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

Masahiro Fujita

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DEVELOPING LISTENING COMPREHENSION COMPETENCE IN JAPANESE ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNERS

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

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
in
Education:
Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

by
Masahiro Fujita

December 2002
DEVELOPING LISTENING COMPREHENSION COMPETENCE IN
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Approved by:

Lynne Diaz-Rico, First Reader

Young Suk Hwang, Second Reader
ABSTRACT

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

This project consists of five chapters. The first chapter, the introduction, elucidates the current situation of Japanese education. The second chapter, the review of literature, describes the five key concepts of this project. The third chapter, the theoretical framework, provides the theoretical design and interconnections of
the concepts in the second chapter. The fourth chapter, the curriculum design, explains the rationale for connection between the theoretical framework in Chapter Three and the instructional lesson units. The fifth chapter, the assessment, offers the proposed assessment for the instructional units described in Chapter Four. Lastly, six lesson plans and a list of useful homepages for language learning are included as appendices.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

In this, the early 21st century, Japanese education has been undergoing a major transformation. According to Fujita (2000), the present period can be characterized as that of the third reform, following establishments of the first public education system during the Meiji era (1868-1912) and the second reform after World War II. In April of 2002, the government curriculum guidelines were changed dramatically. The number of lessons and the contents of each subject were reduced substantially and a five-day school week was introduced to all the public schools in Japan for the purpose of reforming the traditional educational system that relied primarily on memorization.

Contrary to this overreliance on rote learning, English education requires curricular innovation to foster students' practical communicative competence. Comparing this goal to current practice, most people realize that there are many defects in English language teaching in Japan. In society at large, there is much demand for more practical English instruction for business purposes.
The results of Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) are often used as the indicator to show whether Japanese speakers have an acceptable level of English proficiency. According to one survey (Educational Testing Service, 2002), the average score of Japanese examinees between 2000-2001 was 183 out of a possible 300, which ranked in 145th place of 155 countries in the world. Moreover, the listening subtest, which was the weakest part for Japanese people, was between 149th and 152nd place of 155 countries. This test is quite reliable because it is well designed to measure listening, writing, and reading competence. Therefore, this low score indicates that English competency for Japanese people has become a crisis.

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

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

The Historical View of English Education in Japan

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

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

In the period between 1897 and 1907, the rapid assimilation of knowledge from Europe had begun to decline because ultra-nationalistic thought appeared among Japanese people after series of triumphs in the Japanese-Chinese and Japanese-Russia wars (Takanashi, 1997). At
that time, some people resisted the emphasis on English education. The Minister of Education of the day declared that education in Japan must be done in Japanese (Takanashi, 1997). After this decision, English lost its role as a medium for communication for higher education in Japan.

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

However, it is also important to point out that the Minister of Education's decision brought about so-called "examination English" because the practical aspects of listening to and expressing in English were not emphasized (Takanashi, 1997). Both teachers and students were unconcerned about English pronunciation, intonation, or listening competence, because these skills were not needed to pass the examination (Kitao, 1996). The aim of English
teaching in Japan had become to teach complicated techniques to solve test questions, almost like decoding a password. English in Japan had become like Latin in Europe, an academic subject rather than a living language.

Several other teaching approaches have been introduced to the English classroom, such as the "read and understand method," whereby students would read and understand English without rearranging it into a Japanese syntactic pattern, and the "oral method." However, these methods could not and did not proliferate as English teaching approaches due to the nature of the English examination pressures (Takanashi, 1997).

English Education in Japan

Class Size. Classes in Japan are large, often with as many as 40 students. Because teachers cannot spare time for each student, they have no choice but to give teacher-centered lectures to many students. In this situation, students hardly speak English, although this is an English class.

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

Ineffective Use of Language Equipment. In recent years, most schools have acquired new language learning equipment such as networked computers and multimedia software. Many teachers, however, have not been making the best use of these effective teaching tools because they are not familiar with these facilities enough to incorporate them into their lessons, and they are not willing to devote much time to any teaching methods except preparing students for the entrance examinations.
Ineffective Use of Assistant English Teachers. The Japanese government began the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) program in 1987, which invited many young English-speaking persons to Japan as assistant English teachers. As a result, nowadays each school has at least one assistant English teacher (A.E.T) in Japan. Nevertheless, students have only a few lessons from the A.E.T per year. Firstly, this is due to the fact that quite a few parents and students expect the classroom teacher to teach students the skills and knowledge necessary for the entrance examinations. Moreover, although team-teaching is a main teaching style for A.E.T because they are not officially licensed teachers, many Japanese English teachers are reluctant to create their lessons in collaboration with the A.E.T. It is sometimes a nuisance for these Japanese teachers to prepare team-teaching lessons because few of them are willing to spare time from teaching for the entrance examinations, and others do not have enough command of English to work with the A.E.T.

Needs for Practical English Competence

As described above, communicative competence was so long ignored that learners did not have motivation to learn listening, speaking, and writing skills, which are
not deemed as important for examinations. Also, learners do not have many opportunities to use English and do not feel the necessity for communicative English competence because Japan is a homogeneous and monolingual country. However, acquiring communicative English competence can give people an unlimited possibility for success. For example, eighty percent of computer data is processed and stored in English, and five thousand newspapers--more than half of the newspapers published in the world--are in English (Kitao, 1996).

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

**Target Teaching Level**

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

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

Content of the Project

This project consists of five chapters: introduction (Chapter One), review of the literature (Chapter Two), theoretical framework (Chapter Three), curriculum design (Chapter Four), and a proposed assessment (Chapter Five). Chapter One presents the current situation of Japanese English education and its challenges, as well as the purpose of this project. Chapter Two describes the five main key words of this project: (1) the information processing model of listening comprehension, (2) learning strategies in listening comprehension, (3) phonological contrast between English and Japanese affecting listening comprehension, (4) computer-assisted language learning,
and (5) project-based language learning; and how they can be interrelated to develop listening competence. Chapter Three provides a theoretical framework based on the five key words described in Chapter Two. Chapter Four explains the rationale for connection between instructional lesson units and the theoretical framework. Lastly, Chapter Five offers the proposed assessment for the instructional units described in Chapter Four.

**Significance of the Project**

The purpose of this project is to develop an effective teaching approach to foster practical English communication skills through the development of listening comprehension ability. The information processing model makes it possible to create a listening exercise based on the human mental process. Also, learning strategies can facilitate listening comprehension processing. In addition, phonological knowledge is indispensable to overcome negative transfer from Japanese language, which has many different features than English, and develop the new sound system of English. Lastly, computer-assisted language learning and project-based language learning can integrate language skills to develop the actual target
language use. Listening comprehension is such a complicated, active process that its learning should not involve merely listening, but rather scientifically based lessons. Also, teachers should assume a new role as a facilitator of learners' language development.
CHAPTER TWO
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The Information Processing Model of Listening Comprehension

Importance of the Information-Processing Model

For a long time, many researchers and educators have been studying how they can teach language to learners effectively. However, it was not until recently that brain function was considered in the field of education. According to Genesee (2000), understanding how the brain learns helps language teachers enhance their effectiveness in the classroom. Schwartz (1998) described how information processing is needed to represent, organize, transform, and integrate information in language learning. Second/foreign language listening comprehension has a more complex cognitive process than other processes of language comprehension (Buck, 1995). Therefore, teachers of listening need to draw upon these pedagogical experiences to understand the function of specific information-processing models.

The Information-Processing Model

According to O’Malley and Chamot (1990), information processing refers to the process by which new information
is acquired, stored, and retrieved from memory. Also, Anderson (1985) described the information-processing model as consisting of three interrelated and recursive processes: perceptual processing, parsing, and utilization. The processes seem to co-relate with one another, recycle, and be modified based on what happened in prior or past processes (Schwartz, 1998). These three steps are the universal processes in all learning.

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

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

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

### Long-Term Memory
- Permanent—unlimited number of items held indefinitely
- Extracted meanings become part of existing schemata or existing scripts, or create a new schema
- The two types of knowledge:
  1. Declarative knowledge—knowing information about things
  2. Procedural knowledge—knowing how to use information

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Figure 1. Information-Processing Model of Listening Comprehension

stage cannot go on to the next stage. Therefore, English as meaningful sounds, but just continuous sound streams or noises (Schwartz, 1998).

**Short-Term/Working Memory.** Short-term or working memory has the capacity of about 20 to 60 seconds and about seven chunks of information (Coakley & Wolvin, 1985, cited in Schwartz, 1998). At this stage, in order to hold more information, the information processed in the previous stage is chunked or organized into syntactic, semantic, or phonologic meaning units according to a pattern (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990). Learners’ background knowledge and prior knowledge help them organize the information. Two processes, rehearsal and elaboration, may occur at this stage to increase its capacity. Rehearsal involves the repetition of items, which allows information to be retained longer in short-term memory. Meaningful repetition to connect the language with its meaning helps listeners organize information into long-term memory (Schwartz, 1998). Elaboration, on the other hand, helps to process information by relating it to information that is already known, such as mnemonic vocabulary learning (Schwartz, 1998). These processes can increase the amount
of information chunks or units transferred to long-term memory.

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

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

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

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

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

- Looking at pictures, maps, diagrams, or graphs,
- Reviewing vocabulary or grammatical structures,
- Reading something relevant,
- Constructing semantic webs (a graphic arrangement of concepts or words showing how they are related),
- Predicting the content of the listening text,
- Going over the directions or instructions for the activity, and
- Doing guided practice. (Schwartz, 1998, p. 15)

Activities in this stage can enhance learners' prediction and prior or background knowledge about the text. Consequently, listeners can receive a massive amount of comprehensible input during the listening activity. The pre-listening stage is crucial to improving the quality of the listening activity.
**While-Listening Stage.** While-listening activities are the activities that learners are asked to do either during the time they are listening to the passage, video, or teacher talk, or immediately after (Schwartz, 1998). The aim of the while-listening stage is "to help learners develop the skill of eliciting messages from spoken language" (Underwood, 1989, p. 45). These activities have to be interesting to motivate listeners, and not simple, easy tasks designed to avoid their failures and demotivations. The aim of activities in this stage is to support learners' listening comprehension, which include exercises such as the following:

- Circle an answer, a picture, or an object,
- Order items or pictures,
- Complete grids,
- Follow a route on a map,
- Fill in a picture,
- Check off items in a list, and
- Complete cloze exercises. (Schwartz, 1998, p. 16)

These activities can help listeners monitor their comprehension while listening to the text, and effectively
organize the information they hear. However, learners need to be trained to check their comprehension as they listen (Schwartz, 1998).

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

To sum up, the theory of the information-processing model can make it possible to improve the quality of listening activity. As a matter of course, teachers have
to create the listening lessons that facilitate their students' listening process as much as possible. In other words, learning never happens through just listening. The improvement of listening comprehension occurs when only harmonizing the level of difficulty of content with learners' readiness and motivation. Therefore, the knowledge of the information-processing model is essential for teachers to create the listening lessons that can foster learners' listening comprehension ability.

Learning Strategies in Listening Comprehension

Importance of Learning Strategies

The use of learning strategies is an important trend in second/foreign language learning. Research has shown that effective language learners know how to use appropriate strategies to reach their language goals, whereas ineffective language learners are not good at their strategy choice and use (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). Learning strategies include techniques to comprehend, store, and remember new information (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). For language learners, the effective combination of learning strategies and listening comprehension is also a key to achieving language learning goals. Because
listening involves an active on-going process rather than merely passive reception, second/foreign language learners need strategies to manage the information they hear. In short, strategies enable language learners to cope with input which they may have only half understood or perhaps not understood at all (Schwartz, 1998).

Lack of Learning Strategies on the Part of Japanese English Learners

Learning strategies currently have little place in contemporary Japanese education, due to its excessively teacher-centered environment. Students are so accustomed to a passive learning style that it is difficult for them to think by themselves or create and manage their own learning. Grammar-translation and rote-memorization methods, both of which are still dominant in Japan and which incorporate excessive teacher control, deprive students of imagination and responsibility for their own learning. More independent and positive learning habits, however, are required in order to acquire advanced language proficiency. Learning strategies are necessary to help Japanese EFL learners attain a high level of communicative English proficiency and develop their cognitive thinking.
In terms of listening comprehension, less effective learners tend to look for meaning on "a word-by-word basis" and not to try to make an inference for unfamiliar words or phrases (O’Malley & Chamot, 1989, p. 429). In addition, according to the study of Japanese EFL students by Nagano (1991), less effective listeners are not successful at segmenting a stream of speech into words, which greatly reduces the amount of information they can process initially, which is a peculiar drawback for Japanese EFL learners. As a result of their limited information, it is quite hard for Japanese EFL learners to construct meaning from spoken English.

Three Kinds of Learning Strategies

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

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


they assist learners in regulating their own learning (Pressley, Harris, & Guthrie, 1992), are linked to motivation (Paris & Winograd, 1990), and increase learners’ sense of self-efficacy or confidence in success (Zimmerman, 1990).
Cognitive strategies, the second category, are utilized during the execution of a task in order to facilitate comprehension or production (Chamot, 1995; see Table 2). Elaboration or use of prior knowledge, grouping or classifying items for effective learning, making inferences while listening or reading, and taking notes of important information to remember are all examples of cognitive strategies.

The third category of learning strategy is social/affective strategies, which include questioning for clarification, cooperating with peers on a learning task, and using affective controls such as positive self-talk to decrease anxiety (see Table 3). Social/affective strategies are related to the other two types of learning strategies (Chamot, 1995). For example, using a metacognitive strategy during listening, learners might face some sentences that do not make sense or unfamiliar words, and then they might try to use a cognitive strategy to solve the problem. In the case that neither a metacognitive nor cognitive strategy was successful, they might use a social/affective strategy as a final resort (Chamot, 1995).
Table 2. Cognitive Learning Strategies

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

Table 3. Social/Affective Learning Strategies

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


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

Process of Learning Strategy Instruction

No matter what their level of foreign or second language proficiency, all students have some cognitive control over their learning efforts and can describe their own mental processes to some extent (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). However, the way in which strategies are used, and the greater range of different types of strategies which a
learner can employ, divide learners into those who are either effective or less effective (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). Therefore, in classroom activities, teachers have to construct their lessons to help students develop new and more powerful strategies and broaden use of the strategies they already know. Chamot and Kupper (1989) suggested a learning strategy instructional framework. The framework includes the following steps:

(1) Identifying students' current strategies;
(2) Assessing their strategy needs;
(3) Planning strategy instruction;
(4) Direct teaching of strategies for different language skills;
(5) Providing extensive opportunities to practice using the strategies;
(6) Evaluating strategy use; and
(7) Helping students transfer strategies to new tasks. (p. 19)

**Identifying Current Strategies.** According to Chamot and Kupper (1989), three purposes can be served through identifying students' current strategies. Firstly, learners can develop their metacognitive awareness as they
describe their own thinking processes and discover those of their classmates. Secondly, discussing their learning strategies with their peers makes it possible for learners to discover new strategies and new applications of familiar strategies. Thirdly, a teacher can assess the strengths and weaknesses in learners' current strategy use, which is a great source for planning strategy instruction (Chamot & Kupper, 1989).

Effectively identifying learners' current learning strategies, however, is not easy. Active student involvement in the strategy identification process is essential because it can help build students' motivation and an understanding of their own cognitive processes, both of which are necessary for language acquisition (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). There are two methods that can identify learners' current learning strategies: retrospective interviews and think-aloud interviews (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). A retrospective interview with a group is quite effective because it can allow learners to reflect on all phases of a learning task, whereas its disadvantage is that learners may not report their strategy use accurately because they are not aware of their use of learning strategies (Chamot & Kupper, 1989).
A think-aloud interview, on the other hand, can give learners immediate access to strategies operating in short-term memory and can reveal the sequences of strategies used to solve a specific problem even though it can access only a part of all learning strategies that learners might use in learning tasks (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). The best tactic for teachers is to use both methods in order to discover all the strategies their students are currently using.

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

**Teach Strategy Use.** Lastly, a teacher has to construct lessons to teach students new learning strategies that they need, encourage their strategy use, and remind them of the strategies they already know. Chamot and Kupper (1989) suggested five steps of learning strategy instruction:
(1) Brief statement;
(2) Immediate practice;
(3) Post-independent practice and self-evaluation;
(4) Reduction of reminders; and
(5) Recycling strategies. (pp. 20-21)

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

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

According to Schwartz (1998), metacognitive strategies contribute indirectly to listening comprehension and play roles as "regulators" or "orchestrators" of all learning (p. 6). Metacognitive strategies are those that assist the learner to "think about thinking." They include planning, monitoring, and evaluating learning. In terms of listening, metacognitive
strategies enable learners to decide which listening strategies would be best in a particular situation. Therefore, it follows that metacognitive strategies also must be essential, especially for more independent learning through listening.

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

Also, Miller (2000) asserted the importance of self-monitoring. Because it is indispensable for learners to monitor their utterance or listening comprehension in order to improve their language competence (Miller, 2000), self-monitoring skills should be taught through classroom instruction.

Although the use of learning strategies can be developed successfully, it is difficult to transfer those strategies to new tasks, and it takes much time to acquire them. Successful transfer can be attained only when learners receive more explicit instruction about the value and purpose of the strategies and are encouraged to assess their effectiveness (Garner, 1987). Therefore, a teacher has the responsibility of delivering learning strategy instruction deliberately in order to foster and develop learners' strategy use.
Phonological Contrast between English and Japanese Affecting Listening Comprehension

Listening and speaking are two main obstacles for Japanese EFL learners. This is not only due to the lack of opportunities to listen to and speak English in Japan, but also due to the phonological differences between English and Japanese. Moreover, compared with reading and writing, listening activities have long been ignored in Japanese English education. Rivers (1968) described some Asian languages as being quite difficult for other language speakers because of their peculiar sound systems. Conversely, speakers of Asian languages, including Japanese, have much more difficulty acquiring the English sound system than do other language learners. Moreover, there are some specific disadvantages for Japanese native speakers who attempt to acquire English sound systems. These difficulties exist at basic levels of word and phoneme as well as the sentence level.

Segmental-Level Differences

Byrnes (1984) described one of the most important issues for language learning: the need to learn "a new inventory of phonemes and different allophonic realizations" (p. 323). There are many new phonemes in
English sounds for Japanese speakers, both vowel and consonant sounds.

**Vowels.** English has 16 vowel sounds (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992), whereas Japanese has just five vowel sounds (see Table 4.). Therefore, Japanese learners of English need to be trained to acquire this new sound inventory based on phonological differences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vowels of Japanese</td>
<td>/i//e//a//o//u/ (5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Thompson (1987) suggested some common pronunciation mistakes for Japanese learners of English. They are as follows:

1. /ɔː/ and /ɔu/ are pronounced as /oː/;
2. /æ/ and /ʌ/ are pronounced as /a/;
3. /ə/ is pronounced as /aː/;
4. Diphthongs ending in /ə/ are pronounced with /aː/;
(5) \( /i/ \) and \( /u/ \) are sometimes devoiced (whispered);
and \( /u:/ \) is unrounded. (pp. 213-214)

Similarly, Avery and Ehrlich (1992) suggested some common errors of vowel sounds for Japanese speakers. Initially, Japanese speakers pronounce vowel sounds that are between the tense and lax vowels of English because the distinction does not exist in the Japanese language sound system (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992). Secondly, the distinction of these sounds \( /e//æ/\Lambda//ə//ə/ \) is problematic for Japanese speakers (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992). Also, according to Fukasawa (2001), mastering the schwa sound \( /ə/ \) is the most important in learning vowel sounds for Japanese speakers based on the fact that both of these sounds do not exist in the Japanese sound system. Also, it is difficult to decode some sounds from the multiple ways they are spelled. In addition, based on the fact that the schwa sound \( /ə/ \) is the most frequently used vowel of all (Crystal, 1995), schwa sounds should be emphasized in a classroom.
Table 5. List of Consonant Sounds of English and Japanese

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


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

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

(1) /l/ and /r/ are pronounced as a Japanese /ɾ/, which is between the English /r/ and /l/;

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

(3) /θ/ and /ð/ are pronounced as /s/ and /z/ or /ʃ/ and /dʒ/;
(4) /v/ is pronounced as /b/;

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

(6) The distinctions of /t/ and /tʃ/, /d/ and /dʒ/ and 
    /z/, /s/ and /ʃ/ or /z/ and /dʒ/ are quite difficult 
    for Japanese speakers. (pp. 213-214)

Because listening comprehension and pronunciation training 
are interrelated (Brown, 1992; Morley, 1991), the 
pronunciation difficulties described above are also 
obstacles for listening comprehension (see Tables 4 and 5). 
Therefore, Japanese learners of English need to construct 
the English sound system through both listening and 
pronunciation activities to surmount the above 
disadvantages.

Also, Tables 6 and 7 show minimal-pair lists of vowel 
and consonant sounds based on the phonological challenges 
that Japanese speakers have (Fukasawa, 2000). According to 
Oller and Ziahosseiny (1970), it is difficult for learners 
to learn the subtle distinctions between the target and 
their first language, or within the target language. 
Therefore, exercises that use minimal-pair lists are quite 
profitable for Japanese speakers when acquiring an English
sound system. Indeed, minimal-pair drilling of individual sounds is the traditional way, but this provides the most reliable training (Gilbert, 1995).

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

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

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

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

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

**Word-Stress.** Word stress refers to one strong syllable that sounds longer, louder, and higher in pitch than the other syllables (Miller, 2000). Word stress is important for communication in English because English speakers generally store vocabulary items by their stress patterns (Levelt, 1989, cited in Gilbert, 1995). Therefore, the stressed syllable which is not clear or the wrong syllable being stressed causes great difficulties for speech communication. The Japanese language, however, does not have a stress system, but a pitch-accent system.
As a result, it is quite difficult for Japanese speakers to both recognize and make a stressed syllable, which is marked primarily by length and loudness (Fukasawa, 2001). Moreover, Gilbert (1995) asserted that if learners do not learn the stress pattern for a new word, they cannot recognize the word in spoken form. Also, according to Brown (1977, cited in Gilbert, 1995), the ability to identify stressed syllables is essential for listening comprehension. Therefore, it follows that understanding word stress is an essential step for not only speaking, but also listening comprehension.

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

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

Table 8. Examples of Word Linking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assimilation</td>
<td>We’ll miss you.</td>
<td>[mɪʃu]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assimilation</td>
<td>The dogs yelped.</td>
<td>[dɒgjɛlp]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduction</td>
<td>Chocolate</td>
<td>[tʃɔ(ː)k(ə)lɪt]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduction</td>
<td>Just now.</td>
<td>[dʒʌst nɔu]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduction</td>
<td>Lend me.</td>
<td>[lɛŋ(d)mɛ:]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduction</td>
<td>Call him.</td>
<td>[kɔl(ŋ)im]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contracted form</td>
<td>You should’ve told him.</td>
<td>[ʃʊdəv]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contracted form</td>
<td>I’d better hit the road.</td>
<td>[aɪd]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liaison</td>
<td>Will you top it up?</td>
<td>[tɒpitəp]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liaison</td>
<td>That’s a lot of nonsense.</td>
<td>[ðætsə] [lɔtəv]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liaison</td>
<td>He is as strong as ever.</td>
<td>[hɪzəz] [əzɛvər]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Supra-Segmental-Level Differences

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

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

**Difference of Frequency between English and Japanese Sounds**

Sanada (1999) described that the sound frequency difference between English and Japanese is also problematic for listening comprehension. Table 9 shows frequency differences of major languages in the world.
Frequency in an American English sound is mainly between 1000 and 4000 Hz, and moreover a British English sound reaches 12000 Hz; whereas the frequency in a Japanese sound is mainly between 200 and 1500 Hz (Murase, 1996).

Table 9. Frequency Differences of Major Languages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Languages</th>
<th>Hertz</th>
<th>125</th>
<th>250</th>
<th>500</th>
<th>1000</th>
<th>1500</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>3000</th>
<th>4000</th>
<th>12000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>British English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>American English</td>
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<td>French</td>
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<td>Italian</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
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</table>


This fact indicates that Japanese speakers need to be given special training to activate an ability to recognize high frequency sounds. According to some researchers such
as Sanda (1999) or Murase (1996), classical music such as Mozart may help learners improve the ability to receive high frequencies because this music includes a multitude of high frequency sounds. The use of classical music in second/foreign language learning is not a recent innovation. For example, classical music is used in Suggestopedia. In this teaching approach, classical music such as Mozart, Bach, and Tchaikovsky is used as background music (BGM) during a teacher’s recitation, and this rhythm and intonation can enhance language learning (Tazaki, 2000).

Japanese English (Katakana) Word Pronunciation

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Japanese Pronunciation</th>
<th>English Pronunciation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Travel</td>
<td>toraberu</td>
<td>træval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trouble</td>
<td>toraburu</td>
<td>træbl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vaccine</td>
<td>wakutʃin</td>
<td>væksin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virus</td>
<td>uirusu</td>
<td>væ (ə) ras</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vitamin</td>
<td>bitamin</td>
<td>vætamin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iron</td>
<td>airon</td>
<td>əjən</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vinyl</td>
<td>biniːru</td>
<td>vəml</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Report</td>
<td>repoːto</td>
<td>ripət</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NATO</td>
<td>nato:</td>
<td>nɛtou</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cook</td>
<td>kokku</td>
<td>kʊk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profile</td>
<td>purofʃru</td>
<td>prɔufəl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liver</td>
<td>rebaː</td>
<td>lɪvə</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>tɛma</td>
<td>θɪm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mania</td>
<td>mania</td>
<td>mɛniə</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zebra</td>
<td>zebura</td>
<td>zɪbra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coyote</td>
<td>kojoːte</td>
<td>kəʊɪout (i)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gourmet</td>
<td>gurume</td>
<td>ɡʊəmə</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organ</td>
<td>oruɡan</td>
<td>ɔəɡ (ə) n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Label</td>
<td>raberu</td>
<td>lɛib (ə) l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyena</td>
<td>haiena</td>
<td>hærən</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Debut</td>
<td>debjuː</td>
<td>dɛbjuː</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allergy</td>
<td>aærugiiː</td>
<td>ælædʒi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>enerugiiː</td>
<td>ɛnædʒi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genre</td>
<td>ʒanru</td>
<td>ʒæmərə</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>edʒiputo</td>
<td>ðʒipt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fanfare</td>
<td>fanfare</td>
<td>fænfae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ultra</td>
<td>urutora</td>
<td>ʌltra</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Rationale for Using Computers in Language Learning

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

History of Computer-Assisted Language Learning

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

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

Communicative CALL was dominant from the 1970’s to the 1980’s. This approach suggested that CALL should focus more on using forms than on the forms themselves (Lee, 2000). This was based on cognitive theories, which
recognized that learning was a creative process of discovery, expression, and development (Lee, 2000). Therefore, learners were encouraged to generate original utterances themselves and were taught grammar implicitly. Also, personal computers had begun to be used as main tools in the communicative CALL approach.

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

Types of Computer-Assisted Language Learning

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

First of all, computer-based instruction (CBI) is a broad term which refers to almost all kinds of computer use in education such as drill and practice, tutorials,
simulations, instructional management, supplementary exercises, programming, database development, writing using word processors, and other applications (Cotton, 1997). Both computer-assisted instruction (CAI) and computer-managed instruction (CMI) are kinds of CBI.

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

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

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) is a more specific term, which refers to the use of computers to assist second or foreign language instruction. In short, CALL is a CAI applied to second or foreign language learning.
Lastly, multimedia computer-assisted language learning (MCALL) refers to the combination of multimedia and CALL. MCALL can provide a data-rich and intellectually stimulating learning environment (Soo & Ngeow, 1998). Soo and Ngeow (1998) described that because traditional CALL software focuses on teaching about language rather than showing authentic instances of language interaction, multimedia is a much more powerful medium than CALL. In other words, although the computer itself may be not suitable for teaching creative skills of language, good authentic examples can enhance creative learning (Soo & Ngeow, 1998). Therefore, MCALL can create a far more creative language learning environment than can non-multimedia-based CALL. In other words, MCALL can establish a higher-order learning situation.

Advantages of Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

The computer has an almost unlimited potential for facilitating language learning. Initially, the learning rate is faster with CAI than with conventional instruction (Cotton, 1997). According to Capper and Copple (1985), CAI users sometimes learn as much as 40 percent faster than do students with teacher-directed instruction only. In
addition, retention of learned content by CAI is much better than that by traditional instruction (Cotton, 1997). These facts indicate that CALL is a quite effective learning approach for language learning.

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

- Computers... Are infinitely patient and never get tired, frustrated, or angry;
- Allow students to work privately;
- Never forget to correct or praise;
- Do not embarrass students who make mistakes;
- Make it possible to experiment with different options;
- Give immediate feedback;
- Give a sense of control over learning;
- Are more objective than teachers; and
- Free teachers for more meaningful contact with students. (Cotton, 1997, pp. 7-8)
Also, according to Soo (1999), multimedia computers allow learners to choose their individual learning styles. This might possibly be the greatest benefit of all. Integrating audio, visual, and tactile input simultaneously, which is hard for human teachers, makes it possible to let learners choose their preferences based upon what seems to be most interesting to them.

According to Wyatt (1984), CALL has three instructional roles: instructor, collaborator, and facilitator. The role of instructor refers to the practice activities such as drill-and-practice programs and tutorial programs. Drill-and-practice programs are given to students who are assumed to have already received and been introduced to the topic. On the other hand, tutorial programs are given to students who are assumed to have little or no prior introduction to the topic. Therefore, tutorial programs provide introduction, extra instruction, and practice for learners. Both drill-and-practice programs and tutorial programs teach students in a highly preplanned fashion; the students just follow the directions and produce the predetermined language forms and responses (Wyatt, 1984).
Secondly, a key characteristic of collaborative CALL is that the initiative is turned over to the student or group of students. Sometimes the end result of the activity will be predetermined, and sometimes it will be completely unpredictable. Moreover, the path to the final goal and the language used by learners will vary quite widely because they will depend on the learners' individual decisions (Wyatt, 1984). In other words, learners have to manage their own learning by means of their own decisions.

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

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

- Confusion caused by computer jargon,
- A fear that learning computer skills is too difficult,
- A fear of making mistakes that cannot be corrected later,
- A more generalized anxiety about the role of computers in everyday life,
- Dehumanizing effects of computers, and
- Possibility of lack of control. (Johnston, 1999, p. 341)

Because these anxieties are very deep and difficult to eliminate, raising students' comfort level is essential for an effective CALL environment. Beller-Kenner (1999)
suggested guidelines for training to increase learners' comfort levels. They are as follows:

- Make objectives meaningful;
- Teach technical elements on a need-to-know basis;
- Demonstrate all software;
- Choose an appropriate level of challenge, or let students choose the level; and
- Give students enough time to practice. (p. 370)

Summarily, giving clear directions and comfortable activities to learners lets learners take risks without any fear.

Using Computers to Improve Listening Comprehension Ability

Multimedia software has become very popular in second or foreign language education. Because the exciting, interactive nature of multimedia software can help learners feel more confident as they tackle their unfamiliar and difficult language acquisition (Northup & Tracy, 1998), teachers can facilitate their lessons by the use of multimedia software. Current innovative multimedia software can be quite useful to engage learners in active listening tasks. Two good software programs are introduced
here: "Communicate & Connect English" (2000) and "Learn to Speak English" (2002).

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

On the other hand, "Learn to Speak English" (2002) also includes speech recognition, voice recording, and playback technology. Moreover, it includes a talking dictionary and cultural movies. A talking dictionary is quite helpful to understand how each word sounds. And, the cultural movies can help learners to understand the target language culture. Both of the software programs offer
additional Internet lessons and resources. These sites provide much supplemental information to compensate for the limited capacity of the software.

Software evaluation is also important because each teacher has to choose multimedia software in accordance with the students and the learning environment. However, it is not so easy to select appropriate software without any criteria. According to Bradin (1999), criteria for software evaluation are divided into two steps: feasibility and quality. Figure 2 shows these steps.

As Figure 2 indicates, teachers have first to consider the possibility of using the software in their particular lab environment. The feasibility considerations needed to check this are as follows:

- Will the software run on your computer and platform?
- Can the software be made available to many students?
- Does the software require Internet access?
- Can you afford the software? (Bradin, 1999, p. 162)

First of all, teachers have to check the requirements for the software such as Macintosh or Windows. If needed, a review copy of many types of software is available to try. In addition, whether the software is available in
Step 1: 
Feasibility
Computer capacity
Network capacity
Students' availability
Affordable cost

Step 2: 
Quality
• Content
Software's level, accuracy, and flexibility
• Format
Consistent interface and effective display
• Operation
Clear directions, and ease of control

Figure 2. The Steps of Software Evaluation


other labs such as libraries or students’ personal computers should be considered if requiring their access to it after class hours. Secondly, some software requires very fast Internet connections and a great deal of random-access memory (RAM). In Japan, the broadband connection, which makes a fast access possible, has been coming into wide use quite rapidly. According to one survey (Asahi
Newspaper, 2002), as of summer 2002, about 4.3 million people in Japan have broadband connections. As the diffusion of broadband rises, web sites needing a fast connection will probably increase. Therefore, teachers must consider the capacity of their computer labs. Lastly, cost is an important consideration. Teachers need to keep in mind how much of their budgets can be spent on software. Also, purchasing a site license, not a single copy, is necessary to use the software on several computers.

The next step is about quality and appropriateness. These three elements: content, format, and operation should be considered (Bradin, 1999). Content refers to whether or not the goal of the software is consistent with teachers' and learners' learning goals, whether the level of the software is appropriate for learners, whether the content is accurate and interesting, and whether or not it is flexible for learners.

Format refers to whether the interface (the program's appearance to the user) is consistent enough that learners can focus on the task. It includes the quality of the graphics and the use of pictures for appropriate pedagogical reasons. Hanson-Smith (1999) also suggested
that one problem of multimedia software programs is the overuse of its special sound and animation effects, which creates an atmosphere in which learners are amused or entertained rather than taught.

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

In addition to multimedia software, the Internet is also a great tool for listening comprehension. There are numerous resources on the Internet for listening activities. For example, many web pages provide audio files and corresponding transcripts, which are quite useful for listening exercises. Learners may need to download some software such as RealPlayer, QuickTime, or WindowsMediaPlayer, but these are free to download on most Web sites. For example, Voice of America (http://www.voa.gov/) lets users hear its broadcasts on the Internet by
RealPlayer. Moreover, many TV and radio stations offer their broadcasts in spoken forms on the Internet (see Table 11).

Table 11. Authentic Resources for Listening Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>URL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Voice of America’s home page</td>
<td><a href="http://www.voa.gov/">http://www.voa.gov/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTV Online</td>
<td><a href="http://www.mtv.com/">http://www.mtv.com/</a></td>
</tr>
<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>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Interactive Movie Database</td>
<td><a href="http://www.imdb.com/">http://www.imdb.com/</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


By the use of these resources, teachers can let students listen to authentic news programs, and do a variety of exercises such as dictation or discussion. Also, some sites offer resources of current movies in a variety of forms such as digitized video clips or transcripts. As an example, Internet Movie Database (http://www.imdb.com/) offers summaries and transcripts of movies. Teachers can use the information for their listening activities.

In addition, many educators provide educational web sites for ESL or EFL learners and teachers. For instance, American English Pronunciation Practice in Interesting
Things for ESL Students (http://www.manythings.org/) offers a minimal pair of practices and quizzes, and exercises through English songs using FlashPlayer. In addition, other sites such as English Listening (http://www.englishlistening.com/) and ESL-Lab (http://www.esllab.com/) also offer many listening activities. These lessons use generally integrated audio and visual effects, and give immediate feedback to learners. These features provide assistance for learners to develop their skills.

Computer-Assisted Learning for Other Language Abilities

Reading. Internet access makes it possible to read various materials about any topic. However, for language teachers, choosing and providing authentic and appropriate materials for their students are primary tasks. One example, Project Gutenberg (http://www.gutenberg.net/), is a great archive for learners and teachers which offers copyright-free materials on-line. In addition, these web sites described above such as CNN or USA Today (See Table 11) are also good resources for reading materials. Moreover, English Online (LEO) (http://www.aec.ukans.edu/LEO/) provides many learning materials, integrated reading, and listening activities. Lastly, The Internet
TESL Journal Home Page (http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/links/) offers effective instructional lesson plans. These lesson plans are generally designed to integrate all language skills through Internet-connected activities.

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

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

**Teachers’ Role in Computer-Assisted Language Learning**

CALL has changed the role of teachers in the classroom. Soo and Ngeow (1998) asserted that the teacher in CALL is “no longer a transmitter of knowledge; rather he or she has become a mentor and a manager of the learning environment to aid his or her students in constructing knowledge” (p. 2). CALL must be a learner-oriented environment, but not a teacher-oriented one.

Finally, the teacher’s primary task is creating an effective and comfortable learning environment for learners and providing them with opportunities to experience actual and authentic target language input.
through computers along with appropriate learner encouragement.

In conclusion, the use of CALL should be encouraged with a focus on these two advantages: facilitating language learning and encouraging computer literacy. Most important, CALL can give Japanese learners of English meaningful reasons to use English. Providing meaningful situations to employ the target language is indispensable for language acquisition; however, it might be difficult in a homogeneous society such as Japan. It is optimistic to believe that CALL can give this solution for all learners and teachers. The only question is whether or not teachers can manage computers effectively.

Project-Based Language Learning

Rationale for Project-Based Language Learning in Japan

Education in Japan is at a turning point. The present can be characterized as the third reform, following establishment of the first public education system during the Meiji era (1868-1912) and the second reform after World War II (Fujita, 2000). In the spring of 2002, the government curriculum guidelines were changed drastically intending to overcome many educational problems. There
were two goals of reform: education free of pressure and creative learning. More specifically, the number of lessons and the contents were reduced substantially and a five-day school week was introduced to all the public schools in Japan. These revisions were intended to renovate the traditional educational system based on rote learning. Also, a "comprehensible studies" curriculum of about 100 credit hours a year is allotted for all the schools from elementary to high school (Fujita, 2000, p. 50). This new teaching approach is intended to foster students' creativity. According to the Government Curriculum Guidelines for High Schools (1999), the comprehensible studies can be described as follows:

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

2. Problem-solving learning;

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

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

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

Benefits of Project-Based Language Learning in Japan

Both comprehensible studies and project-based learning were not designed for language learning. However, these approaches have great potential in that domain. Fried-Booth (1997) recommended that project-based learning could work as a bridge between using English in class and English in real-life situations outside of class. Especially, in countries with a roughly and eventually homogeneous population such as Japan, in which people have only limited needs to use English as a real communication tool, connecting a target language and its real use is indispensable for developing communicative competence.
During project-based language learning, because learners find they need skills to plan, organize, negotiate, and make their points in the target language (Moss, 1998), they can have more positive learning motivation than during traditional learning situations, whose learning objective is mainly success on examinations. The same skills used for project-based language learning are also important for living successful lives (Moss, 1998). It is often said that Japanese people are not good at creative thinking during work, which is quite important skills for international business. Therefore, the development of these skills through schooling meets the requirement to raise young people better prepared for a creative future.

What is Project-Based Learning?

Project-based learning (PBL) is based on the progressivists' theory that "children learn best through experiences in which they have an interest, and through activities that allow for individual differences" (Wrigley, 1998, p. 14). Therefore, PBL emphasizes the need for learner-centered education. This is quite important concept for language learning. More specifically, Moss (1998) defines that the principles of project-based learning as follows:
1. Building on previous work;
2. Integrating speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills;
3. Incorporating collaborative team work, problem solving, negotiating and other interpersonal skills;
4. Requiring learners to engage in independent work;
5. Challenging learners to use English in new and different contexts outside the class;
6. Involving learners in choosing the focus of the project and in the planning process;
7. Engaging learners in acquiring new information that is important to them;
8. Leading to clear outcomes; and
9. Incorporating self-evaluation, peer evaluation, and teacher evaluation. (p. 5)

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

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

Secondly, after having selected a topic, learners plan the project, conduct research, and develop their products collaboratively. Collaborative work is essential because individuals' strengths and preferred ways of learning improve the work of the team as a whole (Lawrence, 1997), and facilitate the development of learners at low levels of language proficiency (Moss, 1998). Students may need to be taught specific language skills such as interview skills, note-taking skills, or
research skills to complete project tasks (Moss, 1998). Also, multimedia technologies can be great tools in the processes of PBL such as planning, developing, and presenting projects (Penuel & Means, 1999).

Thirdly, the results of the project have to be shared in various ways. Schack (1993) suggested that sharing results with authentic audiences can be a great motivation for students. In addition, reporting results in an effective form is essential for a successful project. In short, teachers need to teach students to communicate through written, oral, and visual means: slide shows, oral presentations, graphics, skits, photographs, videos, debate, and computer programs such as PowerPoint.

Possibility of Project-Based Language Learning in Japan

Project-based language learning for ESL learners has been studied by many researchers. However, project-based language learning in homogeneous societies such as Japan, which has limited target language use, has not often been researched. Therefore, project-based language learning in a homogeneous society should be reviewed.

The Use of Internet Resources. Information resources, such as the World Wide Web, play a critical
role in project-based learning (Land & Greene, 2000). Because about 85 percent of the electronically-stored information in the world is English (Crystal, 1997), both English and electronic literacy are essential to success in almost all works of life. Therefore, teachers should encourage their students to get information from English web sites. Also, teachers have to teach students how to navigate Internet sources, search for information, and critically evaluate and interpret the contents (Shetzer & Warschauer, 2000). These are the most crucial set of electronic literacy skills in both target languages and native languages.

Interview with Native-English Speakers. An interview is an effective way to get information in PBL. Doing interviews with native-English speakers can create opportunities to use English as a meaningful communication tool. These days, because each school has at least one native-English-speaker as an assistant English teacher (AET) in Japan, it is not so difficult for teachers to set up interviews within a school. After having conducted some interviews with the AET, students may be able to do interviews with native-English-speakers outside a school. This kind of real interaction with a target language

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speaker is essential for EFL learners to motivate their learning.

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

Assessments of Project-Based Learning

Assessment is not only important but also difficult for PBL because of its dynamic nature. According to Roth-
Vinson (2000), the aims of assessment for PBL are as follows:

1. Helping teachers develop more complex relationships with students by providing feedback to them,
2. Engaging students directly in the evaluation of their own work,
3. Helping teachers plan their next steps, and
4. Helping students plan their projects. (p. 38)

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

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

In summary, this chapter has provided an overview of five keywords in this project. In the section "Information-Processing Model of Listening Comprehension," the human mental process of information in listening was studied for the purpose of improving classroom listening activities. The section "Learning Strategies in Listening Comprehension," provided an overview of learning strategies helpful for listening comprehension. In the section "Phonological Contrast between English and Japanese Affecting Listening Comprehension," the fundamental differences between English and Japanese were investigated. In the section "Computer-Assisted Language
Learning," the advantages of computer technology for language learning were shown along with its pedagogical considerations. Lastly, in the section "Project-Based Language Learning," the possibility of PBL as a language teaching tool was explored.

The next chapter will provide a theoretical framework based on listening comprehension that synthesizes all the keywords provided in this chapter. This, in turn, will be the basis for design of the curriculum unit to follow.
The purpose of this project is to develop an effective listening training for high school EFL learners in Japan. However, this project intends not only to develop learners' listening skills, but also to foster their communicative competence. Towards this aim, the five keywords described in Chapter Two are essential pedagogical components. For example, it is indispensable for listening teachers to understand learning strategies and the information-processing model in order to make listening activities effective and meaningful. The use of CALL and PBL can facilitate language learning by employing positive learning techniques. Lastly, phonological studies can provide essential knowledge for teachers as they create activities to overcome specific and fundamental listening and pronouncing problems in English on the part of native speakers of Japanese.

Language Learning Model in This Project

Figure 3 shows the relationship of the five concepts in this project. In this figure, listening comprehension competence is defined as an essential foundation for
Figure 3. Key Components of a Learning Model that Promotes Listening Competence
all the other language skills such as speaking, reading, and writing. Initially, listening activities based on the information processing model, learning strategies, and phonological contrast training can promote learners' listening comprehension competence naturally and effectively. As listening ability increases, learners can also develop other language skills such as reading, speaking, and writing based on their listening skills.

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

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

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

Krashen (1985) also stated that there is a "silent period" among immigrant children (p. 9). According to this theory, children faced with a new language are typically silent for a long time. At a glance, they seem not to be learning a new language. However, this period is quite important for building up competence by listening through
comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985). After a silent period of several months, they begin to speak in the new language as the result of comprehensible input for a long time, and learn other language functions such as reading and writing based on their listening competence. Therefore, at the early stages of language learning, learners should be given considerable comprehensible listening activities in order to build up the foundation of the target language. This is the most natural and rational process of language learning.

Figure 4. Relationship between Speaking and Listening


Nord (1981) also insisted on the importance of listening. Figure 4 shows the relationship between speaking (production) and listening (reception). This
figure indicates that all the productive abilities are founded on the receptive ability. Summarily, real speaking and other productive competence require a firm foundation of listening competence.

![Speech Circuit Diagram]

**Figure 5. Speech Circuit**


Similarly, according to Tazaki (2000), the speech circuit analyzed psychologically by Palmer shows further evidence (see Figure 5). This figure indicates the fact that the acoustic image is a universal step for all the
four language skills. Namely, the acoustic image is indispensable not only for listening but also for reading, writing, and speaking. Therefore, listening activities should be focused on most of the four language skills so as to construct the basis of acoustic image.

Role of the Information-Processing Model

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

To put it concretely, the three stages of listening activities: pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening, can lead listeners to a better understanding.
Also, appropriate activities must be selected for each stage, which facilitate learners' understanding.

Role of Learning Strategy-Based Learning

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

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

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

Thirdly, social/affective strategies are indispensable skills in real communication. These
strategies are helpful for an interactive listening communication, which is the final goal of listening/comprehension competence.

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

Role of Phonological Contrast-Based Training

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

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

Role of Project-Based Language Learning

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

Role of Computer-Assisted Language Learning

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

Also, PBL activities can expand students' potential by using the technology of computers. Research on the Internet can bring fruitful results because of a vast number of resources. In addition, presentation via computer technology can give learners more creative ways to conduct their projects. Therefore, the effective use of computers is indispensable to attain a high quality of listening activities.
Summarily, this chapter has discussed two important issues. The first part argued that listening comprehension is an essential part of all language abilities. The second part provided a theoretical framework incorporating key concepts as essential components in this project. Namely, the framework explained how each key concept enhances listening comprehension competence. The next chapter, Curriculum Design, explains the connection of the instructional lesson units based on the theoretical framework discussed in this chapter.
CHAPTER FOUR
CURRICULUM DESIGN

Curriculum Organization

This curriculum features an instructional unit with six lessons. The instructional unit is designed for Japanese high school students. The six lessons can be divided into two parts. The first three lessons are designed for constructing learners' English sound system. The latter three lessons are featured for the purpose of improving learners' listening competence through various kinds of listening materials and activities.

The Characteristics of the Curriculum

As described before, the curriculum in this project consists of the two parts: the construction of the English sound system and authentic listening activities.

The first three lessons in this project are designed for the purpose of overcoming the phonological difficulties of English. Namely, the purpose of these lessons is to let learners become familiar with the idiosyncratic English sound system, with a view to constructing a reliable English infrastructure for further learning. Also, these lessons embrace some learning
strategic instructions in order to improve listeners' acoustic sensitivities.

The last three lessons are designed to let learners participate in various kinds of listening tasks. They provide three listening activities in accordance with the pre-, while-, and post-listening stages, which expedite learners' listening process. At the pre-listening stage, students' background knowledge about the topics of listening material is activated through a teacher's talk or discussion, and the key vocabulary of its material is introduced. At the while-listening stage, students work with a work sheet in order to enhance their understanding while listening to or watching the media. These note-taking activities are designed to let students focus on the main ideas of the listening passage. At the last stage, post-listening activity, learners are involved in activities for the purpose of the further development of their language competence. Concretely, Lesson Four asks students to discuss some questions about its topics while in a group. Lesson Five has learners discuss the cultural differences about the ways spoken language is used between Americans and Japanese as a group. Lastly, Lesson Six lets students engage in a project-based learning by using
English and discussing an American city. All these post-listening activities contribute to the development not only of learners’ communicative competence, but also of their cognitive and academic competence.

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

The Content of Each Lesson

Lesson One

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

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

Secondly, they practice English phonemes with the voice recognition program of multimedia software, the most
useful tool to develop a new sound inventory in the current situation.

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

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

Lesson Two

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

**Lesson Three**

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

Lastly, the "Listening Skill Checklist" is used to let learners check their progress in language competence. It helps learners confirm what they have learned so far,
and how these objectives can be used to advance their understanding of English.

Lesson Four

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

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

Lesson Five

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

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

ASSESSMENT

Purpose of Assessment

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

Types of Assessments

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

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

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

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

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

Teacher Observation and Evaluation

Teacher observation and evaluation is also a method to assess learners' competence. Its assessment encompasses these two main methods: observation-based assessment and teacher-made tests. The purpose of observation-based assessment is to record individual differences and a cooperative or collaborative group working in all types of interactional situations with a view to expediting
learners' progress. Multiple observations, which are either formal or informal, make it possible to assess learners' variety and progress.

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

(1) tests should put to use what is learned;
(2) the focus is on the message and function, not just on the form;
(3) there is group collaboration as well as individual work;
(4) respondents are called on to resolve authentic problems in language use, as opposed to contrived linguist problems; and
(5) testing looks like learning. (p. 183)
The reliable test allows no room for bias. However, teachers often make the tests based on their own past experiences. Therefore, these criteria stated above should be considered for teachers when to produce assessment materials.

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

Assessments of Listening Comprehension

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

Many considerations are necessary to develop listening assessment because of its unique aspects. A teacher assessing listening activities has to know the
differences between listening and reading assessment to avoid confusing them.

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

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

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

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

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

To sum up, assessment is a compass for the voyage called language learning. As such, it must be accurate and
applicable. However, it is especially difficult to evaluate listening comprehension because of its complex nature. Therefore, a teacher using listening comprehension has to be familiar with valid methods of listening assessment to effectively improve and facilitate students' listening comprehension competence.

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

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

LESSON PLANS
The Titles of Each Lesson

The Construction of an English Sound Inventory

(Lessons 1-3)

Lesson One: English Phonemes
Lesson Two: English Syllables & Stressed Syllables
Lesson Three: Thought Groups and Selective Listening

Authentic Listening Lessons

(Lessons 4 - 6)

Lesson Four: English News
Lesson Five: English Speech
Lesson Six: The American City
Lesson One
English Phonemes

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

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

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

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

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

<table>
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<tr>
<td>91-95</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>00-50</td>
<td>Incomplete</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
You must learn some new sound system because English sounds are quite different from Japanese sounds.

1. Vowel Sound Contrasts

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Vowels of American English</th>
<th>/i:/ /e:/ /æ/ /ə/ /o/ /u:/ /ɔ/ /ɔi/ /ʊ/ /ɔɪ/ /u:/ (16 sounds)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vowels of Japanese</td>
<td>/i:/ /e:/ /æ/ /ɔ/ /u/ (5 sounds)</td>
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2. Consonant Sound Contrasts

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Consonants of English</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consonants of Japanese</td>
<td>/p/ /b/ /t/ /d/ /k/ /ɡ/ /m/ /n/ /r/ /s/ /z/ /h/ /j/ /w/ (14 sounds)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Sources: Avery & Ehrlich, 1992, p. 183; Fukasawa, 2001, p. 200)
Focus Sheet 1-2
Self-monitoring, Repetition and Auditory Representation Strategies for Listening Comprehension

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### 16 American English Vowel Sounds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phonemes</th>
<th>/iː/</th>
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<th>/e/</th>
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<th>/a/</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult</td>
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### 24 English Consonant Sounds

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<th>/w/</th>
<th>/j/</th>
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116
Work Sheet 1-2
Minimal Pair Checklist

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson Number</th>
<th>Target Sounds</th>
<th>Self-checking</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 4 &amp; 16</td>
<td>/l/ /r/</td>
<td>Can you distinguish these sounds clearly? (Yes/No) Comments:</td>
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<td>Lesson 8</td>
<td>/b/ /v/</td>
<td>Can you distinguish these sounds clearly? (Yes/No) Comments:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lesson 10</td>
<td>/θ/ /s/</td>
<td>Can you distinguish these sounds clearly? (Yes/No) Comments:</td>
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<td>Lesson 12</td>
<td>/s/ /ʃ/</td>
<td>Can you distinguish these sounds clearly? (Yes/No) Comments:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lesson 19</td>
<td>/ʌ/ /æ/</td>
<td>Can you distinguish these sounds clearly? (Yes/No) Comments:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 24</td>
<td>/f/ /h/</td>
<td>Can you distinguish these sounds clearly? (Yes/No) Comments:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Minimal Pair Practice & Quizzes

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

- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 1: 13-30, ... (84Kb - the largest file)
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 2: ferry-very, ... (40Kb)
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 3: late-let, ... (37Kb)
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 4: lake-rake, ... (40Kb)
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 5: fond-found, ... (40Kb)
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 6: these-Z's, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 7: said-sad, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 8: best-vest, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 9: not-note, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 10: thick-sick, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 11: bus-boss, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 12: see-she, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 13: made-mad, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 14: run-rung, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 15: look-luck, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 16: climb-crime, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 17: hot-hat, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 18: they-day, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 19: run-ran, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 20: lugs-lungs, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 21: not-nut, ...
- Minimal Pairs - Lesson 22: thought-taught, ...
• Minimal Pairs - Lesson 23: eat-it, ...
• Minimal Pairs - Lesson 24: few-hue, ...

Songs & Poems
• Row, Row, Row Your Boat
• There was a young lady from Niger.

Tongue Twisters
Listen and practice each phrase slowly, then practice them quickly.
• How much wood would a woodchuck chuck?
• Rubber baby buggy bumpers
• She sells seashells by the seashore.

This is part of Interesting Things for ESL Students.

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http://www.manythings.org/pp/
Assessment Sheet 1

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

1. boat/vote
2. curb/curve
3. best/vest
4. right/light
5. lice/rice
6. long/wrong
7. thick/sick
8. think/sink
9. path/pass
10. mouse/mouth
11. fun/fan
12. bug/bag
13. cut/cat
14. run/ran
15. seas/she’s
16. sheet/seat
17. sip/ship
18. funny/honey
19. fear/hear
20. force/horse

(Five points for each question) Score: ___/100
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Score</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I understand English vowel sounds and can recognize them well.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand English consonant sounds and can recognize them well.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of strategies helped me recognize English sounds.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am familiar with self-monitoring, repetition, and auditory representation strategies.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoyed the class and learned a lot.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

5: excellent  
4: good  
3: acceptable  
2: needs improvement  
1: needs more attention in class
Lesson Two
English Syllables and Stressed Syllables

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

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

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

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

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

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

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Assessment:

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

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

Grading Scale for Assessment Sheet 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Grade</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>C</td>
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<td>00-50</td>
<td>Incomplete</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Focus Sheet 2-1

The English Syllable System

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

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

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

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

Examples: forward (for-ward), pattern (pat-tern), Important (im-por-tant), calculation (cal-cu-la-tion)
Work Sheet 2-1

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

1. part (  )
2. following (  )
3. number (  )
4. dictionary (  )
5. useful (  )
6. word (  )
7. repetition (  )
8. determines (  )
9. pencil (  )
10. expression (  )
11. group (  )
12. understanding (  )
13. pronounce (  )
14. sound (  )
15. correctly (  )
16. presentation (  )
17. experience (  )
18. think (  )
19. consonant (  )
20. contain (  )

(Source: Candace, M. 1994, p. 25)
Focus Sheet 2-2
Stressed Syllables

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(Source: Candace, M. 1994, p. 27)
Focus Sheet 2-3
Word-Linking

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

   Is she your sister? [ɪʃʃi]
   Need you go? [nɪdʒu]
   I asked you a question. [æsktʃu]

2. Reduction
Some sounds are omitted in some contexts.
   I finished it just now. [dʒʌsnəu]
   That present surprised them. [səprɑɪzəm]
   That old man is my grandpa. [ɔulfmən]

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

   Who’d like to play tennis? [huːd]
   I’ve forgotten her address. [aɪv]
   You might’ve known she’d refuse. [mæɪtəv] [ʃid]

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

   It’ll clear up soon. [klɪərɪp]
   I wonder if it’s true. [wʌndərifts]
   Enough is enough. [ɪnʌfɪzɪnʌf]

(Source: Fukasawa, 2001, pp. 76, 84, 102, 106, 120, 124, 164, and 166)
Directions: Listen to the audiotape carefully and fill in the blanks.

1. I _____ _____ few hours every day for reading.
2. We have to _____ _____ _____ detail.
3. I don’t want to be _____ _____ _____ the wheel.
4. Did you _____ _____ the report?
5. He’s _____ strong _____.
6. I must _____ _____ American literature.
7. That’s more _____ _____ _____.
8. He’ll _____ _____ tomorrow.
10. He went _____ _____.
11. I can’t see them from _____ _____ am.
12. I’ll love you _____ _____ ever.
13. If _____ _____ had more time!
14. It’s time you learned to _____ _____ _____ _____ feet.
15. We’ll _____ _____.
16. I can _____ _____ thoughts.
17. _____ be nice, I think.
18. What on earth _____ think _____ doing?
19. _____ gone when I got back home.
20. I’d rather you _____ _____ •••.
Focus Sheet 2-4

Answers

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

(Source: Fukasawa, 2001, pp. 74, 76, 78, 80, 84, 86, 90, 94, 102, 108, 122, 124, and 166)
Assessment Sheet 2

I. Listen to the audiotape and count the number of syllables.
   1. baby (   )
   2. do (   )
   3. conversation (   )
   4. engineer (   )
   5. sanitary (   )
   6. adventure (   )

II. Listen to the audiotape and circle the stressed syllables.
   1. med-i-ca-tion
   2. ma-chine
   3. im-i-tate
   4. de-lib-er-ate
   5. con-sti-tu-tion
   6. com-pu-ter
   7. con-cen-trate
   8. reg-is-tra-tion

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

(5 points for each question) _____/100

(Sources: I & II from Orion, G, F. 1997, pp. 20-22; III from Fukasawa, T. 2001, p. 94 and 128)
Self-evaluation Sheet 2

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<td>I fully understand the English syllable system.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I fully understand stressed syllables in English words.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I understand the phenomenon of word linking.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I can pay attention to these sound phenomena above when listening to English.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I enjoyed the class and learned a lot.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5: excellent  
4: good  
3: acceptable  
2: needs improvement  
1: needs more attention in class
Lesson Three
Thought Groups and
Selective Listening

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

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

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

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

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

Task Chain 4: Self-assessment of listening skills
1. The teacher distributes Self-evaluation Sheet 3.
2. The students evaluate the listening skills that they learned in the previous lessons.
Assessment:
1. The teacher can evaluate students’ understanding of this lesson through Assessment Sheet 3.
2. The teacher can evaluate students’ listening skill readiness through Self-evaluation Sheet 3.

Grading Scale for Assessment Sheet 3

<table>
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<th>Score</th>
<th>Grade</th>
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<td>51-60</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>00-50</td>
<td>Incomplete</td>
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</table>
Focus Sheet 3-1
Thought Group and Focus Word

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

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

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

However, during rapid speech, pauses are not so common.

(Source: Gilbert, J. 1995, p. 102)

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

Example:
   X: Where shall we eat?
   Y: Let’s eat in a restaurant.
   X: Which restaurant?

(Source: Gilbert, J., 1995, p. 107)
Work Sheet 3-1
Thought Groups and Focus Words

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

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

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

Focus Sheet 3-2
Sentence Stress

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

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

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

This dialogue is about ____________________________.

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

This dialogue is about ____________________________.

Work Sheet 3-2
Listening for Main Topics

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

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

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

III. What is this announcement about?
   a. A company administrator will go on a business trip on this Thursday.
   b. A company administrator will have some training sessions from this Thursday.
   c. A company administrator will introduce the dress code to all the workers from this Thursday.
Focus Sheet 3-3
Transcripts and Answers

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

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

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

Assessment Sheet 3

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

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

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

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

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

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

2. (1) Who is the speaker most likely addressing?
   a. A potential buyer.
   b. A construction crew.
   c. A house cleaner.
   d. A group of tourists.
(2) Which part of the house has been renovated recently?
   a. The kitchen.
   b. The bedroom.
   c. The garage.
   d. The stairways.

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

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

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

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

(2) What is Ms. Valmont's job?
   a. Computer programmer.
   b. Government official.
   c. Journalist.
   d. Publisher.
(3) What will be heard next?
   a. Last week’s election results.
   b. A political commentary.
   c. A candidate’s speech.
   d. Local news stories.

Question I: four points for each slash
Question II: four points for each question

Score: ___/100
Focus Sheet 3-4
Transcripts and Answers

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

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

Answers: (1)a (2)c

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

(Source: Arbogast, B et al., 2001, p. 99)

Answers: (1)a (2)a (3)b

(3) Ladies and gentlemen, some of you have been asking for additional conference programs. Unfortunately, we can’t give anyone an extra program until we’re sure that we have enough for the conference guests who haven’t arrived yet. If you’ve lost yours and need to check your meeting schedules,
you can use the copies that we have at the
information desk. Those of you who still need an
extra program can check with us this afternoon. By
then, we will have additional copies.
(Source: Arbogast, B et al., 2001, p. 98)
Answers: (1)b (2)d

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

Directions: Use the following checklist of listening skills.

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

   Vowels

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

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

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

   Can you understand the connected English words in a sentence? (Yes/No)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Task Chain 4: Assessment
1. The teacher distributes Assessment Sheet 4 and lets students complete the exercises.
2. The teacher collects Assessment Sheet 4 and Work Sheet 4-1.
3. The teacher distributes Self-evaluation Sheet 4 and lets students evaluate their progress.
Assessment:
1. The teacher can evaluate students' understanding of this lesson through Assessment Sheet 4.
2. The teacher can evaluate students' current listening competence through Work Sheet 4-1.
3. The teacher can assess students' progress through Self-evaluation Sheet.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>00-50</td>
<td>Incomplete</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Affective strategy is managing personal emotion to get attention to tasks. It is useful especially when you know the words but still do not understand.

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

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

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

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

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

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

7. Familiarize yourself with the speaker’s topic ahead of time. If this is an academic class, complete the assigned readings before the lecture. If there are no assigned readings or is the readings are very difficult, try to find some general information on the topic from an encyclopedia, a magazine, or a textbook from a lower-level course.

(Source: Ferrer-Hanreddy & Whalley, 1996, p. 116)
Focus Sheet 4-2
New Vocabulary

1. orbit
2. object
3. for a price
4. permit
5. civilian
6. vehicle
7. desire
8. industrial
9. purpose
10. official
11. agency
12. measure
13. average
14. candidate
15. excellent
Focus Sheet 4-3
English News Program

SCIENCE REPORT - March 14, 2002: Space Tourism

By Mario Ritter

This is the VOA Special English SCIENCE REPORT.

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

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

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

Experts say the change in policy at NASA shows a new desire to use space vehicles for business and industrial purposes. In a speech to Congress last year, NASA official Michael Hawes said that the space agency had not considered civilian travel as one of the industries it wanted to develop. However, Mister Hawes said that private space travel could now be done as long as safety measures are observed carefully.
Yet, the average citizen will not be able to travel into space in the near future. Space Adventures Limited sells a training program for space flight that costs two-hundred-thousand dollars. That price does not include the cost of the trip to the International Space Station. That holiday in space costs twenty-million dollars.

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

This VOA Special English SCIENCE REPORT was written by Mario Ritter.
Space Tourism:
Directions: You are going to listen to some information about one science news, Space Tourism. As you listen, take notes on the information using the list below. Remember, the main ideas are written on the left. You have to complete the details on the right.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Ideas</th>
<th>Details and Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **A. Dennis Tino paid much money for one-week space travel.** | 1. Dennis Tino is an _____ business man.  
2. Dennis Tino paid between _____ and _____ dollars.  
3. At first, NASA was against the Russian plan to take a civilian to the space station. |
| **B. Recently, NASA agreed to the Russian plan to sell trips to the space station.** | An American company called _____ Limited is planning this travel. |
| **C. Experts' views of the NASA's policy.** | NASA's policy is that private space travel can be carried out as long as _____ are observed carefully. |
| **D. The difficulties of space travel for the average citizen** | Space travel costs:  
a. The training program for space flight = _____ dollars.  
b. The total price = _____ dollars. |
| **E. Conclusion.** | The candidates must have the ability to speak and write _____ |
Work Sheet 4-2
Group Discussion

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

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

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

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

4. Choose the five items that you want to take to the space, and explain the reasons logically.
I. Directions: Fill the appropriate alphabets in accordance with the meanings or definitions of each word into the blanks.

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

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

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

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

/100
<table>
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<th>Description</th>
<th>Score</th>
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<td>I know the right way to listen to news programs in English.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am familiar with affective strategy.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can control my attention and emotion during listening.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I could discuss critically about the topic.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoyed the class and learned a lot.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5: excellent  
4: good  
3: acceptable  
2: needs improvement  
1: needs more attention in class
Lesson Five
English Speech

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

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

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

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

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

Task Chain 4: Assessment
1. The teacher distributes Assessment Sheet 5-1 and lets students complete the questions.
2. The teacher collects Assessment Sheet 5 and Work Sheet 5-1.
3. The teacher distributes Self-evaluation Sheet 5 and lets students evaluate their progress.

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

Grading Scale for Assessment Sheet 5

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<td>C</td>
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<td>00-50</td>
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</table>
Focus Sheet 5-1
Note-taking strategy

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

The list of some symbols

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

The list of abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
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<td>with</td>
<td>w/o</td>
<td>without</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>btwn</td>
<td>between</td>
<td>e.g.</td>
<td>for example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>am</td>
<td>morning</td>
<td>pm</td>
<td>afternoon, evening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i.e.</td>
<td>that is</td>
<td>yr.</td>
<td>year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re:</td>
<td>concerning, regarding</td>
<td>mo.</td>
<td>month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>etc</td>
<td>and so on</td>
<td>wk.</td>
<td>week</td>
</tr>
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<td>no.</td>
<td>number</td>
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<td>pd.</td>
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<td>page</td>
<td>ft.</td>
<td>foot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ib.</td>
<td>pound</td>
<td>hr.</td>
<td>hour</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Key Words: Have you ever heard these phrases?

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

New Vocabulary:

1. military 2. strike 3. terrorist 4. installation
4. regime .6. staunch 7. pledge 8. grant
9. intelligence 10. disrupt 11. recruit 12. terror
13. pay a price 14. burrow 15. comprehensive
16. relentless 17. generosity 18. ally 19. faith
20. enemy 21. barbaric 22. criminal 23. profane
24. religion 25. murder 26. commit 27. accumulation
28. conflict 29. neutral 30. outlaw
31. at one’s peril 32. threat 33. pursue 35. fulfill
36. precaution 37. enforcement 38. sacrifice
39. dedicate 40. represent 41. touching 42. generation
43. waver 44. falter 45. prevail 46. bless
Focus Sheet 5-3
Presidential Address

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

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

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

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

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

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

The United States of America is a friend to the Afghan people, and we are the friends of almost a billion worldwide who
practice the Islamic faith. The United States of America is an enemy of those who aid terrorists and of the barbaric criminals who profane a great religion by committing murder in its name.

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

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

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

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

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

In the months ahead, our patience will be one of our strengths -- patience with the long waits that will result from tighter security; patience and understanding that it will take time to achieve our goals; patience in all the sacrifices that may come. Today, those sacrifices are being made by members of our Armed Forces who now defend us so far from home, and by their proud
and worried families. A Commander-in-Chief sends America's sons and daughters into a battle in a foreign land only after the greatest care and a lot of prayer. We ask a lot of those who wear our uniform. We ask them to leave their loved ones, to travel great distances, to risk injury, even to be prepared to make the ultimate sacrifice of their lives. They are dedicated, they are honorable; they represent the best of our country. And we are grateful.

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

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

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Ideas</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>President, George W. Bush, is addressing.</td>
<td>Mr. Bush is talking about his order of attacking Terrorist training camps.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| More than two weeks ago, Mr. Bush sent a series of demands to Taliban leaders. | The demands are:  
   (1) close ____ ____ 
   (2) hand over ____ of the al Qaeda network. 
   (3) return all foreign people. |
| Mr. Bush is speaking from the treaty Room of the White house. | The treaty Room is the place where American presidents have worked for ____ . |
| National precautions                            | All law _________ and intelligence agencies are in operation. 
   The airport security has been strengthened by many _____ . |
| The American military                           | According to Mr. Bush, members of American military are _____ , and _____ the best of their country. |
| A touching letter                               | Mr. Bush received a letter from a ____ grade girl. |
| Conclusion                                      | Mr. Bush concludes his speech by saying "____ and ____ will prevail." |
Work Sheet 5-2
Differences of the Way of Speech

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

American Way of Speech       Japanese Way of Speech

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

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

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Assessment Sheet 5

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

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

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

II. Circle True or False.

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

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

3. The name of today’s military operation is Infinite Freedom. (T/F)

4. According to Mr. Bush, the homeland security of the United States has been strengthened. (T/F)

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

Question I: three points for each

Question II: eight points for each /100

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### Self-evaluation Sheet 5

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

5: excellent  
4: good  
3: acceptable  
2: needs improvement  
1: needs more attention in class
Lesson Six
The American City

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

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

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

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

Task Chain 4: Post-listening Activity (Brainstorming)
1. The teacher lets students watch the movie again with its caption.
2. The teacher makes 4-5 person groups and distributes Work Sheet 6-2.
3. Students ask the questions each other in a group.
4. Students present his/her results to the class.
Task Chain 5: Post-listening Activity Two
1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 6-4 and explains that students will do a research about one of the American cities that they like in a group, and present their results to the class in English two weeks later.
2. The teacher helps students in order to encourage their work.
3. After their presentation, students evaluate other members of their group by Group Member Evaluation Sheet 6.

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

Grading Scale for Evaluation Form 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>38-40</td>
<td>A+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34-37</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-33</td>
<td>B+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>C+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>00-14</td>
<td>Incomplete</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Focus Sheet 6-1
Review of Listening Strategies

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

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

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

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

5. Note-taking Strategy
Listen for the main ideas and keywords. Use abbreviations and symbols to help retain information. Listen for repeated terms or ideas.
Focus Sheet 6-2
Keywords and New vocabulary

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

New Vocabulary
1. nestle
2. rolling
3. foggy
4. dramatic
5. landmark
6. breathtaking
7. vistas
8. quaint
9. majestic
10. dock
11. fountain
12. excursion
13. aquarium
14. immigrant
15. descendent
16. captivate
17. architecture
18. Hispanic
19. heritage
20. attraction
21. magnificent
22. treasure
San Francisco is known as America’s most loved city. It is located on the San Francisco Bay and nestles among the rolling hills of northern California. The mornings are often foggy and the afternoons bright, cool, and sunny. The dramatic Golden Gate Bridge is one of America’s most famous landmarks.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(Source: Learn to speak English, 2002)
Directions: Circle the appropriate words while watching the cultural movie about San Francisco.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

8. There are many magnificent (Renaissance/Victorian) houses, its museums, its buildings, and its art treasures.
Work Sheet 6-2
Brainstorming Discussion

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

1. Have you ever been to San Francisco?

2. Have you ever been to the United States?

3. Where and how did you like it?

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

5. Why?
Focus Sheet 6-4
Group Research Project about American Cities

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

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

Step 2: Gather the information of your target city.

You can use the following sources:


(3) Interview the assistant English teachers (AET) from the United States.

Step 3: Create the final product.
You can present your results in any medium such as a poster, video, and computer (PowerPoint, Homepage).
Group Member Evaluation Sheet 6

Group Name: __________________

The member's name: __________________

1. The member willingly assisted other group members.
   Yes        So-so        No

2. The member contributed ideas to the group.
   Yes        So-so        No

3. The member spoke in a friendly manner.
   Yes        So-so        No

4. The member listened politely.
   Yes        So-so        No

5. The member asked for help from other group members.
   Yes        So-so        No

6. The member stayed on task.
   Yes        So-so        No

The member's name: __________________

1. The member willingly assisted other group members.
   Yes        So-so        No

2. The member contributed ideas to the group.
   Yes        So-so        No

3. The member spoke in a friendly manner.
   Yes        So-so        No

4. The member listened politely.
   Yes        So-so        No

5. The member asked for help from other group members.
   Yes        So-so        No

6. The member stayed on task.
   Yes        So-so        No

The member's name: __________________

1. The member willingly assisted other group members.
   Yes        So-so        No

2. The member contributed ideas to the group.
   Yes        So-so        No

3. The member spoke in a friendly manner.
   Yes        So-so        No

4. The member listened politely.
   Yes        So-so        No

5. The member asked for help from other group members.
   Yes        So-so        No

6. The member stayed on task.
   Yes        So-so        No
The member's name: ____________________

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

The member's name: ____________________

1. The member willingly assisted other group members.
   Yes   So-so   No
2. The member contributed ideas to the group.
   Yes   So-so   No
3. The member spoke in a friendly manner.
   Yes   So-so   No
4. The member listened politely.
   Yes   So-so   No
5. The member asked for help from other group members.
   Yes   So-so   No
6. The member stayed on task.
   Yes   So-so   No
The scoring scale is as follows: 4=Excellent, 3=Good, 2=Fair, 1=Poor, 0=Very poor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I. Delivery</th>
<th>Volume</th>
<th>Did the students speak loud enough?</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>4 3 2 1 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gesture</td>
<td>Did the students use their hands?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>4 3 2 1 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eye Contact</td>
<td>Did the students often make eye contact with audience?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>4 3 2 1 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>Did the students’ pronunciations interfere with you understanding their oral presentation?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>4 3 2 1 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intonation</td>
<td>Did the students use higher pitches as well as stress on the words that carry information in the presentation?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>4 3 2 1 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>Were the students fairly fluent with The presentation?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>4 3 2 1 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## II. Organization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introducti</td>
<td>Was there a thesis statement of some kind that let you know what the presentation was going to be about?</td>
<td>4 3 2 1 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Body</td>
<td>Did the body develop the thesis statement in the introduction?</td>
<td>4 3 2 1 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>Did the conclusion relate to the introduction and the body?</td>
<td>4 3 2 1 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## III. Visual Aids

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Visual Effects</th>
<th>Were effective visual aids used?</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 3 2 1 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comments:
APPENDIX B

USEFUL WEB SITES FOR ENGLISH LEARNING
ESL/EFL Web Sites

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Writing: Purdue’s Online Writing Lab
http://owl.English.purdue.edu
This site provides instructional handouts of punctuation, spelling, and writing research papers and citing sources.
Randall’s ESL Cyber Listening Lab
http://www.esl-lab.com/
This site offers many activities for ESL/EFL learners.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Media Resources

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

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

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

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

Net Tools/Search Engines

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

Internet White Pages

Yahoo
http://www.yahoo.com/

Infoseek
http://www.infoseek.com/

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

Music and Movie Database

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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


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


Tarone, E. (1980). Some influences on the syllable structure on interlanguage phonology. IRAL, 18, 139-152.


