fear, dread, horror
2) sight • brush, duster
3) cackle • noise, buzz, roar
4) broom • scene, view
5) fright • chatter, crow, scream

B. Fill in the blanks.
Witches on their ___1___
Witches, witches, witches on their ___1___
___2___ year, this very ___3___
They all come out, give me a ___4___
You ___5___ them cackle as they ___6___ by the ___7___
Witches, witches, witches on their ___1___
___8___ the skies on ___9___
Witches, witches, witches on their ___1___
The ___10___ sight I’ve ever seen
Witches, witches, witches on their ___1___

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<td>7)</td>
<td>8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9)</td>
<td>10)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Listen to the song, "Witches, Witches, Witches," and write down the lyrics.
Focus Sheet 3-1
Strategies Review

Self-Management Strategy
Reduce anxiety.
Improve concentration on speakers.
Maintain a positive attitude.

Note Taking Strategy
Listen to the main idea and keywords.
Use abbreviations and symbol.
Create a personal note-taking system to help retain information.
Listen for repeated terms, or ideas.
Indentation.

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

Auditory Representation Strategy
Listen for several phrases and repeat them immediately.
Note down phrases.
Repeat the phrases.
Close eyes, repeat by referring back to the auditory presentation.
Focus Sheet 3-2

Webpage of American Slang

I. Pre-Listening Exercises [Top]

1. What is "slang"; who uses it in your own culture (e.g., male, female, young, middle-aged, old, etc.); and give examples of when it is used.

II. Listening Exercises [Top]

1. Listen to each of the short statements by pressing the "Play" button. Press the "Final Score" button to check your score.

http://www.esl-lab.com/slang/slangcon1.ram?
Focus Sheet 3-3
Script

Russell: Hey Dave. How was your weekend?

Dave: Not bad. I went downtown to watch a flick with my roommate.

Russell: How was it?

Dave: Oh, the movie was awesome; the company wasn't.

Russell: What do you mean?

Dave: Well, I liked the movie, but my roommate is a real airhead. [Ugh] We started talking about this and that, and he thought the Titanic was some boat the Japanese sank during World War II.


Dave: Yeah, and he's a real couch potato. He invited me over to his parent's house to watch TV. Wow. I bet watching TV is his only hobby, but he sure doesn't know much.

Russell: Too bad. Hey, do you wanna go out and get something to drink? It's pretty early.

Dave: Nah. I'm gonna hit the sack. I have a test tomorrow morning, and I wanna be ready for it.
Focus Sheet 3-4
New Words

flick
awesome
airhead
whoa
couch potato
bet
hit the sack
I. Pre-Listening Exercises

1. What is "slang"; who uses it in your own culture (e.g., male, female, young, middle-aged, old, etc.); and give examples of when it is used.

II. Listening Exercises

1. Listen to each of the short statements by pressing the "Play" button (for either Wav or RealAudio (RA) sound files) and choose the correct meaning for each. There will be a short pause between questions. Press the "Final Score" button to check your score.
Focus Sheet 3-5 (continued)
Questions of Assessment Sheet 1-1

[ PLAY WAV | PLAY RA ]

1. What does the man think of Bob?
   - A. Bob is very intelligent.
   - B. Bob is an energetic person.
   - C. Bob is really stupid.

[ PLAY WAV | PLAY RA ]

2. How did the man like the movie?
   - A. He thought it was boring.
   - B. He thought it was exciting.
   - C. He thought it was very silly.

[ PLAY WAV | PLAY RA ]

3. What does the man invite Tom to do?
   - A. He invites Tom out for a drink.
   - B. He invites Tom to go fishing.
   - C. He invites Tom to a movie.

http://www.esl-lab.com/slang/slangrdl.htm
Focus Sheet 3-5 (continued)
Questions of Assessment Sheet 1-1

4. How does the man's brother spend his day?
   - A. His brother reads.
   - B. His brother watches TV.
   - C. His brother cooks.

5. What is the man going to do?
   - A. He is going to study for a test.
   - B. He is going to take a bath.
   - C. He is going to bed.

http://www.esl-lab.com/slang/slangrd1.htm
Focus Sheet 3-6
Answers of Assessment Sheet 1-1

1. Answer: C
Bob is a real airhead.
airhead (noun): a stupid person

2. Answer: B
The movie was really awesome.
awesome (adjective): great or exciting.

3. Answer: C
Hey Tom, do you wanna watch a flick tonight?
watch a flick (verb phrase): watch a movie

4. Answer: B
My brother is a couch potato.
couch potato (noun): a person who spends a lot of time watching TV

5. Answer: C
I think I'm gonna hit the sack.
hit the sack (verb phrase): go to bed
A. Choose the appropriate word from the list and write down in the blanks.
1) Let's catch a ________ at the drive-in.
2) Ah. She's a real ________. From morning until late night, she sits in front of the TV.
3) It's foolish to ________ on horses.
4) I'm going to ________ before 10:00 P.M. tonight.
5) The movie is totally ________.
6) Ah, she's a real ________ when it comes to current events.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>bet</th>
<th>hit the sack</th>
<th>airhead</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>couch potato</td>
<td>awesome</td>
<td>flick</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Answer the following questions in English. Do not use slang words here.
1) Where did Dave and his roommate go last weekend?


2) According to Dave, why does his roommate think the Titanic sank?


3) According to Dave, what is his roommate's hobby?


4) Do both Dave and Russell think that Dave's roommate is a bright person?


5) When Russell asked Dave to go out to get something to drink, did Dave agree with it? Why, or why not?
Listen to the short sentences online. Follow the directions as follows:

1. Open the webpage:
   http://www.esl-lab.com/slang/slangrdl.htm
2. When you are ready, press the "Play" button (for either Wav or
   RealAudio (RA) sound files) and choose the correct meaning for each.
   There will be a short pause between questions.
3. Listen to each sentence only once.
4. Write the answers below.

Answers:

1. _______

2. _______

3. _______

4. _______

5. _______
As the 21st century begins, the United States probably has a greater diversity of racial, ethnic, cultural, and religious groups than any other nation on earth. From the beginning of the history of the United States, there has been diversity—Native Americans throughout the North American continent, Spanish settlers in the Southwest and in Florida, French missionaries and fur traders along the Mississippi River, black slaves brought from African countries, Dutch settlers in New York, Germans in Pennsylvania, and, of course, the British colonists, whose culture eventually provided the language and the foundation for the political and economic systems that developed in the United States. Historically, the United States has been viewed as "the land of opportunity," attracting immigrants from all over the world. The opportunities they believed they would find in America and the experiences they actually had when they arrived nurtured this set of values.

(Datesman, Crandall, & Kearny, 1997, pp. 22-23)
Focus Sheet 4-2
Affective Strategy

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

What to do when you just do not understand:
1. Don’t panic. Remember that you are not alone. Your classmates are probably having difficulty, too.
2. Continue to take notes even though they may not be perfect. Any nouns and verbs you manage to write down will be useful later when you start asking questions to determine exactly what you missed.
3. Don’t give up. Continue to concentrate on the topic. Try not to let your mind wander. Thinking about something you do understand about the topic usually helps.
4. When you feel lost, listen for key nouns and verbs in the next few sentences. These words carry most of the meaning.
5. Also jot down any negative terms such as “never” and “not.” Without these words, your notes may appear to say the opposite of what the speaker intended.
6. Try repeating to yourself the sentence or sentences you cannot seem to understand. If this does not help, try punctuating the sentence differently or changing the rhythm, stress, or intonation patterns as you repeat it to yourself. Sometimes this is all it takes to jump from the muddle of incomprehension to the “Aha!” of understanding.
7. Familiarize yourself with the speaker’s topic ahead of time. If this is an academic class, complete the assigned readings before the lecture. If there are no assigned readings or if the readings are very difficult, try to find some general information on the topic from an encyclopedia, a magazine, or a textbook from a lower-level course.

(Ferrer-Hanreddy & Whalley, 1996, p. 116)
Diversity in California

A young American woman talks about how she enjoys the diversity in California, with its large Mexican and Asian communities.

Details:

- **Topic**: Life Style
- **Length**: 1:19
- **Accent**: General American
- **Gender**: Female
- **Speed**: Medium

Listen

http://www.englishlistening.com/itemdtl.phtml?raid=008-06
Diversity in California

Okay one of the great things about California which singles that state out over everybody and especially southern California is its diversity. You have this huge Mexican influence in California. And it can be seen everywhere, in the houses, in the way of stucco design and everything... as soon as you go there, you know you are in California. And the street names uh I dare anybody to find street name doesn't have... that is in English rather than Spanish. Everything is in Spanish over there. And... part of it is because um Mexico is so close and there are so many immigrants in that area that they've influenced California so greatly. And I'm sure part of it has to do with that California was once a part of Mexico. California is a Mexican word. And... or a Spanish word. And um... not only is the Mexican culture prevalent there, but the Asian culture is. You have a lot of Chinese and Japanese and Korean, all coming to California because it's the closest place to Asia. And it's... it's really interesting because um in a lot of places there... there is no exposure beyond Caucasians. But in California there's everybody.
Focus Sheet 4-5
New Words

diversity
huge
influence
immigrant
prevalent
exposure
Focus Sheet 4-6
Script of "Melting Pot or Salad Bowl"

Melting Pot or Salad Bowl

The population of the United States includes a large variety of ethnic groups coming from many races, nationalities, and religions. The process by which these many groups have been made a part of a common cultural life with commonly shared values is called assimilation.

Some have described the United States as a "melting pot" where various racial and ethnic groups have been combined into one culture. Others are inclined to see the United States as a "salad bowl" where the various groups have remained somewhat distinct and different from one another, creating a richly diverse country.

(Datezman, Crandall, & Kearny, 1998, p. 148)
A. Answer the following questions in English.

1) What does she like about California?

2) According to the speaker, in what language are most of the street names?

3) According to the speaker, to what other country did California belong?

4) Why does she think that Chinese, Koreans, and Japanese came to California?

B. Make sentences using the following words.

1) diversity

2) huge

3) influence

4) immigrant

5) prevalent

6) exposure
Assessment Sheet 4-1  
Diversity in America

Listen to the audiotape. The title of the article is "Melting Pot or Salad Bowl." Read the questions for two minutes. Listen carefully and answer the following questions.

Question: Choose a correct answer among a), b), and c).

1. The population of the United States includes a variety of ethnic groups coming from many ________.
   a) races, nationalities, and religions.
   b) cultures, races, and customs.
   c) nationalities, cultures, and races.

2. The process by which many groups have been made a part of a common cultural life with commonly shared values is called ________.
   a) association
   b) assimilation
   c) anticipation

3. "Melting pot" means ________.
   a) the place where a certain kind of race gathers.
   b) the place where the various groups have remained somewhat distinct and different from one another, creating a richly diverse country.
   c) the place where various racial and ethnic groups have been combined into one culture.

4. "Salad bowl" means ________.
   a) the place where the various groups have remained somewhat distinct and different from one another, creating a richly diverse country.
   b) the place where various racial and ethnic groups have been combined into one culture.
   c) the place where a certain kind of race gathers.
Imagery Strategy

Imagery strategy is relating new information to visual concepts in memory.

Example: Fold this paper on the dotted line. Make a guess and predict what happens in the pictures below. After listening to the audiotape, read the script and do self-assessment.

Focus Sheet 5-1

Imagery Strategy

Tapescript

Bob: Hi, this is Bob Hall. Can I speak to Mr. Jones?
Mary: I'm sorry, but he's out to lunch right now. Would you like to leave a message?
Bob: Please tell him Bob would like to reschedule Wednesday's appointment to next Monday at 10 o'clock.
Mary: Sure, no problem. Let me write it down. Okay, I'll be sure to give him the message.

[Mr. Jones comes back to the office]

Mary: Mr. Jones, Mr. Bob Hall called you and said that he would like to reschedule Wednesday's appointment to next Monday at 10 o'clock.
Mr. Jones: Okay. Thank you, Mary.
Peter's Day
A university student talks about a typical day at college.

Details:

- **Topic:** Daily Routine
- **Length:** 1:07
- **Accent:** General American
- **Gender:** Male
- **Speed:** Medium

Return to Listening Menu.

Study Aids

[Questions | Questions & Answers | Transcript]
Focus Sheet 5-3
Imagery Strategy

Make a guess and predict what happens in the pictures below.
Peter's Day

I am a student at the College of New Jersey. I have been going there for four years. This is my last semester. I graduate in December. Um and my daily routine for this semester goes like this. I wake up every morning around ten thirty. I don't have to get up too early. Um my classes usually begin around eleven. So before classes I like to take a shower, clean myself. I try to eat some food before class, but that doesn't usually happen. Then I have to walk over to the academic buildings. It takes about ten minutes for me to get there. Um I get through with my classes which are consecutive. I have two classes usually a day and they are... they go one after another. After classes I come home and I eat lunch and just hang around a little bit, hang out with my friends. And then we eat dinner together, and then we try to look for something to do for the evening to have fun. Um after that, we just relax and go to sleep.
Focus Sheet 5-5

New Words

semester
graduate
routine
academic
consecutive
relax
Focus Sheet 5-6
Webpage of "Harold's Daily Life"

Possible Answers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>takes a shower</th>
<th>leaves for</th>
<th>goes to</th>
<th>reads</th>
<th>goes to bed</th>
<th>gets home</th>
<th>works</th>
<th>eats dinner</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gets</td>
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<td>takes plays</td>
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<td>eats</td>
<td>gets up</td>
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<td></td>
<td>breakfast</td>
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</table>

Everyday, Harold [ ] until 6 a.m.

He [ ] when his alarm rings

He [ ] after he gets up.

Then he [ ]

http://grove.ufl.edu/~ktrickel/teslmini/btm.html
Focus Sheet 5-6 (continued)
Webpage of "Harold’s Daily Life"

- After breakfast, Harold usually reads the newspaper.
- Everyday, Harold goes to work by bus at 8 o'clock.
- He takes the bus past University Avenue.
- When he boards the bus, he usually waves to the bus driver.

http://grove.ufl.edu/~ktrickel/teslmini/btm.html
Focus Sheet 5-6 (continued)
Webpage of "Harold's Daily Life"

Harold usually work by 8:30.
He all day at his desk.

Harold work everyday at 5 o'clock
After work, he the park.

At the park, Harold basketball with his friends.
He finally at 6:30.

http://grove.ufl.edu/~ktrickel/teslmini/htm.html
At home, Harold □ □ at 7 o'clock everyday.

Harold always □ □ by 10 o'clock.

Continue

http://grove.ufl.edu/~ktrickel/teslmini/htm.html
A. Listen to “Peter’s Day” and put the following pictures in the correct order. Do not look at Focus Sheet 5-3.

B. Connect each word to the similar meaning.

1) semester  
   - ease, loosen up, put off
   - scholastic
   - consistent, consequent
   - term
   - finish, leave
   - chore, ordinary
Assessment Sheet 5-1
Americans' Daily Life

Question: Listen to the story about Harold's daily life on line (http://grove.ufl.edu/~ktrickel/teslmini/btm.html) and put the following pictures in the right order.

Write the answers here:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>1)</th>
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<td>16)</td>
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<td>18)</td>
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</table>
Welcome to the greatest adventure the world has ever seen - the California Gold Rush. This site is your comprehensive guide to the epic quest for gold.

**About the Gold Rush**
A complete compendium on the great quest for gold.

**Classroom Resources**
Activity ideas, test questions, related links, and more.

**The PBS Documentary**
About the film and the filmmakers.

**Fun Facts**

---

**Are you a descendent of a Gold Rush pioneer?** If so, send us a brief e-mail. We're collecting stories for a new project titled "Gold Rush Legacies."

Did your ancestors strike it rich? Or strike out? Did they stay in California? Or move back home? How did their experience in the Gold Rush impact your family over the years? Tell us all about it! (We'd appreciate it if you could leave your name and a phone number or e-mail address -- should we need to follow up.)

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http://www.pbs.org/goldrush/
Focus Sheet 6-2
Strategies Review

Self-Management Strategy
Reduce anxiety.
Improve concentration on speakers.
Maintain a positive attitude.

Note Taking Strategy
Listen to the main idea and keywords.
Use abbreviations and symbol.
Create a personal note-taking system to help retain information.
Listen for repeated terms, or ideas.
Indentation.

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

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

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

Imagery Strategy
By looking at pictures, make a guess and predict what the speaker is going to talk about.
Listen to the song and read the words.

Click on one below. The first has the best sound quality, and the second is for slower modems. You may need to download the free RealPlayer from www.real.com/

"Riding West of Tucson" (at 56 K Modem Connection or Greater)

"Riding West of Tucson" (at 28.8 K Modem Connection or Less)

You may want to print the words to use while you listen. Click here for a complete text.

Riding West of
Tucson
by Chuck Phillips

I'm riding west of Tucson
On a dark and ______ trail
The ______________ are sleeping
But I hear ____________ yell

Shadows dance on ______
And ____________ prowl the night
I think I see a ghost town
In the pale moon light

http://www.u.arizona.edu/~cphillip/westernsong.html
Bang! I hear a _________!
Somewhere up ahead
I'd better hide behind these rocks
Or I will soon be _________

I'll wait here for the sunrise
And try to get some rest
I've used most of my water
And I'm _________ and depressed

(chorus)
Searching for bright silver, and that precious gold
So many have tried before me, but failed, I am told
But if I don't find silver or any precious gold
I need to find pure water or I'll die before I'm old.

I wake up and see the

___________
The blue sky is _________
I'll make a cup of coffee
And regain my confidence
Riding west of Tucson
In the _______ desert heat
I see a gleam of _________
It will make my life complete

(chorus)

I follow the gleam of treasure
In a canyon of _____ rocks
The _________ trees seem much greener
Home for squirrels and _______

I've found the source of brilliance
A sight for my ______

You can't _________ gold and silver
But this treasure gives you life

(chorus)

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These words and music may be used for teaching. Any other use is not allowed without permission from the authors.

http://www.u.arizona.edu/~cphillip/westernsong.html
Riding West of Tucson

I'm riding west of Tucson
On a dark and dusty trail
The rattlesnakes are sleeping
But I hear coyotes yell

Shadows dance on cactus
And scorpions prowl the night
I think I see a ghost town
In the pale moon light

Bang! I hear a gunshot!
Somewhere up ahead
I'd better hide behind these rocks
Or I will soon be dead

I'll wait here for the sunrise
And try to get some rest
I've used most of my water
And I'm thirsty and depressed

(chorus) Searching for bright silver, and that precious gold
So many have tried before me, but failed, I am told
But if I don't find silver or any precious gold
I need to find pure water or I'll die before I'm old.

I wake up and see the sunrise
The blue sky is immense
I'll make a cup of coffee
And regain my confidence

Riding west of Tucson
In the endless desert heat
I see a gleam of treasure
It will make my life complete

(chorus)

I follow the gleam of treasure
In a canyon of red rocks
The pine trees seem much greener
Home for squirrels and hawks

I've found the source of brilliance
A sight for my sore eyes
You can't drink gold and silver
But this treasure gives you life

(chorus)
Focus Sheet 6-5
New Words

dusty
trail
rattlesnake
coyote
shadow
prowl
pale
depressed
precious
confidence
gleam
squirrel
hawk
brilliance
Read the webpage (http://www.pbs.org/goldrush/) and fill in the blanks.

### About the Gold Rush

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<td>Collision of Cultures</td>
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<tr>
<td>Changes</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A. By using each of the following words, make a sentence.
1) dusty

2) pale

3) depressed

4) precious

5) brilliance

B. Answer the following questions in English.
According to the song of "Riding West of Tucson,"
1) how is the journey to the west?

2) what makes him depressed?

3) what does he do in order to regain his confidence?

4) what kind of weather is Tucson?

5) what do the following lyrics mean? What does the writer of this song infer?
Lyrics: "You can't drink gold and silver
But this treasure gives you life"
Listen to the song, "Riding West of Tucson," and fill in the blanks.

I'm riding _______ of Tucson
On a dark and _______ trail
The rattlesnakes are sleeping
But I hear coyotes yell

Shadows dance on cactus
And scorpions _______ the night
I think I see a ghost town
In the pale moon light

Bang! I hear a ________!
Somewhere up ahead
I'd better hide behind these rocks
Or I will soon be dead

I'll wait here for the sunrise
And try to get some rest
I've used most of my water
And I'm thirsty and ________

(chorus) Searching for bright silver, and that ________ gold
So many have tried before me, but failed, I am told
But if I don't find silver or any precious gold
I need to find pure water or I'll die before I'm old.

I wake up and see the ________
The blue sky is immense
I'll make a cup of coffee
And regain my ________

Riding west of Tucson
In the ________ desert heat
I see a gleam of treasure
It will make my life complete

(chorus)

I follow the gleam of treasure
In a canyon of red rocks
The pine trees seem much greener
Home for ________ and hawks

I've found the source of ________
A sight for my sore eyes
You can't drink gold and silver
But this ________ gives you life

(chorus)
Homework Sheet 6-1
Self-Evaluation Strategy

Congratulations! You completed the Unit. Please fill in this self-evaluation form in order to assess your learning process.

1. The first day of class, what were your main difficulties in listening?

2. What strategies do you think most useful?

3. Did you try to use as many strategies you had learned as possible?

4. Did you used the strategies when you worked on your homework as well?

5. After the half of the unit, did you feel you improved in listening? Why or why not?

6. At present, do you feel more comfortable when you listen to native English speakers? Why or why not?

7. What kind of benefits are there in working with your group members?

8. Do you like learning in a computer-assisted language learning environment? Why or why not?

9. Do you like all the lessons that you have learned? Why or why not?

10. Do you think all the assessments and teacher's observation help you? Give yourself a score. Why or why not?
BIBLIOGRAPHY


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Murphy, J. M. (1985). An investigation into the listening strategies of ESL college students. (ED 278275).


