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Improving communicative competence in the teaching of English as a foreign language in Taiwan

Jen-Chieh Chang

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IMPROVING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN TAIWAN

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

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

by
Jen-Chieh Chang

June 1996
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Date

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This paper provides a new teaching design which addresses the current situations and difficulties in English teaching and learning practices in Taiwan. This new teaching design combines several theoretical issues in second language acquisition, including communicative competence, the role of grammar in a communicative curriculum, discourse theory, comprehensible input, and academic language proficiency. The features of the new teaching design that are adopted from these theoretical bases are described in the paper. Moreover, the notion of communicative competence serves as a core of the new teaching design with the important features of the other four themes. In addition, various activities and group work in this present paper are used to help Taiwanese English learners develop communicative competence.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

English language instruction is considered very important in Taiwan and is offered in one hundred percent of all secondary and baccalaureate schools. English is considered an international language which helps the Taiwanese people to link culturally and commercially with the outside world, especially, the Western world. Almost all Taiwanese born after World War II have learned at least some English during their lifetime. In a Taiwanese school, the students study English as their required foreign language course. In addition, thousands of Taiwanese people have had the experience of studying English through private tutoring schools, company courses, radio, and television instruction.

The Importance of Learning English in Taiwan

English instruction is offered in all schools from junior high through colleges as the first foreign language. For most of students, English is viewed as the first touch with an exotic culture. Besides the formal education system, private tutoring education (the "cram" school) in English is an significant alternative means for Taiwanese to learn English. More than 420,000 Taiwanese study English at private tutoring schools every year (Wang, 1995). In addition, both radio and television offer English courses targeted toward different levels of learning ability. This is a simple and popular way for adult learners to study English.

Looking at the history of Taiwan, one can find an ongoing Taiwan-United
States relationship. Since 1949, Taiwan has occupied an important political position preventing the spread of communism. Until 1979, the American fleet and air force defended the Taiwan Strait. Chiang Kai-Shek's government could not have survived in Taiwan without the support of the United States government. Since the post-war era, the Taiwan government has maintained a policy of intimacy with the United States. During that time, the Taiwanese became aficionados of American culture. People learned English and hoped to work for American soldiers. Working with an American, one would be assumed to be a successful and popular person in Taiwanese society at that time. Thus learning English became important and fashionable in Taiwanese society.

The luster of English still rests on its commercial value. However, learning English in Taiwan facilitates communication not only with Americans but also with people from all over the world. English is especially valuable as a communicative vehicle with the neighboring countries of Taiwan. In the past, most of Southeast Asian countries were English or American colonial territories such as Philippines, Malaysia, and Indonesia. Recently, those countries have become important trade partners of Taiwan and are still English-speaking countries. According to Smith (1983), "English as an international language refers to functions of English, not to any given form of the language. It is the use of English by people of different nations and different cultures in order to communicate with one another." Taiwan is an island country of twenty one million people without any valuable natural resources, so Taiwanese have to
depend on international trade to survive in this competitive world. Taiwanese use English as the language of communication with their trade partners all over the globe. This makes English even more important.

In academic institutions, almost of all the newest technological and academic studies are published in English. People who want to know first-hand information in their disciplines need to know English. Moreover, currently, due to high economic development, people have the extra time and money to pursue modern knowledge and seek the latest information from all over the world. English has become the vehicle of choice to connect themselves with outside world, specifically, with the country they admire the most, the United States.

Scanning the channels on Taiwanese TV, one can watch programs from CNN, ESPN, Asian Star, and networks from England which are transmitted through satellites. All the channels are broadcast in English. This increased contact with English increases people's desire to be able to learn English. So learning English has become a fashionable and practical necessity for modern Taiwanese.

**The Practice of Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Taiwan**

Because English is such a important language in Taiwan, how the institutions of teaching English operate in Taiwan is also important. There are two types of institutionalized English instruction in the Taiwanese education system: the normal education system and the private tutoring education system (the "cram" schools). The normal education system consists of the junior high
schools, high schools and colleges in which English is taught as a required
course. Most Taiwanese students start studying English when they enter junior
high school at age twelve. The Ministry of Education requires English courses in
all of the Taiwanese secondary schools. Public schools can offer up to five
hours per week of English courses. Teachers and students alike strive for good
results on the district high school joint entrance examinations. The content of
the English courses offered in junior high is dictated by the Ministry of
Education's Course of Study. Meanwhile, the textbook used in junior high
English classes is standardized for the whole country. English instruction in
junior high school emphasizes vocabulary memorization and oral practice.
English taught in junior high school is considered particularly important to the
children, because for most of the students, it is the first formal education in
English, and it is important that they make an auspicious start.

Like the junior high school English classes, high school classes are
controlled by the guidelines in the Ministry of Education's Course of Study. In
general, the learning situation in Taiwanese high schools is similar to that of the
junior high schools. Some high schools offer supplementary English lessons
before or after school or during vacations to help prepare students for university
entrance exams. The typical high school English class is based on a textbook
emphasizing reading and grammar, often with a supplementary reading and /or
grammar text. Individual teachers in high schools have no control over the texts
used in their classes. There are only about five different high school textbooks
used in the high schools. Often, students are encouraged to prepare for a class in advance by writing Chinese characters standing for the meaning next to English words and phrases. Much of the class may be spent discussing difficult grammatical points and nuances of translation. In addition, high schools offer composition classes which are not offered in the junior high schools. The composition classes consist of translation of Chinese into English, not free writing. All of the learning activities are done just to prepare for the National Joint College Entrance Examination.

In Taiwan, English is also a required course as the first foreign language course at the college level. Non-English majors take a minimum of sixteen units in the freshmen and sophomore years of four-year university study. Some schools also offer English conversation and listening practice. However, those kinds of English practical learning classes usually comprise only one or two units during the school years. Most English classes are reading classes. Many college English teachers are literature majors with little or no training in EFL or applied linguistics. Instructors routinely translate English sentences into Chinese, covering from one to five pages of the textbook in the ninety-minute class period. Textbooks contain only essays, so students do not have the opportunity to develop strategies for dealing with other literary forms such as dialogues, newspaper articles, advertisements, and brochures. Generally, college students' English pedagogy differs little from that of the high schools.
Memorization is the main job. Few students reach out to practice what they have learned.

Private Tutoring Schools and Standardized Exams

Another institution in which Taiwanese students learn English is in the private tutoring school, "the cram" school. Two main purposes of "cram" schools in Taiwan can be noted, which are the preparation of students for entrance examinations to either secondary schools or universities, and communicative conversation classes. The students may attend the private tutoring school from the elementary level to the high school level for the purpose of performing well on entrance examinations. In Taiwan, more than ninety-nine percent of the elementary schools do not include any foreign language in their curricula. So, the students at the elementary level students need to study English at the private "cram" school. In the whole of Taiwan, thirty percent of the elementary students attended "cram" schools in 1994 (Wang, 1994). Fifty-eight percent of Taiwanese students were taking an English course in "cram" schools in 1994 (Yang, 1994).

However, due to the fact that success in English is an important factor - often a decisive one - on high school and university entrance examinations, almost all junior high school students who attempt to join a prestigious high school must study English in the cram school. The same thing is also happen at the high school level; students may attend English classes at a "cram" school or may have a private tutor. Consequently, the percentage of attendance in a
private tutoring school at junior high or high school level is much higher than that of the elementary level. The popularity of this kind of private tutoring school can be attributed directly to the prevalence of the standardized entrance examinations.

Most of a student's future in the educational system and in the job market is determined by performance on the standardized exams, which are quite demanding. Two types of exams exist in Taiwan: the National University Joint Entrance Examination and the District High School Entrance Examination. They are needed for both high schools and college admission. Competition is so fierce in these exams that students often start at very young age to attend "cram" schools after school in addition to the study hours at home. The common perception is that this is the only way to get into a prestigious high school or college. In some cases, parents strive to get their children into the right preschool. So the pressure to succeed is enormous. A common saying during this "examination hell" is "five hours of sleep - pass, six hours - fail." Lawmakers have even considered having Saturday become a non-school day in Taiwan so students can relax. However, some people oppose this change, because they afraid that Saturday will become another day at "cram" school. Surely, test scores are taken very seriously in the United States as well, but, normally, the entrance committees in the United States also give weight to other factors such as school activities, sports, hobbies, and volunteer participation in community affairs. Those factors are not taken in account to the process of selection for
entrance to high schools and colleges in Taiwan, except for certain sports scholarships. In Taiwan, the reputation of the high schools or colleges which students attend affects the job they will get, since prestigious companies interview mainly at the prestigious schools.

The private tutoring school and the standardized exams are closely connected. Thus passing the exams becomes the goal of students' learning. The entire educational environment has become fixed and will not change in the foreseeable future.

The Culture of the Taiwanese English Classroom and Parents' Expectations

Many Taiwanese students feel self-conscious about speaking to a fellow student in English. For this reason, they do not take advantage of the chance to do so even when it offers itself. Also, Taiwanese students are especially shy about trying out any new communication skill before mastering it; for instance, if they are asked to stand and say something in front of a whole class of peers. Although this situation may happen in English instruction anywhere in the world, Taiwanese students seem to be particularly conservative about what people think of them. Additionally, there is an added cultural burden involving what might be translated as the relationship of "comparative hierarchy." It is a kind of hidden rule that exists in a Chinese classroom which means the students who do not have better grade in the class are not supposed to speak too much in the classroom. Those who are the junior students are supposed to give up the chance of speaking to the senior students. It is hard to imagine this happening
in a American's classroom, but it does exists in the Taiwanese learning environment. Those two mental factors cause Taiwanese students difficulty in speaking out during class time.

The teacher's role is another key issue in dealing with the atmosphere in a Taiwanese classroom, because teachers have a significant influence over the daily life of students in their classroom. Unfortunately, teachers may often retard the students' learning. Teachers in Taiwan prefer their students to be silent in the classroom. Speaking or asking questions is not necessary in an English classrooms. Students only have to listen in the class and memorize at home. This makes the ambiance in the classroom quiet and passive. This is definitely not a good environment for students to learn oral English.

On the other hand, parents' expectation toward the teachers is a key factor affecting the teacher's role in the classroom. Taiwanese parents always care about how many English words that their children have memorized or how good are the results of a examination. They do not seem to care if their children know how to speak English. So the teacher's role becomes one of forcing students to memorize English rather than motivating the students to be interested in speaking English. Little or no physical activities are used in the classroom, not even in a private tutoring school. Due to the memorization of vocabulary and learning about English rather than using English for the purpose of communication, students soon lose interest. Learning English becomes a chore.
How Individuals Learn English in the Classroom

Generally, learning English as a Foreign Language in Taiwan, for an individual, consists of five elements; vocabulary, phonics, phraseology, sentence structure, and translation. In addition, memorization is the main strategy that students adopt. An English teacher's instruction about a unit or chapter in an English book, normally, goes through these five stages. Translation is the most important stage to achieve, toward which all the teaching and learning activities aim. However, for the most part, one can contract those five elements into two main aspects of English learning, vocabulary learning and grammar.

First of all, the basic unit of English learning is English vocabulary. "We found this unit of verbal thought in word meaning. Word meaning is an elementary 'cell' that cannot be further analyzed and that represents the most elementary form of the unity between thought and word" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 212). This aspect of theory can be applied to the vocabulary aspect of English learning for a EFL learner. Vocabulary learning consists of three main parts: the English spelling, the phonetic pronunciation, and the Chinese translation. All these three parts form the foundation for English comprehension and memorization.

Besides vocabulary learning, grammar also plays another important role in Taiwanese English learning. Taiwanese English teachers often compare the grammatical form learning to the infrastructure of construction. There is a saying, "Before using sand, rocks, and cement to build a house, one needs
some woods and steel rods for building the structure for the house." Using grammar, learners can fit the English vocabulary which has been learned into sentences and paragraphs. In communication, a student can express and understand the whole meaning of a message which is received as a string of English words through his or her understanding of basic knowledge of grammatical form. To use English grammar in practical communication, students have to memorize the application of syntax in order to make up sentences, which is used as a kind of formula. For example: narrative sentence could be formularized as "S(subject) + V(verb) + O(object)"; past participle sentence could be formularized as "S + should, would, or could + have + past participle"; and imperative sentence could be formularized as "V(root) + O." Using these sentence structures (syntax,) students could make up many English sentences.

I visualize this process as Figure 1. So, the entire process for a Taiwanese

Figure 1. The relation of syntax, English comprehension, and expression
student to use English is that they have an idea in Chinese first, figure out some relevant English words, and then, according to the sentence structures which have been memorized, make up a English sentence.

**Focus on Form Teaching**

So the philosophy of Taiwanese English education is that, in the classroom, teachers have students learn English grammar as perfectly as possible, because grammar is the basic structure of English. The Taiwanese English educator believes that only when students learn good grammar, can they learn good English. So all the English teaching materials focus on grammar teaching. This kind of English teaching system has a weakness in which that students do not learn to think in English and communicate in English. Every step of using English has to depend on translation.

The method of English language teaching with which Taiwan is still struggling is the Grammar-Translation method. According to Scovel (1983), the reason for the popularity of the Grammar-Translation method in Taiwan is that it carries on the neo-Confucian tradition which emphasizes reciting and memorizing. This tradition has existed as the Chinese people's learning habit for thousands of years and is developed in response to the way Chinese master their own language. Memorization is most important learning strategy. Students are trained to repeat them until they have mastered them. The whole learning situation for mastering the Chinese language is extremely disciplined. However, this kind of learning style prepares the students with limited communicative
ability in English. "The emphasis on rules of grammar and perfect translation left little room to develop speaking proficiency" (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). The most controversial issue in Taiwanese English education is how much differential focus should be placed on the grammatical forms of language versus the communicative functions. So this project would like to propose some possible innovations for the improvement of teaching EFL in Taiwan incorporating communicative functions.

**Supplementing Education: Private Tutoring Schools**

Although the entire educational system in academic schooling cannot be changed easily, people look forward to having a better English learning environment according to their practical needs. One can realize this change from the popularity of English "cram" schools in Taiwan.

Today, except the 'cram' schools for the purpose of succeeding on the entrance examination, conversational English 'cram' schools are the most popular 'cram' schools in the private tutoring market in Taiwan. "Over seventy percent of young people who are between age twenty to twenty-five are the potential customers in the private conversational English 'cram' schools" (Wang, 1995). The teaching in the conversational English "cram" school stresses improving not only students' knowledge of grammar but also English proficiency and communication skills. Especially, they offer the environment for the students to practice interpersonal communication. Some of the conversational English schools even hire native English speakers as part- or full-time teachers to talk
However, no matter what an excellent job the "cram" schools can do for the students, it is still outside of the formal academic education. It is not every student who can afford to go to the private "cram" schools. Perhaps the popularity of private "cram" schools will influence the regular educational system. But, so far, the entire Taiwanese English education has not changed very much for the practical needs of English. For improving this situation, people still look forward to the renovation of the entire English education system which can improve the large formal academic English courses.

The Purpose of the Study

English instruction has been performed for quite a long time in Taiwan, but the results are not satisfactory. Teachers, parents, and administrations involved in teaching EFL in Taiwanese schools have argued about the shortcomings of contemporary EFL instruction. However, few formal studies have been carried out on the improvement of EFL in Taiwan. So the purpose of this study is to proposes some innovative techniques for improving the effectiveness and efficiency of English instruction in Taiwan.

The goal of teaching English is to prepare the students to take the entrance examinations in Taiwan. Unfortunately, the preparation for examination items emphasizes rote memory and mechanical drill. Oral communication is totally disregarded, and rote memory strategies are rewarded.
In addition, Taiwan is not an English-speaking country, so the chances for practicing English orally are limited. The learners' shy and conservative personalities also contribute to their difficulties in mastering the listening and speaking aspects of English. Meanwhile, the typical classroom situation contributes to the difficulties, too. Students' saying something in the classroom is not necessary. Little peer conversation practice can be seen in the entire English learning environment. Practical communicative competence in English is relatively hard to achieve in Taiwan.

So the ideal teaching of EFL in Taiwan would cover the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, with particular emphasis on listening and speaking. That means the primary goal of the teaching English is to teach communicative competence, that is, the ability to communicate in English according to the situation, purpose, and roles of the participants. To become a English teacher in Taiwan, one should prepare oneself not only with plenty of knowledge about English grammar but also with a variety of skills to help students become familiar with using English to communicate with others.

Content of the Study

The content of this study includes the introduction of the teaching and learning practice of EFL in Taiwan, relevant literature review, and practical teaching units. The literature review aims at presenting a theoretical basis for the practical teaching units. The theoretical basis and the teaching units are
designed according to concepts of communicative competence, adapted for Taiwanese English instruction.

Before the three teaching units are presented, five themes are discussed which are relevant and important to the teaching EFL in Taiwan. These would help the teaching of EFL in Taiwan by placing issues of English language development within an orienting framework. These five themes are the following: the importance of communicative competence, the role of grammar in a communicative curriculum, discourse theory, comprehensible input, and academic language proficiency.

Communicative competence has become the central concept of modern English education in recent years. Communication is considered the target of learning a language. Four components of communicative competence (grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence) are used to frame and assess the language users' language competence. It clearly gives the English educators and learners a direction by which teaching and learning English can be successful.

Investigating the role of grammar in a communicative curriculum would help to collect some healthy ideas about how a learner and teacher can put grammar in the right position within the domain of language learning. This section suggests how the process of learning grammar could be varied, and what kind of attitude is appropriate to learn the grammar that could help the learners get the best result.
Discourse theory can simply be the means of using discourse opportunities to figure out the ways language is used and to achieve proficiency step by step during second language acquisition. The discourse theorists believe that the more opportunity students can get to communicate with the target language, the more language proficiency they can achieve. This concept can be adapted to promote promoting student interaction in the classroom.

Comprehensible input means how the teachers can improve the instructions and activities in the classrooms so the students can develop their learning ability to the utmost. Also, receiving good progress in comprehensible input could enhance the students' language output. To achieve comprehensible input, teachers need to understand the students' ability and experiences as well as their own ability and mutual expectations.

Academic language proficiency has become one of the most important issues in Taiwanese English learning. This is the language ability which enables the students to learn academic content using English. The knowledge and skills involved in this ability could be more complicated than ordinary English conversational communication. Especially when studying overseas, students need to master much more than everyday English in order to have access to the academic curriculum.

The Significance of the Study

When the function of English in Taiwan changes from knowing a little bit
of English, and passing academic entrance examinations, to communicating in
English, and studying overseas, the current practice of English education may
need to be enriched. This study does not mean to project any single approach
or theory as absolutely right or wrong. Instead, it looks forward to contributing a
more ideal learning situation on the base of current practice. That means what
we can improve what we have for a better learning and teaching situation for
EFL in Taiwan.

This study seeks to help teachers make their instruction of English more
effective through using some units designed according to the theoretical basis
presented in the literature review. It is based on the conviction that teachers will
be better off with an explicit set of ideas about language learning. In addition,
this study does not forsake the necessity of traditional grammar teaching.
Instead, it focuses on how to make grammar teaching even more useful than it
used to be.

Also, this study proposes increasing the enjoyment of learning English.
Aside from examination pressure, one can find personal interest in learning
English. Basically, understanding a foreign culture can be educational and
interesting as well.
Ellis' 1986 work eloquently summarizes the search for general principles that can be applied to second language acquisition.

Second language acquisition (SLA) is not a uniform and predictable phenomenon. There is no single way in which learners acquire a knowledge of a second language. SLA is the product of many factors pertaining to the learner on the one hand and the learning situation on the other. It is important, therefore, to start by recognizing the complexity and diversity that results from the interaction of these two sets of factors. Different learners in different situations learn a second language (L2) in different ways. Nevertheless, although the variability and individuality of language learning need to be emphasized, the study of SLA assumes interest only if it is possible to identify aspects that are relatively stable and hence generalizable, if not to all learners, then, at least, to large groups of learners (p. 4).

The purpose of this literature review is to present some theoretical bases of SLA in the teaching of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Taiwan in order to widen the perspective of the teaching of English. Five themes comprise this section. These will become the theoretical basis for select principles of importance to the design of English curriculum units in the subsequent section.

Currently, various purposes engage English learners in addition to passing the academic examination. These challenge the teaching of EFL in Taiwan. The gamut of purposes in learning English can range from watching
English TV programs and reading English books to studying overseas and working in foreign subsidiary companies. The traditional methodology of grammar-translation, obviously, can not meet all these kinds of learners' needs. As all kinds of "cram" schools for different learning objectives has been set up in recent years, an overview of various SLA theories such as communicative competence and academic language proficiency can contribute to the teaching of EFL in Taiwan. Although the entire grammar-translation methodological environment, including the learners' habits of memorizing, may be still acceptable for most Taiwanese, at least, one can understand the current state of Taiwanese English education by relating to those SLA theories. The Taiwanese English teaching system has its own requirements which may be considered appropriate and necessary for learning good English in Taiwan. However, no educational system is perfect. There is always something better to look forward to.

In this section, five themes are discussed which are relevant and important to the teaching of EFL in Taiwan. They would help place issues in the teaching of EFL in Taiwan within an orienting framework.

Communicative Competence

The term "communicative competence" was introduced by Hymes (1964, 1971). The main point of communicative competence is that the purpose of learning a language is considered to be practical communication. In describing
communicative competence, Halliday (1973) contributes several functions of language, such as the following: to get things, to control the behavior of others, to create interaction with others, to express personal feelings and meanings, to learn and discover, to create a world of the imagination, and to communicate information. That means a language user with communicative competence is supposed to be able to use the language with these functions. Larsen-Freeman (1986) describes communicative competence as the following:

"... being able to use the language appropriately to a given social context. To do this, students need to knowledge of the linguistic forms, meanings, and function. They must be able to choose from among these the most appropriate form given the social context and the roles of the interlocutors. They must also be able to manage the process of negotiating meaning with their interlocutors." (p. 131)

Thus learning a language cannot be like studying an academic course which only focuses on the specific knowledge of grammatical forms. Instead, the emphasis is supposed to be placed on how the language is used.

Canale and Swain (1980) proposed four major components of communicative competence with these simple definitions: (1) Sociolinguistic competence, the knowledge of rules by which language is produced and understood appropriately in different sociocultural contexts; (2) Grammatical competence, the knowledge of the elements and rules of the language code; (3) Discourse competence, the knowledge of the ways in which linguistic form and
meaning combine to achieve unified and functional spoken and written texts; and

(4) Strategic competence, the knowledge of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that can be called into action when grammatical, discourse, or sociolinguistic rule systems have not been fully developed or are temporarily broken.

**Sociolinguistic Competence**

This competence means a language user should know how to use a language appropriately, in different sociocultural contexts. "The appropriateness of an utterance refers to both meaning and form" (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995, p. 14). Pica (1988) points out that the rules depend on factors such as roles and status of participants, their purpose, topics, tasks and norms or conventions for interaction. Pica also mentions that sociolinguistic competence reflects interdisciplinary concerns having to do with the social rules of language use. Recent trends in using English have shown that it is not enough to know the language code (grammar) only, but one must know how to use it in different social contexts.

In terms of proficiency, sociolinguistic competence enables the language users to recognize the purpose of a social interaction. By knowing the purpose of social interactions encountered, one could really act or react to the situation properly. That is where the sociolinguistic competence fits in. Basically, the original purpose of English instruction aims at teaching students both appropriate form and meaning. Although the learning of form is supposed to
help to develop the meaning of expression, the English class in Taiwan tends to focus too much on grammatical correctness to the detriment of teaching sociolinguistic competence.

Grammatical Competence

This component involves knowing the elements and rules of the language code; for example, vocabulary and rules of word formation, sentence grammar, pronunciation, spelling. This type of competence focuses on using language to a high level of accuracy. This is often considered a central part in learning a language, because it focuses on the skills and knowledge necessary to speak and write correctly.

However, in the level of this competence, there is little emphasis on using language for communication. Pica (1988) mentions that attention on this level represents an impoverished view of language competence. Indeed, one can find several strings of unrelated sentences (or things like formulas) are given to demonstrate how the rule of a language works when teaching grammar. Besides, when learning new words, students are encouraged to learn the new words with definitions in the first language. In grammar-translation teaching environment, Richard-Amato (1988) states that little attempt is made to communicate orally in the target language, and direction and explanations were always given in the first language.

Discourse Competence

Pica (1988) explains that this competence is seen as knowledge of the
ways in which linguistic form and meaning combine to achieve unified and functional spoken and written texts. With discourse competence, one is able to understand a language as a meaningful whole no matter if it is in the form of utterance (spoken) or sentence (written). Pica observes that discourse competence is intimately connected to grammatical competence, but is related not to the interpretation of isolated sentences, but to the connection of a series of sentences to form a meaningful and functional whole. Pica also talks about discourse competence as an interdisciplinary inquiry, like sociolinguistic competence. Discourse competence is a difficult level to attain in the competence of using a language, because the meaning of a utterance or sentence on the discourse level might not mean as it sounds or seems. For example:

(1) A: What on earth has happened to the roast beef?
   B: The dog is looking very happy.
   A: Oh, what a waste.

(2) A: I heard that Bob failed all his classes.
   B: I know, he's a real genius.
   A: . . . (laughing)

In these two examples, B's answer seems not to fit right on A's utterance, but the conversation is still going on instead of breaking down. This process of conversation shows that A and B have discourse competence. So, discourse competence functions far beneath the surface level of language.
Discourse competence intersects with grammatical and sociolinguistic competence to enable the language user to infer meaning and function from grammatical structures and lexical items which have less than obvious surface cues (Hatch & Long, 1980). It is another important competence for a language user to be able to cross the barrier of cultural difference, leading to more accurate, appropriate, and fluent use.

**Strategic Competence**

Strategic competence enables a language user to employ verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for break-downs in communication because of performance variables or insufficient language competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). So, by employing this competence, a language user knows how to keep communication proceeding as smoothly as possible without unnecessary breaks, meanwhile enhancing the effectiveness of communication. Villaume and Cegala (1988) point out that strategic competence is an important competence (or a skill) in a communicative interaction which makes a conversation coherent.

The analysis into these components of communicative competence has resulted from research into how language is actually used in the classroom and community, and in speech and writing (Pica, 1988). However, communicative competence is not a notion or theory. It is the result of learning that is related to personal sociopsychological characteristics. And it is also relative to the situations in which people communicate. In a classroom, it is necessary for the
teachers to help the students to relate communicative competence to the events in which they participate, to their intentions for speaking and listening, and to the social roles in which they find themselves inside and out of the classroom.

The Role of Grammar in a Communicative Curriculum

"A frequent lament heard among former second language students across many cultures is that they never really learned the languages they studied even though they spent several years in classrooms" (Richard-Amato, 1988, p. 1). This is a kind of common situation which can be heard, most of the time, from many EFL learners who have difficulty mastering the target language within their language learning environment. And it is because neither do the EFL learners expose themselves in an English-speaking environment nor does the classroom offer them opportunity to practice communication in English. Most of the teaching effort, in the classroom, focuses on the knowledge of grammar (form) instead of the use of language (function). From time to time, this overemphasis on grammar education makes the English learners feel frustrated when using English, because they tend to utter grammatical but inappropriate sentences within a given situation. However, learning grammar is an important task that aims at learning a language as accurately as a fluent native speaker, especially, for a EFL learner. Radford (1981) applies Chomskyan sense to explain that a grammar of a language is a model of the linguistic competence of the fluent native speaker of the language. Therefore, a language user should know how to
make use of the right form to accurately communicate, in terms of proficiency. With all due respect, grammar is a part of language learning which can never be forsaken. However, the difficulty is how much emphasis should be put on the grammar for an appropriate language program.

Is Grammar Not Important in Learning a Second Language?

Since the idea of communicative competence was raised, the argument of the balance of importance between form and function in teaching or learning second language has been an important topic in teaching ESL or EFL. Currently, the teaching approach of communicative competence emphasizes real, meaningful communication when teaching second language. And it does help many language learners to improve their learning effectiveness. But, sometimes, the communicative competence approach makes the grammar become less important. For instance, Krashen (1985) argues that acquisition only takes place when learners are exposed to roughly tuned input which they are able to comprehend, and that learning is limited to a few simple portable rules. This means that the teaching of grammar has only a minor effect on the acquisition of linguistic competence in a second language. Moreover, many proponents of the communicative approach have distorted the original meaning of the term, by neglecting the importance of grammatical competence. Jakobvits (1970) and Paulston (1974) are typical of those who exclude grammatical competence from communicative competence. On their view, if communication can be achieved, attention to accuracy is not inappropriate. By pulling back
from an emphasis on grammar, some critics argue that the communicative approach makes the students often learn how to utter appropriate but ungrammatical sentences. So, many experts reassure that teaching grammar is still important. For example, White (1987) claims that some grammatical forms cannot be acquired solely on the basis of comprehensible input and that formal instruction may be necessary to ensure that learners obtain the data they need to acquire proficiency in these forms.

To clarify the importance of grammar, one can address this problem from the relationship between the grammar and function. There are two relevant questions which are helpful and can be asked to clarify this problem. The first question is "Can learning grammar promote the effectiveness of using a language?". Skelton (1985) points out that a good deal of communication requires knowledge of both use and grammar because communication encompasses considerably more than enabling a listener to decipher more or less what the speaker intends. Looking at Skelton's point carefully, one can find that no matter what the relative importance of grammar from different points of view, a learner can, by means of learning good grammar, go beyond understanding a text roughly and reach the level in which he or she is able to use the language more subtly. The second questions is "Does a mistake that happens in using grammar do any harm to the entire meaning being expressed?" Major (1988) mentions that if the form of an utterance is distorted or misused, the function could also be distorted, specially, in some advanced
use of the language. These two points can offer a clear and basic picture for the relationship between grammar and function, because they are actually intimately related to each other. Through this discussion, one can find the role of grammar is necessary and helpful in using a language to achieve meaningful communication. In a practical teaching and learning environment, it is hardly possible to persuade a learner that learning grammar is not important, especially, to a EFL learner. So the problem about the importance of grammar does not exist in the teaching of grammar itself but in designing teaching activities in language programs.

The Changing Importance of Grammar

Long ago, teaching and learning grammar became the major work in the EFL learning environment. But the truth is that no matter how important it is, the grammar learning is only one part of the entire language learning, according to the theory of communicative competence. Grammatical competence is, after all one of those components of communicative competence, instead of the entire thrust of learning a language. The improvement of grammatical competence can only "increase" the correctness of using a language or "reduce" the wrongs of communicating a message. One cannot say perfect grammar makes perfect communication in using the target language. Major (1988) points out that the distortion of form is just one of the factors which can detract from communication. Other factors could be such detriments as foreign accent, violation of syntactic and semantic rules, and violation of socio-cultural patterns
of behavior. Avoiding violation of those factors which cause misunderstanding of a message can be viewed as the skill needed to make a language function well. That is what a language user has to learn. This is a central viewpoint which can explain the importance of grammar in using a language.

The various purpose to which language programs aim is a key point to differentiate the importance of grammar, especially, for the teaching practice in EFL language programs. Because the goals of learning a foreign language are various, one can not judge the success of a language program solely according to what kinds of teaching approaches are employed, whether focusing on grammar or communication. Taking for example the teaching of EFL in Taiwan, there are various language programs offered for all kinds of learning objectives, in which the English programs may be purposed either for the preparation of academic entrance examinations, for conversational proficiency, or for passing the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language). Celce-Murcia (1985) points out that a teaching approach that emphasizes function while practically ignoring form may be very successful in teaching simple survival English but would be a failure in preparing students for college. On the other hand, Celce-Murcia also mentions that a teaching approach which emphasizes form but ignores function will tend to produce students who are grammatically competent but socioculturally incompetent. On this issue, Major (1988) mentions that emphasis on function over form in foreign language teaching has had both positive and negative consequences because the relative importance of form or
function depends heavily on the goals of given language programs. According to Major's article, there are three tracks of English instruction, at least, in a orientation program that allows students to take any of three tracks. Major mentions that in going from left to right on the diagram (see Figure 2.), form becomes increasingly important. For example, in the program of preparation for academic purpose, form is very important, since writing papers or taking written tests requires good knowledge of English grammar.

![Diagram showing Orientation continuum with General (Survival), Pro-vocational, and Academic tracks.]

**Figure 2. Major's continuum about the various importance of grammar.**

**Recommendations for Teaching Grammar**

More recent studies have shown that the effects of combined communicative language teaching and grammar-focused instruction on second language development are better than instruction which features only communicative language teaching or only grammar-focused instruction.

Montgomery and Eisenstein (1985) conclude that a "combination of form-oriented and meaning-oriented language teaching was more beneficial than form-teaching alone." (p. 329). Moreover, Spada (1987) investigated several ESL programs that adapt essentially communicative teaching activities but
schedule different proportions of time for specific grammar instructions in whole communicative teaching activities. Spada found out that in those ESL programs with communicative language teaching, learners who receive specific form-focused instruction do not perform any worse on communicative measures than the learners who receive full function-focused activities with less form-focused instruction. Meanwhile, the learners who receive more form-focused instruction perform better (or as well) than the learners who receive less form-focused instruction on grammatical measures. In other words, it would not do any harm to students' communicative performance but enhance students' grammar performance that teachers work on specific grammar instruction within a certain time frame in the communicative teaching activities. Spada's finding shows that including some lessons with form-focused instruction is helpful in a communicative curriculum.

Since teaching grammar is inevitable in a communicative curriculum, the problem becomes how teachers can inform students of grammatical errors but not affect their willingness to produce language. Davies (1985) argues that teachers should evaluate the objectives in various teaching lessons to decide whether grammatical accuracy has to be strictly required. For example, in the teaching activity of conversational interaction, students are expected to be actively involved in creating language. In this activity, little grammar teaching or correctness would be needed. On the other hand, in a writing lesson, grammatical accuracy would be strongly required.
Although the errors of grammar in some cases could be allowed, a good English teacher has the responsibility to avert students' "fossilization." According to Major (1988), fossilization happens when students overgeneralize a language rule (grammar), and continue to apply the rule incorrectly. Hendrickson (1978) presents three types of grammatical errors which need to be corrected in order to keep students from fossilization. These three types of errors are the following: errors that impair communication, errors that are stigmatized by the listener, and errors occur frequently. First of all, errors that impair communication means the grammatical errors distort the meaning communicated. For example, a beginning Taiwanese English learner often express "He quits smoking" with "He stops to smoke." In this case, the meaning communicated is distorted. The speakers do not often realize this error if no one corrects them. Secondly, errors that are stigmatized by the listener means a person's grammatical errors cause impoliteness to the listener. For example, the lack of the third person singular verb ending often evokes strong negative reactions from native speakers. This kind of error is allowed in an ESL classroom. Most of the time, teachers would not correct this type of error and this tends to cause fossilization. The third type is the errors that occur frequently. This type of error, apparently, is the most important one, because making frequent mistakes is the basic factor causing fossilization. If learners keep using an expression of English ungrammatically without knowing the grammatical way to use the language, they would use that wrong expression all
the time. These three types of grammatical errors can comprise a rule of thumb which can help a teacher make a decision about what kind of grammatical errors need to be corrected and when to correct these errors.

Ideally, grammar teaching engenders in students a positive attitude toward grammar. Using language accurately can always reinforce the expression of meaning. Especially in the teaching practice of EFL, English instruction must employ rules of sentence structure to explain correct usage of English to students. Savignon (1991) emphasizes that the teaching of grammar cannot be abandoned because communication cannot take place in the absence of grammatical structure. Savignon encourages teachers and learners to focus on grammar as it relates to their communicative needs and experience. Besides, Lightbrown and Spada (1990) reinforce the importance of grammar: "Accuracy, fluency, and overall communicative skills are probably best developed through instruction that is primarily meaning-based but in which guidance is provided through timely form-focus activities" (p. 323).

Discourse Theory

According to discourse theorists, face-to-face interaction is a key to second language acquisition. Ellis (1986) points out that the development of language proficiency should be considered in terms of how the learner discovers the meaning potential of language by participating in communication. To support his point of view, Ellis employs the situation of first language acquisition
to explain second language acquisition. Cherry (1979) points out that through communication with other people, children accomplish actions in the world and develop the rules of language structure and use. So, similar to the process of first language acquisition, interaction with others in the target language, or second language, is the key means of achieving proficiency.

**Main Principles of Discourse Theory**

The spirit of discourse theory is that the proficiency of a second language can be achieved during the process of interaction. During the interaction with native speakers, learners go through a process in which they make mistakes, find mistakes, correct mistakes, and improve their language proficiency. Moreover, no matter whether the performance in using the target language in a communicative interaction is good or bad, one can really improve language use because of the process of the interaction, especially with native speakers.

Hatch (1978) proposes the main principles of discourse theory. First of all, second language acquisition follows a natural route in syntactical development. By means of interaction, a second language learner would gradually realize the syntactical rules for holding conversations. Second, as conversation proceeds, native speakers would adjust their speech in order to negotiate meaning with non-native speakers. This is because native speakers need to make themselves understood when the non-native speakers' language proficiency is not mature. Third, when the conversational strategies are used to negotiate meaning, and when the adjusted speeches are used to aid
comprehensible input, the learners make an effort to make themselves understood and understand others in communicative activities. In other words, through the interactional opportunities, language learners learn not only language itself but also conversational strategies which will reinforce their communicative effectiveness. Thus, one can conclude that the "natural" route in syntactical development is the result of learning how to hold conversations. And this shows the importance in a successful second language learning environment of creating opportunities for learners of a second language to interact with native speakers.

Hatch also presents three ways which the conversational strategies and adjusted speeches from native speakers will help second language learners to improve their language proficiency. First of all, the learner will learn grammar in the order which accords with the frequency order of the various features of the input. This means the more often the learners receive a message with the use of certain kind of grammar, the more familiar they will be with that kind of grammar. Second, the learner acquires commonly occurring formulas and then later analyses these into their component parts. This means learners can acquire the rule of a second language in the form of formulas through a variety of discourse opportunities. But then, they will analyze those formulas into the component parts which they can then employ to engage in different types of communication or some other subtle topics. Third, the learner is helped to construct sentences vertically. This means learners will learn to construct
sentences by borrowing chunks of speech from the preceding discourse. And these vertical structures are the precursors of horizontal structures, meaning the production of longer sentences.

Though Hatch does not focus on the cognitive processes that control how the learner constructs discourse, she presents the external processes of second language acquisition which can be found in face-to-face interaction. And this is an important idea, especially for the teaching practice in an EFL environment, because learners have little or no opportunity to practice what they have learned about the target language in their daily life. It is more than necessary for a EFL learner to make use of any possible opportunity to communicate in the target language. For example, there is one kind of teaching activity in Bridge to Communication, an ESL program published by Santillana (1992) that encourages native/nonnative speaker interaction by asking students to interview others briefly on topics such as "My favorite sport" (Middle Level B, p. 7). For target language exposure, some advanced teaching programs in Japan hire only native speakers to teach their students to speak English (McGuire, 1992). In practice, an EFL teacher should know how to incorporate opportunities for nonnative English-speaking students to interact in English during school hours.

Nonnative Speaker/Nonnative Speaker Interactions

According to discourse theory, the more second language learners interact with others in the target language the better mastery thus can be achieved. However, the reality is that most of the learners of foreign language
have to do without many native speakers around. Most of the time, they can only practice their conversational skills with nonnative language speakers. In this case, the question is "can the learners still make good progress in learning the target language even with other nonnative speakers?"

In a normal situation, the speakers exercise conversational skills in a number of combinations, such as native speakers alone, native speaker and nonnative speaker interaction, and nonnative speakers alone. Although it would be a more common situation for the researchers to look at native speaker/nonnative speaker interactions than solely nonnative speakers, interactions in order to research second language acquisition, the focus in this section is research on interactions between nonnative speakers.

Researchers find out that in nonnative speakers' interactions, speakers take more responsibility for keeping the interactions going without breakdown. Thus nonnative speakers have more chance to employ and practice conversational strategies. Meanwhile, they will maximize using the functions of language. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) summarize research in nonnative speakers' interactions by stating that in nonnative speakers' interactions "communication breakdowns are more frequent, more obvious to both speakers, and have to be resolved by them (not by skillful second language teachers with plenty of foreigner talk experience)" (p. 129). Varonis and Gass (1985) and Gass and Varonis (1985) point out that there is greater negotiation of meaning happening in nonnative speakers' interactions, mainly because nonnative
speakers are more likely to have what they call "pushdown," which is the occurrences of misunderstandings which require explanation and negotiation of meaning. Pica and Doughty (1985) report that there is greater turn-taking and more output in nonnative speakers' interactions than native speaker/nonnative speaker interactions. In short, during nonnative speakers' interactions, learners get more chances to initiate an opinion and talk about that opinion. In this way, learners do not have to worry too much about mistakes; instead, the nonnative speakers can focus on the development of meaning in second language during a conversation more than they can in nonnative speaker/native speaker interaction.

Conclusion

In learning a language, the frequency of interaction in the target language is important, especially for the EFL learner. A good language teacher knows how to help the students to find opportunities to practice their conversational language skills. Interaction with nonnative speakers is a good way to improve language learning. Many foreign language programs have used nonnative speakers' interactions to help students practice their conversational skills. The real key to help students improve their language proficiency, according to principles of discourse theory, is for students to take an active discussion role as they make decisions on how to sustain a conversation and repair misunderstandings that occur.
Comprehensible Input

Krashen (1982) argues that acquisition occurs when learners receive comprehensible input, which means the message received can be understood. Krashen's notion of comprehensible input builds on the earlier concept of simplified input developed by Hatch (1979). This idea of comprehensible input is specifically important in foreign language instruction. Ideally, foreign language instruction should be able to let the learners catch the meaning of teaching material or a classroom activity. Other researchers have suggested extensions of the concept of comprehensible input. They focus on the process of interaction in the class, and the role of output in second language acquisition. In other words, checking for comprehensible input helps to make sure the teaching activities are understandable, and examining students' output helps to assure that students are learning correctly. Therefore, an ideal language teaching program should ensure that students receive comprehensible input that reinforce students' comprehensible output.

Input has to be Comprehensible

Input means what language students are presented with during the instruction. Comprehensibility is one of the most important characteristics of effective input. It amounts to Krashen's claim that when the acquirer does not understand the message, there will be no acquisition. When a learner receives a message which cannot be understood, nothing can be learned; the message is just noise.
Ervin-Tripp's (1973) finding can provide a good explanation of the importance of comprehensible input. She found that hearing children of deaf parents do not acquire language from TV or radio. His point of view is consistent with second language acquisition theory which leads to the fact that one can not learn a foreign or second language merely by listening to the radio or TV. So positing comprehensibility is fundamental and necessary in learning a second or foreign language. This requirement can also explain the apparent failure of some teaching concepts and educational TV programs to teach English in Taiwan; the input is simply not comprehensible.

Nevertheless, "comprehensible" does not mean "easy." The comprehensible input cannot be too easy for a learner to learn, because no challenge means no progress, especially, in a foreign language learning environment. Krashen's point of view explains that "just talking" or "free conversation" without a certain degree of complicatedness cannot provide a perfect environment for language learning. It would be better if the content of a conversational exercise could be designed to be a little harder than the learners can do at that moment, but not too hard to understand. According this point, teaching activities should be matched with the learner's current developmental level of learning to become really "comprehensible." According to Vygotsky (1978), teaching must be matched in some manner with the student's developmental level. This is Vygotsky's theory of "zone of proximal development." The principle of comprehensible input is an exemplar of
Vygotsky's "zone." Moreover, for arguing for comprehensible input, Krashen (1982) points out that conscious and extensive knowledge of grammar does not necessarily make one a good language teacher. Rather, according to the idea of comprehensible input, the definition of a good language teacher is someone who can make input comprehensible. This includes a good language teacher's awareness of the students' current level of communicative competence.

**How to Aid Comprehension**

Hatch (1979) has summarized the linguistic aspects of simplified input that can promote comprehension. In Hatch's notion of simplified input, one can distinguish one particular characteristic of teacher's language, that is, simplification. This characteristic is similar to different types of simple codes such as caretaker speech, foreigner-talk, and teacher-talk. Indeed, simplification is a way to help make input language more comprehensible. It is a basic teaching skill in teaching a foreign language.

However, merely simplifying language while teaching activities proceed cannot be enough to achieve comprehensible input, because the type of input that supplies no new linguistic material cannot foster development. Looking at Krashen's (1982) summarization of the characteristics of optimal input for acquisition, one can find three characteristics which are helpful to developing comprehensible input. These characteristics are as follows: Optimal input is interesting and relevant; optimal input is not grammatically sequenced; optimal input must be in sufficient quantity. First of all, input has to be interesting and
relevant. "Interesting" can help to draw learner's attention. And "relevant" can enhance learner's comprehension and help the memorization. Another characteristic is that input should not be grammatically sequenced. This viewpoint is specifically important for the private language programs in Taiwan, because the students in those program come from all kinds of educational backgrounds and they join the language program at different time periods. Some people may be in the program for one or two years, but some may just take a few months in the program. If teachers sequence each lesson or group of lessons with one particular grammatical structure, they ignore that there are individual differences in the rate of acquisition. The third characteristic is that input has to be in sufficient quantity. This is an abstract but important notion for foreign language teaching. It is difficult to say how much comprehensible input is enough to achieve a given level of proficiency in second language acquisition. However, a teacher should know how to evaluate whether or not students' needs are satisfied. And this satisfaction of needs is the judgment about whether quantity is sufficient, according to Krashen's idea.

Besides Krashen, Ellis (1986) mentions that a "here-and-now" orientation, together with interactional adjustments, is the main source of comprehensible input. "Here-and-now" orientation enables learners to make use of the linguistic and extralinguistic contexts, and as well as their general knowledge, to interpret language which they do not actually know. Moreover, interactional adjustments means the modification of the interactional structure of conversation.
Interactional adjustments are considered the important ones for second language acquisition which occur even when there are no formal modifications. The combination of here-and-now orientation and interactional adjustments can ensure that communication proceeds while exposing the learner to new linguistic material.

Ideally, language teaching which achieves comprehensible input should cover materials that are interesting, relevant, focused on students' current knowledge, and contain interactional adjustments. Thus a good teacher can always ensure that the input is one step ahead of the learner's existing knowledge.

Comprehensible Output

Good language instruction teaches students with comprehensible input; meanwhile, students must create comprehensible output. Swain (1985) argues that comprehensible input alone is not enough for second language acquisition. She cites her research on French immersion students which found that despite having a great deal of native speaker input, these students did not acquire French grammar well. She argues that this is because they were never pushed to actually produce French, and in fact frequently used English with each other. She proposes an "output + 1" hypothesis (similar to Krashen's Input + 1) in which students would be pushed to negotiate meaning in order to produce output at an ever higher level of complexity. Swain's claims suggest that a good foreign language class should encourage students to talk in the classroom.
Besides, Long's (1983) model of the relationship between types of conversational task and language acquisition also emphasizes the importance of less competent speakers providing feedback on his or her own comprehension. Long presents the idea that verbal communication tasks which involve two-way exchanges of information offer a good opportunity for less competent speakers to provide feedback on the comprehension. That would greatly increase the necessity of the students' creating comprehensible output since they would necessarily interact with each other more. Thus second language acquisition would be facilitated.

Swain's notion of comprehensible output seems intuitively correct, since it is difficult to believe that language learners can just passively acquire language through exposure to it. For example, the Taiwanese teacher-fronted classroom in which students get little opportunity to talk cannot provide a good language learning environment. Even children learning their mother tongue actively test their understanding by attempting to produce language. Learning through comprehensible input alone is like to learning piano through watching a concert pianist. Learning through comprehensible output can be compared to the practice of playing after observing someone else's playing. They are both important in learning a new language.

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

One of the important reasons for learning English in many countries is to
study in the United States. According to the statistics from the Chinese edition of L.A. Newsletter, the number of international students enrolled in California is 55,685 (Culture Department of Taipei Economy and Culture Center, 1996). That means thousands of the students come to study in the United States speaking a version of English learned through EFL. Many language programs teach English without speaking any first language during instruction. And this kind of teaching method is now popular in Taiwan, because people are starting to believe exposure to a totally English speaking environment is good for language learning. This brings up the topic of cognitive academic language proficiency.

What is Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency?

According to Cummins (1979), cognitive academic language proficiency is the knowledge of conceptual-linguistic forms rather than just a surface fluency in using a language. In terms of proficiency, it is the kind of language ability by which a student can perform school tasks successfully. A student who has academic language proficiency is supposed to be able to use his second language to describe a subtle concept. Moreover, academic language proficiency is called a kind of context-reduced communication. Cummins (1989) points out that academic uses of language often require the ability to manipulate language without the support provided in an interpersonal communicative context. That means there are few explicit cues a second language speaker can make use of in order to help comprehension.
Besides, Collier (1987) points out that academic language proficiency refers to both reading and writing abilities. Reading and writing abilities can be seen as content areas where students are required to use their language abilities for learning. Normally, reading and writing are common learning activities when a student receives an education. However, it is always a problem even when students deal with their reading and writing task in their first language, not to mention when reading or writing a text in second language. Besides, similar to Cummins's context-reduced communication, Biber (1986) presents that academic written uses require decontextualized use of language, because communicative partners are not present and a shared context often does not exist. In addition, Biber mentions that many oral language interactions in school are also decontextualized to a greater or lesser extent. So, according to Cummins and Biber's notions of academic language proficiency, one can find that the central aspect of academic language proficiency is the ability to make complex meanings explicit in either oral or written modalities by means of language itself rather than by means of paralinguistic cues. The students have to learn to say or write something to explain or deduce a subtle concept. To achieve academic language proficiency and attain access to the school curriculum, a student needs to master much more than everyday conversational skill in the target language.

Importance of Understanding Academic Language Proficiency

Nevertheless, it is important for a teacher to be aware of the difference
between conversational and academic language skills. Failure to take account of the distinction between conversational and academic language ability could result in overestimation of students' performance and having students exit into all-English programs too early. Recent research suggests that, for nonnative speaking students, the time periods required to achieve peer-appropriate levels in conversational skills in the second language is different from the time periods to achieve academic language skills. According to Collier and Thomas' (1989) finding, conversational skills often approach native-like levels within about two years of exposure to English. On the other hand, a period of five years or more may be required for nonnative-speaker students to achieve as well as native speakers in academic aspects of language proficiency. Cummins (1984) points out that a considerable amount of research from both Europe and North America suggests that nonnative students frequently develop conversational skills well in terms of everyday language but their academic skills will lag behind grade norms. So, to distinguish the different functions between conversational and academic language proficiency is necessary. This can prepare students to understand the need of both conversational ability and cognitive academic language proficiency in their learning. Meanwhile, this focus on both areas can prepare students with sufficient skills along the conversation-academic continuum.

The Preparation of Academic Language Proficiency

Heath (1986) presents six kinds of language proficiencies which students
are expected to possess to begin their formal schooling. The language proficiencies mentioned are also useful for foreign language programs to integrate into the principles of teaching for promoting and evaluating students' language proficiency.

First of all, students should know how to use language to label and describe the objects, events and information that non-intimates present to them. This means the ability to understand things presented with which they are not familiar, and to comprehend someone else's explanation for something. Second, students should know how to use language to recount in a predictable order and format past events or information given to them by non-intimates. This is all about using the tense of a language appropriately. This situation involves students describing things happening in different time periods. Third, students need to know how to follow directions from oral and written sources without needing sustained personal reinforcement from adults or peers. Students need to know how help themselves according to a given direction. This means students need to study independently in the learning environment like other students. Fourth, students need to know how to use language to sustain and maintain the social interactions of the group. This kind of proficiency is more or less like conversational proficiency, as it would be in written form. In this case, students need to use second language to deal with interpersonal matters. Fifth, students have to know how to use language to obtain and clarify information from non-intimates. At this level of proficiency, students are able to understand
a notion or a key point about a theory or information. This situation can happen when students are at a lecture or a presentation. The sixth one is that students need to use language on appropriate occasions to account for unique experiences, to link these experience to generally known ideas or events, and to create new information or to integrate ideas in innovative ways. This means the students are able to explain complicated notions or information they have learned. This situation can happen when the students do a presentation to the class or discuss an issue with other students.

Although what Heath mentions are the basic skills to survive in school, nonnative speakers must spend much time and effort to master this proficiency. On the other hand, it is also important for a teacher to evaluate if students come to school with sufficient academic language proficiency. This could reduce the situation where a teacher may misjudge the students' ability and make incorrect assumptions about what students are able to do.

Ideal Reading and Writing Teaching Methods

Collier's (1987) viewpoint about academic language proficiency refers to both reading and writing abilities. Indeed, reading and writing proficiencies are the essential parts of cognitive academic language proficiency. Many nonnative speakers with excellent intelligence and a motivated attitude toward learning cannot succeed in their academic performance, because of a language barrier in reading and writing tasks. Thus a ideal language program tends to provide students with appropriate reading and writing strategies to strengthen academic
language proficiency.

For the sake of improving the reading ability of second language learners, reading instruction should stress the development of personal reading strategies; for example, skimming and scanning. This can improve students' reading speed and fluency. Another example is the most popular method to achieve efficient reading which is called "five W's": What, when, where, who and why. These five W's can always help students to understand and evaluate what they have read. Besides, Bruder and Paulston (1976) mention that in classroom activities a teacher can give pre-questions including key words and phrases before the students begin reading. This can prepare students to review the background knowledge thus helping students to catch the key point in a reading text.

For successful writing training, a writing instruction needs to introduce the writing skills of recognizing topic sentences, expressing thoughts in what is perceived in the second language as logical order, and writing paragraph outlines. Meanwhile, for demonstrating what is perceived in the second language as logical order, it is necessary for a teacher to mention the difference in the writing style between the two languages. Meanwhile, students need to be asked to apply the concepts of writing appropriate to the second language when they practice writing essays. Besides, Gardner and Jewler (1995) mention that students need to master five kinds of writing tasks in order to have a successful academic experience, such as compare/contrast, cause/effect, narration,
theory/opinion, and explanation/argumentation. Thus, successful academic writing proficiency enables students to express their thoughts in logical order in the right forms or styles of writing tasks. This is what the language programs which prepare students to enter a foreign academic program should seek to adjust in the design of their teaching activities.

Conclusion

It is crucial for a language teacher or a language program designer to notice the implications of conversational and academic language proficiency. Especially, foreign language educators should realize toward what goal students learning English are aiming. They may want to use this language to develop their professional knowledge. In this case, the teachers' task is to develop students' academic skills in English, not just conversational skills. Correct strategies and attitudes can make the students' language barriers much easier to overcome.
INTRODUCTION OF CURRICULUM UNITS

Principles of Importance

Based on the findings gained by a review of the relevant literature, the following principles shall guide the design of the teaching units.

Focus on Meaningful Communicative Learning

In those units, students have the opportunity to practice the language they learn, to make their own world knowledge, and to express their ideas and opinions. Communicative activities allow for a maximum amount of communication from the students.

Combination of Form and Function

Throughout the units designed, grammar is seen as an important component of communicative competence. However, grammar is always presented communicatively, with exercises focusing on both accuracy and fluency. In this way, there is a link between grammatical form and communicative function.

Encouraging Students' Interaction in English

Plenty of opportunities for the students to practice what they have learned is one of the most important characteristics in the units, design. A number of different kinds of learning activities are used in those units. These include whole class activities and tasks done in small groups, pairs, or individually. This variation allows for a change of pace within lessons. The extensive use of pair work and group work activities in those units makes the curriculum ideal for large
and small classes and gives students a greater amount of individual practice and interaction with others in English.

**Emphasis on the Comprehension and Production**

The basis of language learning is formed by the processes of comprehension as well as the activities of production. Students' productive skills are developed through speaking and writing tasks, and their receptive skills are developed through listening and reading. Students will learn to understand language that is at a higher level than they can produce, and this prepares them to make the transition from the classroom to the real world.

**Preparation for Academic Language Proficiency**

In academic language proficiency, using English to express and understand the terminology used in the school work is important. Also, making a request, writing or describing a notion, and understanding basic cultural facts are necessary for a foreign student to survive on a American campus. Specific teaching units for this academic preparation can prepare the students with good start toward possessing academic language proficiency.

**Teachers' and Learners' Roles**

The teachers' roles, which are similar to facilitators in those units, are to present and model new learning items; whenever possible using pair work, group work, and role play activities. The teacher's primary function is to prepare students for an activity by teaching key parts of the units, and then, let them complete it using their own knowledge learned. The learners' role in these units
is to participate actively and creatively in learning. They will use both the materials they study in the course and their own knowledge and language resources.

Method of Design

In the literature review proposed in the present paper, the major emphasis is on learning language in order to facilitate communication. Each review section includes generally accepted views of how language learning and teaching should proceed, and each has useful aspects which will be incorporated into my design. However, the learning situation in Taiwan emphasizes grammar-translation and memorization rather than oral communication. This mandates teaching materials that enforce accuracy in using English. But, in some particular situations like small conversation or fluency activities, the teacher does not correct student's errors. In those sections, the student's creative language is encouraged.

To compensate for the lack in communicative competence in the current Taiwanese English learning situation, listening and speaking practices will be used in the proposed teaching design. The emphasis will be listening comprehension and physical actions; for example, TPR will reinforce learners' English expression. So, the highlighted features of grammar translation and communicative competence combined will strengthen the retention of language.

I believe that this integration of specific features of the principles of
importance is an effective way to address the difficulties that Taiwanese adults encounter in learning English. One important feature which makes this design different from existing ones is that it is specifically designed for Taiwanese adults learning English. It takes into consideration traditional cultural norms and current English learning difficulties. Other populations of students learning English may encounter different kinds of difficulties, and therefore an effective programs for these populations may require different components from the one presented here.

**General Description of Teaching Units**

The final part of this paper consists of practical teaching units based on the principles of importance presented above. The purpose is to provide a concrete example of the implementation of the teaching design in a classroom. Speaking, listening, reading, and writing aspects of learning will be presented. Every plan contains a twelve-hour unit designed for intermediate adult English learners in Taiwan who have some knowledge of English and are trying to improve their ability to communicate in English.

**Materials of Teaching Units**

The materials of this teaching units are included in the teaching plan in this paper. These teaching units adapt many of teaching activities in the textbook of *Interchange - English for International Students* (Richards, Hull & Proctor, 1990). The materials used in the class are also be teacher-generated materials as well as those adapted from textbooks, such as *English 900, and*
Listen and Performance.

The EFL Classroom

Classroom setting. Private language institutes, cultural exchange centers, or YMCA classrooms are all suitable settings.

Classroom capacity and duration. The class meets three times a week: Monday, Wednesday, and Friday. The duration of the class will be 90 minutes, but because time control is not always precise, the actual classroom lesson design is approximately 75 minutes. Sixteen to twenty students is an ideal number for the class size because it allows each student to have individual interaction with the teacher while at the same time allowing the students to interact with a number of different people during different lessons.

Teacher and Students' Roles

The teacher's roles. For English learning activities, the teacher acts as a director and guide to monitor the classroom learning and activity process. She/he also is an observer and participant of the small group work, group discussion, and whole class discussion. When students give correct responses, he/she will give approval and praise. If students fail to respond correctly, he/she will restate the answers, paraphrase the question, or give cues to students rather than immediately correcting the errors. The reason is that if the teacher corrects students' errors immediately without regarding the conversation that is going on, he/she will discourage students from expressing their ideas in English. The teacher is also expected to generate suitable teaching materials.
and or to select proper text books.

**Students' roles.** Learners act as both listeners and performers. They should listen to the teacher's instructions and perform the commands or carry out the actions requested by the teacher. In addition, they are also responsible for interacting with peers when questions and comments are made by the peers.

**Homework and presentation.** Homework will be given depending on the nature of the task involved. For example, after the discussion of a certain topic, students will be asked to write an essay to analyze or summarize the entire discussion. In addition, teacher will be asked to give feedback on students' writing task for a unit. The particular format used for the writing task or assignment will vary, depending on the topic and the students in the class. This writing is not a final exam but a chance for students to perform and evaluate their achievements in English learning. Furthermore, it provides a chance for the teacher to evaluate the effectiveness of this special teaching unit.

**Unit 1: Families and Relationships**

The purpose of this unit is to teach students how to describe families and ask about someone's family. Meanwhile, students will learn to make small talk with a person at the very first meeting. For the grammar component, students will practice sentences with Wh- and Yes/No questions and the use of do/does questions. And in the pronunciation practice students will get the chance to get familiar with the pronunciation of third-person "s."

There are no specific lesson for listening comprehension in this unit, but
students will listen to teacher’s presentation which talks about family matters, and listen to peers’ question activity. And writing activities are also important in this unit in which students will write things about a family.

Meanwhile, reading and students' interaction in English are offered in this teaching units. Students will read an article about impolite topics when having a conversation with an American. And in the interaction section students will collect and exchange some personal information with classmates.

Unit 2: Leisure and Sports

The purpose for this unit is to teach students how to describe routines and activities, and how to talk about frequent daily activities. Meanwhile students will learn about the cultural comparison of sports between Taiwanese and American society. Grammar learning covers the use of adverbs of frequency.

Students will also learn to pronounce the reduced form of "do" which is important in asking someone's routine activities. In the listening comprehension, students will listen to people talk about leisure activities. Besides, students will write about daily routines and read an article about daily activities and physical fitness. In addition, students will conduct a survey on leisure activities and have a P.E. class in the English classroom.

Unit 3: Successful Study Skills

The purpose for this unit is to teach students to understand the value of higher education, talk about study skills, and ask about individual educational
goals. In the grammar component, students will learn about imperatives to give someone suggestions or advice. Pronunciation is also important in this unit. Reduction of "going to" and "gonna" and consonant contrast / θ / and / t / will be introduced in this unit.

Meanwhile, students will listen for different learning skills and write an essay about interesting classes in the school. In the reading activity, students will read an article about "Where to go for help - typical college support services."
Goal

This unit helps students to develop their English proficiency in the following ways: by describing family structure, by comparing American and Taiwanese families, by understanding the current situation in modern Chinese families, and by writing about their own families. It also presents the use of grammar in third-person questions and statements in the present tense.

Contents

Lesson 1. The Structure of the Family
Lesson 2. Small Talk - Public & Private
Lesson 3. Getting to Know You
Lesson 4. The American Family
Lesson 5. Changes in the Chinese Family
Lesson 6. The Story of My Family

Plan of Teaching

Lesson 1. The Structure of the Family. This lesson presents the vocabulary needed for describing family members and relationships. Students will also learn to draw their own family trees in this lesson.

Part A. Family Relation Tree

(1) The teacher introduces the new words as follows:

father/mother; nephew/niece; sister-in-law/brother-in-law;
uncle/aunt; grandfather/grandfather.

(2) Students use the words which have just been taught to complete the task of the family relation tree (see Appendix 1-1) individually.

(3) Students compare their family relation trees with each other before being given the correct answers.

Part B. Description of Family Relationship

(1) Students figure out the correct words to finish those incomplete sentences (see Appendix 1-1) which describe family relationships.

(2) Students complete the task individually or in pairs, and then, compare answers with a partner.

(3) Students write three similar sentences individually after the class finishes step (2), and then, read them aloud with a partner.

(4) Or, the teacher could call on students to present their sentences to the class.

Part C. My Family Tree

(1) Students draw their own family trees with members' names on the trees.

(2) Students can either describe their immediate families, for example, wife/husband/children, or their mother/father/brothers/sisters.

(3) Students will use their own family trees to introduce their families to the class.

Part D. Small Talk about the Family
The class learns to make small talk about students' families according to everyone's family trees.

The teacher asks about students' families by asking the questions as follows:

T: Tell us about your family, Chen.

S1: Well, there are six in my family. I have...

T: And how about you, Huang?

S2: . . .

The teacher has to make sure every student gets a chance to talk about his or her family.

Lesson 2. Small Talk - Public and Private. In this lesson, students will practice English conversational skills by using appropriate greetings and questions in order to get to know someone. Students will learn about what kind of topics are considered appropriate and inappropriate in social conversation in the United States.

Part A. Greeting Someone

(1) The teacher asks students look up the word "greet" in their dictionaries and explains what kinds of situations in which people greet each other in the United States (see Appendix 1-2).

(2) The teacher encourages students to use the expressions taught here among friends or classmates everyday.

(3) The teacher models the correct stress for the reduced form
in "How've you been?" "How're things?" and "How're you doing?"

Meanwhile, the teacher points out that the last word receives the strongest stress.

(4) The teacher sets up a normal situation in which students can practice what they have learned in this lesson and start small talk with a partner. The teacher pays attention if students make an inappropriate greeting or response.

Part B. Touchy Topics

(1) The teacher explains the notion of "touchy topics" by saying: There are some questions I don't like people to ask me: "How old are you?" and "What is your salary?"

(2) Students read the passage (see Appendix 1-3) silently and circle any words for which they cannot guess the meaning.

(3) The teacher explains the vocabulary that students may not understand and goes over these words if necessary.

(4) The teacher sets up some situations (or makes some quiz questions) and asks the students if they are polite or not. For example:

   What does your wife do?
   Do you believe in God?
   How much money do you earn?
   How many children do you have?
   Why aren't you married?
Do you like baseball?

T: Is the first question polite or not polite in your knowledge, Chen?

S1: It's polite.

T: Is it the same in yours, Huang?

S2: It's......

Part C. Grammar Tips

(1) The teacher presents the questions and models the correct spots of stress in the Wh- questions and Yes/No questions.

What does she do? She drives a taxi.
What does he do? He teaches French.
What do they do? They go to school.
Does your brother go to school? Yes, he does.
Does your sister live here? No, she doesn't.
Do your children work in Chicago? Yes, they do.
No, they don't.

(2) The teacher explains the grammatical rules about how to answer and ask Wh- and Yes/No questions.

(3) Students practice the model questions and answers above in pairs.

Part D. Evaluation - Listening Comprehension

(1) The teacher presents the following text to the students to see how much the students can understand by listening to the
teacher's presentation (see Appendix 1-4).

(2) The teacher hands out the answer sheet with the questions which can test students' comprehension about this conversation, for example:

- Is John married?
- What does he say about his family?
- Does Mary have any brothers and sisters?

Lesson 3. Getting to Know You. This lesson demonstrates speaking skills and how to ask about someone's family.

Part A. Pronunciation Drill

(1) The teacher explains that the phonological rule for final "s" in verbs for third-person present tense is the same as that for final "s" in plural nouns. And the teacher teaches the rules about the pronunciation of "s."

(2) The teacher presents some sets of verbs for students to practice. For example:

- \( s = /z/ \)  
- \( s = /s/ \)  
- \( s = /z/ \)

- Lives  
- Makes  
- Manages

- Sells  
- Works  
- Supervises

- Owns  
- Likes  
- Teaches

(3) The teacher writes additional verbs in third-person singular form on the board and asks students to pronounce them.

- \(/z/\) (buys, comes, designs, studies)
- \(/s/\) (cooks, helps, talks, types, writes)
Part B. Pair Discussion

(1) Students ask each other about their families, and are encouraged to use Wh- questions and Yes/No questions.

(2) The teacher writes some questions and answers as examples on the board for students to apply as following:

A: Tell me about your parents. What do they do?
B: Well, my father is retired, and my mother manages a drugstore.
A: Oh. Do they live with you?
B: No, they don't. They live in Taichung.
A: Do you have any brothers and sisters?
B: Yes, I have two sisters and one brother. My older sister works for China Airlines, and my younger sister goes to college.
A: Oh, really? And what does your brother do?
B: No, he doesn't. He is married and teaches in an elementary school.

Part C. Peer Survey

(1) Students go around the class to ask about the other students' families, including names, the number of members, occupations, and special habits.

(2) Meanwhile, students write down what they have been told.
(3) Within a certain time frame, students finish their survey and share the results in groups.

Part D. Performance Assessment

(1) During students' peer survey, the teacher circulates in the class and ask about students' families according to some model questions which could evaluate students' performance.

(2) The teacher should keep records about students' performance in many respects of using English, such as vocabulary, sentence stress, grammar, and conversational skills.

Lesson 4. American Family. This section is a culture class. Students will learn information about the American family.

Part A. Reading - American Social Facts

(1) The teacher leads students to read the information about the social facts of the American families (see Appendix 1-5).

(2) The teacher explains the meaning of "average," "percentage," and "alone."

(3) Students read the information about the American families again. And then students figure out the same information about their own families. The teacher puts the model questions on the board as following:

- The size of my family: _____
- Number of relatives living with me: _____
- Age when my family members got married:
father: _____; mother: _____; brother (or sister): ______

(4) Students discuss their own information and the information about the American families in groups, including what they think about the American families, and then report the conclusions to the class.

Part B. Text Reading - American Family

(1) The teacher lets students read this article (see Appendix 1-6) silently by themselves and reminds them to avoid using the dictionary if possible.

(2) The teacher walks around the class to solve students' problems as quietly as possible.

Part B. Comprehension Test - American Family

(1) Students will work on following questions in groups:

a. What is the most common type of family in the United States?

b. What is the nuclear family?

c. How many generations usually live in a typical American family home?

d. What is the usual relationship between husband and wife?

f. How often does an average American family move?

g. Who is exclusively responsible for the care of children?

h. What are children taught to be at an early age?

i. What do adult children usually do?

j. Are American families today larger or smaller than before?

k. Why are more mothers working today?
I. What is one of the most disturbing changes in family life?

m. What happens to most divorced people?

n. How is this changing the pattern of American family life?

(2) Each group elects one person to report the results of discussion to the class. The teacher gives the feedback to each group.

(3) The teacher goes over each new word which students may not understand.

Part C. Instructional Conversation

(1) The teacher and students sit and form a circle in the classroom.

(2) The teacher encourages students to talk about this article about American family freely.

(3) The teacher should remind students there is no right or wrong answers. Every one can express his own opinions as he wants to.

(4) The following questions can be good model questions to motivate students to talk. The teacher tries to get students to volunteer ideas.

   a. Do you think the nuclear family pattern is a good model in today's world? Is it good for Taiwanese to live like this?

   b. Why does one get divorced?

   c. Should household chores be exclusively a wife's duties?

   d. Is the climate changing in your country? Is it acceptable for women to work?

(5) The teacher makes conclusions and gives feedback to students.
Part D. Home Work - Translation

(1) The teacher asks students to translate a paragraph (see Appendix 1-7) which introduces an active American family and turn it in to the teacher in the next class meeting.

(2) Students will be given following comprehension questions to answer while they translate this article.

a. What is Amelia's mother's name?

b. What does the first "them" in this article refer to?

c. According to the article, what did Edwin give the girls?

d. In what way did Amelia's mother help Amelia in her career?

Lesson 5. Changes in the Chinese Family. In this lesson, students will read three articles about the changes in the Chinese family. With this last lesson, students can have a crosscultural comparison between Chinese and American families. This lesson will help them to understand the cultural differences between these two countries.

Part A. Article Reading - The Changes in the Chinese Family

(1) The teacher leads students read this article (see Appendix 1-8) and explains any new words in the class.

(2) Students take notes about how the Chinese family has changed.

Part B. Reading Comprehension

(1) These two articles in this part are about the changing positions of Chinese women and children (see Appendix 1-9 and 1-10).
(2) The teacher reminds students to apply reading skills for the main points.

(3) After reading these articles, students discuss them in groups.

(4) Students will have a homework assignment which is to summarize these two articles and present their own opinions.

Part C. Crosscultural Comparison

(1) Students discuss the contrast between American and Chinese families in groups.

(2) Each group will present the results of their discussion to the class.

Part D. Cooperative Debate

(1) The teacher divides the class into two groups. One group contends that the American family style is better than the Chinese style. The other contends that the Chinese style is better.

(2) Each student in the group works on one part of group's recommendations and opinions, according to the crosscultural comparison or their personal knowledge.

(3) Two groups alternatively send their members to present their ideas, one student at a time.

(4) The teacher gives feedback to the class.

Lesson 6. Writing about Family. This is a writing lesson in which each student will write a composition to introduce their families.

Part A. Review of Survey
(1) Students discuss what they know about some people's interesting jobs or special habits during the peer survey.

(2) This is a warm-up activity for an open ended conversation. The teacher should encourage students to talk in the class.

Part B. Open Ended Conversation

(1) Students talk about some interesting stories happening to their family in groups.

(2) Students should try to keep the conversation going without stumbling over pronunciation or grammar.

(3) The teacher asks students to write down key words and phrases related to this topic which can be used in the composition.

Part C. Writing

(1) The teacher introduces the writing process which is from the pre-writing, first draft, second draft, to the final paper and could help students develop their ideas and organize their thoughts.

(2) The teacher reminds students that the structure of composition has to be from general situation to specific case and from the whole family to individuals.

(3) Students write first drafts for the compositions. In the first draft, they should concentrate on the structure of composition as much as they can without worrying too much about spelling or grammar.

(4) For the second drafts, students should check out three aspects
of the composition as follows: "Can they add any information?" "What
do they need to revise or delete?" and "What grammar and spelling need
to be corrected?"

(5) Students exchange second drafts with each other and partners will
revise the second drafts according to their point of view. Students can
have some time to talk about their compositions.

(6) After peer reading, students do the final revision of their composition.

(7) The teacher collects students' compositions, reviews them, and gives
feedback to the students.

Unit 2: Leisure and Sports

Goal

This unit aims at the development of English proficiency in the following
way: by learning vocabulary, by making an activity survey, and by learning
about the American culture of sports. It also presents the grammatical rules
about adverbs of frequency and adverbial phrases of frequency for describing
habitual actions.

Contents

Lesson 1. The World of Sports

Lesson 2. How Active Are You?

Lesson 3. How to Play Golf

Lesson 4. Leisure Time
Lesson 5. Leisure and Sports in America and Taiwan

Lesson 6. My Favorite Sports

Plan of Teaching

Lesson 1. The World of Sports. This lesson teaches students vocabulary and phrases about sports and exercise. Also, students will complete a peer survey about their favorite sports

Part A. Vocabulary Teaching

(1) Students, in pairs try to match the pictures (see Appendix 2-1) with the words as follows: aerobics, baseball, bicycling, golf, hiking, karate, skiing, soccer.

(2) The teacher models the pronunciation of the words and the stress in "aerobics," "bicycling," "karate," and "skiing."

(3) The teacher explains the terms "team sports" and "individual sports."

(4) The teacher teaches students how to classify team sports, individual sports, and exercise for the words they have just learned.

Part B. Grammar Tips - Adverbial Phrases of Frequency

(1) The teacher presents the sentences below and explains that people say "once" (not "one time"), "twice" or "two times," and "three times, four times. And the teacher points out that these adverbial phrases of frequency normally occur at the end of sentences.

How often do you exercise?

I go to the gym every day.
I jog about once a week.

I play tennis twice a month.

About three times a year!

I don't exercise very much/very often.

(2) The teacher explains "How often" in a question sentence means to ask about the frequency of habitual activities.

(3) The teacher asks students to write down following questions:

   How often do you exercise?
   Do you play tennis?
   Do you jog or run?
   What other sports do you play?
   Do you work out in a gym?
   What other exercise do you get?
   How often do you go swimming?

(4) Students need to answer these questions in the form of a complete sentence with adverbial phrases of frequency as correctly as they can.

(5) For doing this work, teacher could try to ask students the similar questions orally in the class. This can impress students about the notion of adverbial phrases of frequency. Model questions are as following:

   T: What do you do every day?
   S1: I walk to school every day.
S2: I read the paper every day.

T: What do you do once a week?

S3: I go to the movies once a week.

S4: I do my homework about once a week.

T: What do you do three times a year?

S5: I go to the dentist about three times a year.

(6) The teacher remembers to correct students' errors of grammar during the above activity.

(7) Students use the inquiry and answers as dialogues to practice their conversational skills in pairs, and try to do it grammatically. At this time, the teacher goes around the class, listens for grammatical accuracy, and corrects intonation. Then the teacher makes notes on whatever difficulties students may have.

(8) The teacher discusses any difficulties with the class, and writes examples on the board.

Part C. Peer Survey - Favorite Sports

(1) Students walk around the class to ask the other students about their favorite sports or special activities.

(2) Students keep the results for their survey. The records should include students' names, favorite sports, frequency, and reasons.

Part D. Posters or Cards Presentation - Sport Stars

(1) Students bring the posters or cards they have collected for
their favorite sport stars to class.

(2) Students introduce their favorite sport stars to the class and explain the achievement those stars have made.

(3) The students who do not have such items could introduce their favorite movie actors or actresses to class. For example, they may talk about some movies in which those specific actors or actresses perform they like the most.

Lesson 2. How Active Are You? Students will conduct a activity survey for themselves and their family in this lesson.

Part A. Activity Survey

(1) This is a survey activity (questionnaire see Appendix 2-2). The teacher lets students do this survey silently in class.

(2) The teacher explains new words and phrases in this survey.

(3) The teacher may ask students about the results of students' survey individually.

Part B. Adverbs of Frequency

(1) The teacher presents the sentences below and explains the meanings of those adverbs.

I always get up early.

I usually run for about 2 hours.

I often eat a huge breakfast.

I sometimes go downtown in the afternoon.
Sometimes, I just watch TV.

I never go to discos.

I don't usually eat out.

(2) The teacher explains the frequencies of these adverbs can be approximately estimated as: always = 100%, usually = 90%, often = 70%, sometimes = 30%, never = 0%.

(3) The teacher explains that the normal position for adverbs of frequency is before the main verb, though the adverb sometimes can also occur before the subject, for example: "I sometimes read the paper," or "Sometimes I read the paper." With the verb "be," however, the adverb of frequency usually comes after the verb, for example: "He is never late."

(4) The teacher asks students to use the adverbs. Students practice one adverb at a time. For example:

T: Always.

S1: I always get up at five o'clock.

S2: I always have rice for breakfast.

S3: Mary always arrives late for class.

(5) Students put the frequency adverbs on the right places:

A: What do you usually do on your day off?

B: Nothing much. I always sleep until noon.

A: Do you usually go out on Saturday night?

B: Yes, I often do.
I sometimes go roller-skating.
or I go to a movie.

A: Do you **usually** drive to school?
B: No, I **never** drive to school.
     I **always** take the bus.

A: What do you **usually** do after class?
B: I **often** meet friends for a drink.
or I **sometimes** go straight home.

A: Do you **usually** get much exercise?
B: Yes, I **sometimes** play tennis after work.
     And on Sundays, I **often** go to the gym.

Part C. Activity Survey for Family

(1) Students interview two of their family members for the activity survey
    as they did in Part A.

(2) Students report the conclusions of the survey to the class and discuss
    the results in groups.

Part D. Reading / Translation Assignment - Old Lady Reaches Great
    Heights (see Appendix 2-3)

(1) Students will translate this article at home and answer following
    questions.

1. When did Hulda Crooks start jogging?
2. What did Hulda Crooks realize from her marriage to Dr. Samuel Crooks?

3. How did Hulda Crooks take up mountain climbing?

4. Why does Hulda Crooks like mountain climbing?

(2) Students will turn in the homework papers to the teacher at the next class meeting.

Lesson 3. How to Play Golf. In this lesson, students will learn the basic skills and concepts of how to play golf by watching the video tape of golf instruction and actually practicing it in the class.

Part A. Warm-up Activity

(1) Students should practice saying the actions (see Appendix 2-4), but not perform them at first.

(2) Then, students perform each action as the teacher reads the directions.

(3) The teacher will read the directions aloud for students to follow and do exercise. Student listen and follow the directions.

(4) Every student takes a turn to give some of the directions for this exercise. The rest of students do the actions.

Part B. Watching Golf Instruction

(1) Students watch a video tape of golf instruction named Feel Your Way to Better Golf.

(2) If necessary, the teacher stops the VCR and explains the postures.
(3) Students take notes for the process of playing golf.

(4) After watching videotape, the teacher writes "golf" in the center of the chalk-board and circles it.

(5) The teacher encourages the students to describe the actions involved in golf. The teacher draws a spoke out from the central circle and writes the new word in a circle at the end of the spoke.

(6) After the students have contributed as many action words as they can think of, the teacher pantomimes any actions they may have missed and adds those words to the diagram.

(7) The action words related to golf are as follows: grip, swing, chip, pitch, and putt.

(8) Students copy the diagram that has been finished for the preparation of writing golf instruction.

Part C. Group Work - A Written Golf Instruction

(1) Students share their notes and discuss the skills of playing golf in groups.

(2) Students combine their notes and make a written golf instruction.

(3) Each group finishes a written instruction for the skills of playing golf.

(4) After each group finishes the golf instruction, the class members share and review what they have summarized, and make adjustments to their written instructions.

Part D. Practicing Swing
(1) Students will practice golf with soft fake golf balls in the class, according to their written instructions. The teacher brings clubs to class.

(2) The teacher pays attention to the for the class.

Lesson 4. Leisure Time. Students will perform a leisure survey for their peers in this lesson. Before they start their survey, the students will listen to a dialogue to rehearse their listening comprehension.

Part A. Dialogue Listening

(1) The teacher presents the text (see Appendix 2-5) to the students and students listen only.

(2) The teacher presents to the students again. Students figure out who likes to do exercise and who does not. Then the teacher has the students compare their answers with a partner.

(3) The teacher explains every new word or phrase that students may not understand.

Part B. Leisure Survey

(1) Students look over the survey (see Appendix 2-6) quickly. The teacher explains any new vocabulary, for example: library, museum, handball, arts, backpacking, and calisthenics.

(2) Some students act as the persons who ask questions for this survey and some act as the persons who receive this survey.

(3) Students form groups of five or six with a secretary in each group to tabulate their information.
(4) Group secretaries report their information to the class and write it on the board.

Part C. Quiz - Choosing the Right Response

(1) The teacher presents text about Yes/No questions (see Appendix 2-7) to the students and students choose correct response on the answer sheet to the questions.

(2) After collecting students' answer sheets, the teacher discusses the answers with students.

Lesson 5. Leisure and Sports in America and Taiwan. This lesson introduces the situation comparing Taiwanese and American sports and leisure activities. Students will have a crosscultural learning experience in this lesson.

Part A. Reading - The American Way: Sports (see Appendix 2-8)

(1) The teacher explains following new words and phrases before students start to read this article: sideline, revel, rink, glue, buff, toiletry, intramural, score, fever, household, try one's luck, and live up to something.

(2) Students start to read this article and take notes about the main points in this article.

Part B. Social Facts - How American Spend Their Time? (see Appendix 2-9)

(1) This activity introduces the statistics of time distribution in American's daily routines and leisure activities.
(2) The teacher may ask students about how much time they spend each day on the activities above.

(3) The teacher has students write down the information about themselves on the form as in Appendix 2-9, and then compare with a partner.

Part C. Taiwanese Sports and Recreations

(1) Students read the article (see Appendix 2-10) about Taiwanese sports and recreations and take notes while they are reading.

(2) The teacher goes around the class to explain any new words or phrases to the students.

Part D. Crosscultural Comparison

(1) In groups, students discuss the habitual similarity and difference in leisure and sports activities between Americans and Taiwanese.

(2) Each group turns in a paper summarizing their discussion to the teacher.

Lesson 6. My Favorite Sports. Students will write a composition to describe their favorite sports. Before they start writing their composition, the class has warm-up activities that can prepares students with enough information.

Part A. Oral Assessment

(1) Students discuss their favorite sports or leisure activities in groups.

(2) The teacher goes around the class to talk with students individually about the topic of leisure and sports. And the teacher records
students' English expression including conversational skills, vocabulary, grammar, and cultural understanding.

Part B. Word Bank

(1) In pairs, students will work on making a word bank which collects all the words have been used in this unit relating to the topic of sports and leisure.

(2) Those words will be classified in different groups, such as nouns, adjectives, verbs, prepositions, other words, wh-words, adverbs, and expressions.

(3) Different pairs of students exchange their word banks. Students work on fitting in the missing words in the word banks by comparing with the other pairs.

Part C. Writing

(1) Students write first drafts of their compositions, by using their notes and word banks.

(2) The teacher reminds students to check grammar, spelling, and particularly their use of adverbs of frequency.

(3) Students write second drafts, incorporating changes and revisions.

(4) Students do their peer reading for their second drafts. And then, students write their final composition.

(5) The teacher collects students' writing and gives them feedback.
Unit 3: Successful Study Strategies

Goal

This unit aims at the development of English proficiency in following ways: by understanding the value of higher education, by formulating for education goals, by assessing personal strengths, and by rehearsing important learning skills. It also presents the grammatical rules about giving suggestions with imperatives.

Contents

Lesson 1. The Value of Higher Education
Lesson 2. My Education Goal
Lesson 3. Time Management
Lesson 4. Note Taking and Taking Tests
Lesson 5. How to Deal with Stress
Lesson 6. Academic Support

Plan of Teaching

Lesson 1. The Value of High Education. This lesson presents how higher education is related to a person's income. Also, in Part A students will learn to make flash cards for the vocabulary about education.

Part A. Vocabulary

(1) The teacher tells students they will learn to make flash cards at this time. The flash cards should have correct pronunciation symbols for each word. The words introduced are as follows: career, essay, objective,
appointment, schedule, vocational examination, Bachelor, skimming and scanning, Master, theme, Doctorate.

(2) Students work, individually, or in pairs, on making flash cards for defining these 12 words and phrases, meanwhile, they also make up a sentence applying these words in each card.

Part B. Small Talk - Education

(1) The teacher has small talk with students for discussing the topics about education; for example, the value of education, the examination system, and favorite classes.

(2) The teacher starts to introduce the main topic in this lesson - the value of higher education.

Part C. Information Reading

(1) Students read the social facts (see Appendix 3-1) in the United States.

(2) The teacher discusses the value of higher education with the class, and talks about the relevant social facts in Taiwan.

(3) The teacher asks students to make flash cards for new words or phrases.

Part D. Library Research

(1) In pairs, students will go to a local public library to find out similar information about Taiwan as in Appendix 1-3.

(2) Each pair of students will submit one copy of their findings to
the teacher in the next class meeting, including their opinions and conclusions for the results of their research.

Lesson 2. Education Goal. Students will complete a self-examination of their education goals. Then they will interview other students about the same subject. Besides, students will have a group discussion about the benefits of higher education.

Part A. Writing - Reasons for Attending College

(1) Students write about their personal reasons for attending college according on the form in Appendix 3-2.

(2) The papers need to be turned in to the teacher after the class. The teacher will give feedback to the students about their opinions.

Part B. Pronunciation Drill

(1) The teacher teaches students the reduction of "going to" and "gonna" which students can often hear from American conversations.

(2) Students read following text to practice the use of "gonna" in the sentences.

I'm going to have a final test tomorrow.

He's going to see his professor for the paper next Monday.

Dr. Chen is going to substitute this class on Tuesday.

Don't worry! Things are going to be OK.

(3) Then, the teacher teaches the contrast between voiceless fricative /θ/ and the aspirated plosive /t/. The sound /θ/ is made with the tip of
the flattened tongue touching the tips of the upper teeth and forcing out a voiceless stream of air. The sound / t / is made with the tip of the tongue touching (or almost touching) the tooth ridge. The / t / is aspirated - released with a puff of air - in initial position and in medial position before a stressed vowel. A common pronunciation error is to substitute / t / for /θ / or not to aspirate / t / (Richards, Hull & Proctore, p. 76).

(4) The teacher models the sounds with / θ / and points out the position of the tongue.

(5) Students practice the contrast / θ / and / t /.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ θ /</th>
<th>/ t /</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>thank</td>
<td>tank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>through</td>
<td>true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three</td>
<td>tree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both</td>
<td>boat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(6) The teacher models the contrast / θ / and / t / and tells students to check for aspiration by holding a piece of paper close to the mouth as they pronounce the sound / t /. The aspiration should cause the paper to move.

Part C. Interview - Education Goals

(1) Students will interview three friends about their education goals and write down the reasons why they want to achieve higher education.

(2) According to the results of interview, students compare the education goals from the others and their own goals in small groups.

(3) Each group presents their conclusions about general education
goals and some interesting opinions. Meanwhile, they may draw conclusions about the benefits of higher education.

Part D. Reading Assignment

(1) Students will read the article named *The American Way: Education* (see Appendix 3-3) at home.

(2) Before student's reading this article, the teacher can introduce new words to them such as reason, elementary, youngster, tuition, academic, enroll, evaluate, absent, elective, plagiarism, and instill.

Lesson 3. Time Management. In this lesson, students will learn an important task to be successful in colleges - time management. Also, students will understand the English expression for the relative subjects in this lesson. Before reading the article about time management, students will have a self-assessment about how they do their own time management.

Part A. Self-assessment

(1) Students do the assessment (see Appendix 3-4) of time management individually in class.

(2) The teacher walks around the classroom to help students with new words or phrases which they do not understand.

(3) The teacher reminds students the higher the total score in the assessment they get, the more they need to work on time management skills.

Part B. Making Timetable and Master Plan
(1) Students make two photocopies for their timetable (see Appendix 3-5), one for a draft, one for the final edition to construct their timetable and master plan.

(2) Students fill in their scheduled commitments: classes, job, child care, and other activities.

(3) Then, students block out study hours according to their actual needs.

Part C. Pair Work - Practice Time Management

(1) Students view the "assignment preview" sheet in Appendix 3-6. Then they begin to structure a schedule allowing them time to finish all their assignments. Students need to be sure to find time during their hours on campus to study.

(2) In pairs, students write down what they found to be the main obstacles to their time management system. Each pair makes a list of the obstacles which each of students encountered during the week.

(3) In groups, students brainstorm strategies for overcoming these obstacles and share their opinions with the others.

Part D. Article Translation

(1) Students will translate article named *Follow a Routine* (see Appendix 3-7).

(2) In the next class meeting, they turn in the homework and discuss this article in groups.

Lesson 4. Note Taking and Taking Tests. This lesson introduces the
learning skills of note taking and taking tests. It also presents grammatical
rules about imperatives for giving advice or suggestions to someone.

Part A. Dialogue Listening and Grammar Tips

(1) The teacher presents the dialogue named "What's wrong with you?" (see Appendix 3-8) for students to listen for main idea.

(2) Again, The teacher presents the conversation line by line and explains the meaning for following expressions:

What's the matter? = What's wrong?

Do you know what you should do? = Here's my advice.

It really works! = It has very good results.

(3) Students practice the conversation in pairs.

(4) Students could practice the conversation again using their own words.

(5) The teacher presents the following three sentences and point out the correct position where "Don't" and "Be" are stressed.

Do the math exercise every day.

Don't be doodling during the lecture.

Be quiet!

(6) The teacher gives further practice on positive and negative imperatives by having one student in the class call out a positive imperative and another student turn it into a negative. For example:

S1: See me after class.

S2: Don't see me after class.
Part B. Text Reading - Taking Notes

(1) The teacher leads students to read the text (see Appendix 3-9) presenting tactics for taking notes.

(2) After students finishing reading this text, the teacher ask students to add some other skills which have been missed in the text.

(3) Students mark the new words on this text and practice them by making up sentences.

Part C. Text Reading - Test Taking

(1) The teacher leads students to read the text (see Appendix 3-10), introducing the skills for taking a test.

(2) Students share their test-taking experience in groups.

(3) Students will interview some other students about how to successfully take a test. In this activity, they have to interview three people and summarize their experiences and opinions about taking tests, then turn in the papers to the teacher in the next class meeting.

Part D. Quiz - Matching Problems with Advice

(1) The teacher introduces some problems needing advice and students work on matching the problems with the right advice in the following text.

Problems:

I don't know how to take good notes.

I have problem with scheduling time.

I am poor with goal setting.
I am always a slow reader.
I can't remember anything.

Advice:

a) Create an hour-by-hour weekly schedule.
b) Be interested. Pay attention. Consciously choose to remember.
c) Study for 30 minutes. Then take a 3-minute break.
d) Make all notes on loose-leaf paper.
e) Rewrite and combine your old notes.
f) Be a good listener.
g) Relate and form associations between the new information and old ideas.
h) Set target dates for self-evaluation of progress.
i) Make notes in the margins summarizing key points.
j) List potential obstacles to attaining the goal.
k) Read specifically to answer your questions

(2) Students can choose more than one piece of advice for each problem if appropriate.

Lesson 4. How to Deal with Stress? This lesson talks about how to deal with stress. Class will discuss how to deal with stress in their personal experiences. Meanwhile, students will practice English expression for relative topics.
Part A. Small Talk

(1) The teacher models the following dialogue and asks students to practice it in groups.

T: What should you do for stress?

S1: Talk it out with somebody else.

S2: You should take one thing at a time.

S3: I think you shouldn't be too hard on yourself.

(2) The teacher reminds students to apply what they have learned in this unit when giving suggestions.

(3) In addition to stress, students' leaders can also come up with some other problems to practice this task. One of the students in each group acts as a group secretary to write down suggestions or advice for the problems.

(4) Group secretaries report to the class their advice for the problem.

Part B. Listening Comprehension

(1) The teachers presents a listening dialogue about a worried mother (see Appendix 3-11) to the students.

(2) The teacher writes following questions on the board:

What does the customer want?

Why does she want this?

What does she buy?

(3) The teacher presents the text again. Students listen for the
answers on the board.

(4) The teacher presents the conversation line by line, and then explains that "He doesn't have any energy." = "He feels tired all the time."

(5) Students practice this dialogue in pairs.

(6) Students practice the conversation with their own words.

Part C. Text Listening - Dealing with Stress.

(1) The teacher presents the text (see Appendix 3-12) to the students. Students listen and write down keywords and phrases.

(2) The teacher may ask students about what they have heard in this presentation. The teacher may call out students' names to see what they get.

(3) The teacher would hand out this article and have students look up the new vocabulary, comparing it with the notes from the listening practice.

Part D. Writing - Protection from Stress

(1) Students write about their strengths according to the work sheet in Appendix 3-13.

(2) Students discuss their answers in groups.

Lesson 6. Support Services in American Colleges. Students in this lesson can get to know about the support services in American colleges. Students will learn the terminology about those facilities in American colleges.

Part A. Reading

(1) The teacher introduces the text in Appendix 3-14 about
support services in American colleges and has students read it without using a dictionary.

(2) The teacher encourages students to guess the meanings of new words while they are reading.

Part B. Making Flash Cards

(1) Students make flash cards for the terminology of campus services that appear in the text.

(2) Students use their own words to translate those campus services and write them down on lists.

Part C. Campus Visiting

(1) Before practicing visiting a campus, students make a list of types of campus support services or resources they might be interested in.

(2) Students in pairs visit one or two Taiwanese colleges find out if the campuses have the kind of support services in which they are interested.

(3) Students in pairs find out the parallel support services in Taiwanese colleges and revise their Chinese translation made in their flash cards.

(4) Students report back to the class about their visiting.

Part D. Oral Assessment

(1) The teacher circulates in the classroom and ask students problems about the English expressions which have been taught in this unit.

(2) The teacher keeps the record of students' performance in the assessment.
APPENDICES

Appendix 1-1

Family Relation Tree

Grandfather & 

father & 

self ; brother & 

nephew

Description of Family Relationship

a) My uncle's son is my __________.
b) My brother's daughter is my __________.
c) My brother's wife is my __________.
d) My father's sister is my __________.
e) My father's parents are my __________.
f) My mother's husband is my __________.
g) My mother's mother is my __________.
Appendix 1-2

Greeting Someone

A: How have you been?  B: Just fine, thanks.
A: How are things?      B: Great, thanks.
A: How are you doing?   B: Pretty good. And you?
A: How's the family?   B: Just fine.
A: Well, talk to you later.  B: Yeah, bye!
A: Well, nice talking to you. B: Yeah, see you later.
Appendix 1-3

Touchy Topics

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

But some things are personal or private, and questions about them are not polite. People don't ask questions about a person's salary. They don't ask how much someone paid for something. It is OK to ask children how old they are, but it is not polite to ask older people their age. It is also not polite to ask people questions about politics or religion unless you know them very well. People don't ask unmarried people "Why are you single?" and they don't ask a married couple with no children "Why don't you have any children?" (Richards, Hull & Proctor, 1990, p. 33)
Listening Dialogue

John: What do you do, Mary?

Mary: I'm a lawyer.

John: Really? Tell me about your family.

Mary: Well, I'm married and have two children.

John: And what does your husband do?

Mary: He has an export business.

John: Oh, that's interesting.

Mary: And how about you. Do you have any brothers and sisters?

John: Yes, I have a brother and a sister.

Mary: Really? And what do they do?

John: Well, my brother teaches French, and my sister drives a taxi.

Mary: No kidding.
Appendix 1-5

Social Facts about the American Family

Average size of a family in the United States: 3.2 people

Age when people marry: men - 25.5; women - 23.3

Percentage of people over 60 who live with a relative: 6.3 %

Percentage of families with 1 parents: 26 %

Percentage of people who live alone: 8.3 %

Average age of people who live alone: men - 41.4; women - 65.5 (Richards, Hull & Proctor, p. 29)
The American Family

The most common type of family in the United States is the nuclear family. The nuclear family is typically made up of two generations - parents and their still-dependent children. The typical family is middle-class, and there is usually some kind of equality between the husband and wife. Each family lives in its own separate residence, and it is not usual to share a house with one's grandparents or in-laws. American families are very mobile and are continually changing jobs and moving to other neighborhoods. It is estimated that an average American family moves about once every five years. The care of children in an American family is exclusively the responsibility of their parents, and children are taught to be independent at an early age. Adult children usually leave their parents' house and set up their own households even though they are not married.

The American family today is undergoing real change. For example, American families have fewer children today and some choose to have none. In addition, more mothers are working due to a combination of economic reasons and the changes is that millions of children are being brought up by one parent, usually the mother. Nevertheless, most divorced people remarry, and many of these remarriages include a child from a former marriage. Therefore, there are many new patterns of family life emerging in the United States. (Baskoff, 1984, p. 145)
Appendix 1-7  (Reading Assignment)

Amelia Earhat

In Kansas at the turn of the century, Edwin and Amy Earhart doted on their active daughters Amelia and Muriel. Edwin gave the girls footballs and rifles, while Amy shocked the community by dressing them in gym suits instead of skirts. Edwin’s job caused the family to move from town to town, and the girls’ interest in rough sports and shooting rats raised eyebrows wherever they went.

Amelia’s parents did not pressure her to reform as she grew older, even when she dabbled in the domains of science and automobile mechanics. But in 1920, when she went aloft at an air show and returned home determined to learn how to fly, even her liberal parents hesitated. They soon gave in, however, and within months Amelia was flying a Kinner Airster her mother helped her buy.

(Educational Testing Service, 1991, p. 18)
Appendix 1-8

Changes in the Chinese Family

It has been often observed by sociologists that "the family mores tend to lag in social changes," changing more slowly than the economic organization, social classes, political organization. The picture of family life in contemporary China fully corroborates this view.

Nevertheless, the Chinese family has changed. The changes have come in two ways: as a result of the new social and economic environment and the ideological influence of the West, the latter coming either through direct contact with the West or through the medium of modern Chinese schools, literature, etc., college education being the most potent medium of westernization. The environment is mainly - if not exclusively - responsible for the changes among the peasants and workers. They have heard very little, if anything, of modern ideas; but those who live in industrial cities or in rural districts where innovations have taken place and especially those who work in modern factories have seen their family life and relations changed by industrialization. As for the upper classes, those who live and work in the new environment have been mainly the owners of modern industrial, commercial, and banking enterprises and their higher employees, officials in the big cities, teachers, and professionals. They also have been exposed to modern ideological influences. These influences have also been an important factor in the modernization of those upper-class strata whose mode
of life and work has not essentially changed as, for example, landlords or owners of traditional workshops and commercial enterprises.

The greatest changes have taken place among those strata and individuals who live in the new environment and have been exposed to new ideas. Among the workers and peasants living in new conditions the changes in behavior preceded the changes in attitudes. With the members of the educated classes the changes in ideas and attitudes preceded changes in behavior. The workers and peasants often behave in new ways toward their parents, husbands, or children without realizing that they are repudiating the old Confucian rules; the young intellectuals often have new ideas about paternal authority, marriage, etc., without being able to put them into practice. (Lang, 1986, p. 336)
The Changing Position of Chinese Women

The modern women - factory workers, career women, and educated housewives - have won a position in family and society far superior to that of their grandmothers or of those of their own contemporaries who have continued to live under the old conditions. The modern wife is often her husband's equal and not infrequently has acquired a dominant position in the family. She has more influence on her children - she is less subjected to her mother-in-law. Women have successfully begun to combat polygyny.

All the women of China have profited from the modern trend that has banned the binding of feet and restored woman's freedom of movement. The seclusion of women and the rules concerning the separation of the sexes have begun to disappear. In the cities women are seen in all the public places: streets, markets, theaters. In the modernized strata - among the factory workers and modern intellectuals - the example set by the modernized women and the new attitudes of their husbands have helped to improve the position of those women who themselves were not modern - that is, those who have neither worked nor enjoyed a modern education.

Factory workers have often been "powerful in the family in spite of themselves" - their ideas and attitudes are the same as those of the women in olden times; they do not believe in woman's equality and long for a dominating
husband. Many women with modern education have been, in theory, ardent supporters of woman's complete emancipation and equality but have been unable to put any of their dreams into practice and in their families enjoy fewer rights than women factory workers. The greatest advances in family status have been made by those women who combined modern ideology with economic independence, that is, by career women and factory workers who have studied in progressive schools or taken part in modern organizations. (Lang, 1986, p. 338)
The Changing Position of Youth

China is no longer the country where the old man reigns supreme. His important function is society is passing. The young man achieves more prominence in political life, in business, everywhere. The relations in the family have begun to reflect this development. The children feel that they have not only duties but also rights. The small children are less obedient than they used to be in olden times.

In the educated classes many adolescents and youths, imbued with modern ideas, have conflicts with their parents over their right to marry whom they like, to choose their friends, their profession, amusements, and - above all - to participate in decisions concerning the fate of their country. The youth now not only have ethical and political ideas and values different from their parents' but often carry their ideas into practice in spite of their parents' opposition. Most important is that they do it with full conviction that they have the right to take their fate into their own hands and no longer recognize paternal authority as absolute. If they accept paternal advice, they do it because they accept paternal authority voluntarily.

Working in modern factories, studies in modern schools, and life in big cities enlarge the young people's knowledge and experience and enhance their prestige in the family - they are consulted much more frequently than their parents.
were at their age.

But despite all these changes children are still more obedient in China than in the West. Chinese high-school and college students have fewer overt disagreements with their parents than American youths of their age; the rule of obedience is even less frequently broken among peasants and works.

A peculiar characteristic of Chinese parent-child conflicts is that most of them - in accordance with the old Chinese tradition - do not end in a clear-cut victory for one side but in a compromise. (Lang, 1986, p. 337)
Activity Survey

In a week, I usually vacuum, do laundry, cook and clean for:

___ 1 hour ... 1 points. ___ 2-4 hours ... 3 points.
___ 3-5 hours ... 6 points. ___ 6-8 hours ... 8 points.

I look after children under age 8:

___ One child ... 5 points. ___ Two children ... 7 points
___ Three children ... 10 points. ___ Four children ... 15 points

I usually spend some time in the garden each week:

___ 1 hour ... 2 points. ___ 2 hours ... 4 points.
___ 3 hours ... 6 points. ___ 4 hours ... 8 points.
___ 5 hours ... 10 points.

My job keeps me on my feet each day for

___ 1 hour ... 2 points. ___ 2 hours ... 4 points.
___ 3 hours ... 6 points. ___ 4 hours ... 8 points.
___ 5 hours .... 12 points.

I work in a job such as carpentry, construction, farming or delivery,
which involves ___ hours a week of physical labor.

___ 5 hour ... 5 points. ___ 10 hours ... 10 points.
___ 20 hours ... 20 points. ___ 30 hours ... 30 points.

In an average week, I take aerobics, jazz exercise or dance
classes for:

___ 1 hour ..... 4 points.       ___ 2 hours ..... 8 points.
___ 3 hours ..... 12 points.      ___ 4 hours ..... 16 points.
___ 5 hours ..... 20 points.       ___ 6 hours ..... 24 points.

In an average week, I go out dancing just for fun for:

___ 1 hour ..... 4 points.       ___ 2 hours ..... 6 points.
___ 3 hours ..... 8 points.       ___ 4 hours ..... 12 points.

In an average week, I play tennis for:

___ 1 hour ..... 3 points.       ___ 2 hours ..... 6 points.
___ 3 hours ..... 8 points.       ___ 4 hours ..... 10 points.

In an average week, I walk for:

___ 1 hour ..... 6 points.       ___ 2 hours ..... 9 points.
___ 3 hours ..... 12 points.      ___ 4 hours ..... 18 points.

In an average week, I swim for:

___ 1 hour ..... 6 points.       ___ 2 hours ..... 10 points.
___ 3 hours ..... 15 points.      ___ 4 hours ..... 20 points.

I walk about ____ mile(s) a day to or from work:

___ 1 mile ..... 4 points.       ___ 2 miles ..... 8 points.
___ 3 miles ..... 12 points.      ___ 4 miles ..... 16 points.
___ 5 miles ..... 20 points.

In an average week, I spend ____ hours walking:

___ 1 hour ..... 4 points.       ___ 2 hours ..... 7 points.
__3 hours ..... 10 points.  __4 hours ..... 14 points.

In an average week, I run for:

__1 hour ..... 5 points.  __2 hours ..... 10 points.

__3 hours ..... 15 points.  __4 hours ..... 20 points.

In an average week, I play squash, handball or racquetball for:

__1 hour ..... 4 points.  __2 hours ..... 7 points.

__3 hours ..... 10 points.  __4 hours ..... 14 points.

In an average week, I run for:

__1 hour ..... 5 points.  __2 hours ..... 10 points.

__3 hours ..... 15 points.  __4 hours ..... 20 points.

In an average week, I use an exercise cycle for ____ hour(s):

__1 hour ..... 5 points.  __2 hours ..... 10 points.

__3 hours ..... 15 points.  __4 hours ..... 20 points.

In an average week, I run for:

__2 hours ..... 4 points.  __3 hours ..... 6 points.

__4 hours ..... 8 points.

In an average week, I play basketball, soccer or volleyball for:

__2 hour ..... 5 points.  __4 hours ..... 7 points.

__6 hours ..... 10 points.

In an average week, I play golf -- use a car for:

__2 hour ..... 3 points.  __4 hours ..... 6 points.

__6 hours ..... 9 points.
In an average week, I play golf -- walk for:

___ 2 hour ..... 5 points.  ___ 4 hours ..... 10 points.
___ 6 hours ..... 15 points.

Check your activity index:

1 - 7 points: Couch potato

8 - 16 points: Your activity level is about average. But your heart needs more exercise. Think about an aerobic activity like jogging, aerobic dance, or swimming.

17 - 30 points: Your activity level is above average. You are very active.

31 - 60 points: Congratulations! You are a real sport!

61 points or above: Take it easy. Slow down a little. You exercise too much. Be careful. (Cooper, 1988, p. 78)
Old Lady Reaches Great Heights

"You are only as old as you feel." How does that saying apply to Hulda Crooks?

Mount Whitney in California stands 14,494 feet (4,418 m) above sea level. That fact makes it the tallest peak in the continental United States. Hulda Crooks has climbed to its top 21 times.

That is an impressive feat. It is made even more impressive by the fact that Crooks didn't start mountain climbing until she was 66 - and that was 21 years ago. Then, six years later, at 72, she began jogging because "it make climbing so much easier."

Fellow hikers often stop Crooks along the trail, or politely interrupt during a water stop. The white hair, weathered face, and seemingly frail frame surprise them. They are even more surprised when the old lady turns out to have more energy and stamina than people one-third her age who thought themselves in excellent physical shape. Yet, when Crooks was in her early 30. she tired so easily that sometimes she found herself looking forward to an early death.

Crooks recalls herself as an overweight child growing up in Saskatchewan, Canada, who "munched on candy like an elephant." By the time she was 16, she was 5 feet (152 cm) tall and weighed 160 pounds (73 kg). She credits her marriage at 31 to Dr. Samuel Crooks to turning her life around. "He was a country
boy who'd bring me nature books to get me outside. I soon realized that I always felt good walking or working in the yard. Outdoors I was strong, but inside I wilted.

Crooks took to the mountain trails when her husband died shortly after his retirement and their only son died a few years later. She sought relief from sorrow in hiking and climbing.

"Sometimes I've had to battle high winds and icy trails. Some years it's been so cold, I've felt as if my face would crack if I smiled, but I've always made it to the top and back down. There's a sense of satisfaction when you're not defeated by difficulty."

At the height of the season, Crooks usually takes off up a mountain every two or three weeks, unless she chooses to hike on level ground. She has walked the 212-mile (314-km) John Muir Trail, toting a 24-pound (11-kg) pack.

Someone asked Crooks if she intended to slow down. "Slow down?" she replied. "What for? So old age can catch me?" (Bromberg, 1985, p. 28)
Appendix 2-4

Set 1

(1) Stand up. Put your feet apart. (2) Bend to the left and count to 10. (3) Stand up straight. (4) Bend to the right and count to 10. (5) Stand up straight. (6) Now lift your arms up straight. (7) Bend to the left and count to 10. (8) Bend to the right and count to 10. (9) Now put your arms down.

Set 2

(1) Put your feet together. (2) Put hands behind your back. (3) Put hands over your head. (4) Lift your left foot behind you. (5) Touch your toes. (6) Touch your right ankle. (7) Touch your left ankle. (8) Lower your left arm. (9) Lower your right knee. (10) Bend forward and touch the floor. (11) Bend forward and touch your knees. (12) Keep your arms straight. (13) Keep your back straight. (14) Bend your head to the left. (15) Hold your hands together. (16) Hold your hands together. (17) Hold your left foot with your right hand. (18) Sit down.
Leisure Time

Mike: Well! On my day off, I never get up before about noon.
And then, I just like sit around at home to watch some videos,
and may be pick some science fiction stories, something like
that.

Jane: Well! On my day off, I like to go to the gym in the
afternoon. And what I really like is lifting weights. Uhm! Of
course, that's partly because I want to lose five pounds by
the next month. And I also like to swim three times a week.

May: On my day off, I like to take long naps, but I am not
sleepy. I like to watch old movies on TV and read
magazines. I guess I just like to stay home and I don't like to
exercise much. (Richards, Hull & Proctor, p. 35)
Leisure Survey

1. How often do you ... (1) About once a week, (2) About once a month or (3) About once a year

   ______ go to a movie? ______ eat out?
   ______ go to the library? ______ go to a museum?
   ______ go to a sports event? ______ go to a concert?
   ______ go to a disco?

2. What kinds of spots do you play?

   _____ jog or run    _____ play tennis    _____ play handball
   _____ cycle          _____ play tennis    _____ play volleyball
   _____ bowl          _____ play tennis    _____ do karate
   _____ ski          _____ play tennis    _____ do other martial arts
   _____ swim         _____ play tennis    _____ other: _____

3. What kinds of exercise do you do?

   _____ do aerobics      _____ take a dance class
   _____ go to a disco    _____ work out in a gym
   _____ work out a home   _____ go hiding or backpacking
   _____ walk            _____ go rock climbing
   _____ work in the garden or yard  _____ do calisthenics
   _____ other   (Richards, Hull & Proctor, p107)
Appendix 2-7

(Quiz Questions)

a) What do you usually do on Saturday?
b) Do you go to the gym often?
c) How often do you jog?
d) Do you ever go skiing?
e) What kinds of sports do you play?
f) What other sports do you play?

(Selections)

a) _____ I don't usually do much. _____ Yes, I usually do.
b) _____ No, I often do. _____ Well, I sometimes do.
c) _____ Yes, I do. _____ About twice a week.
d) _____ Yes, once or twice a year. _____ How often do you go?
e) _____ I play tennis and I swim. _____ About twice a month.
f) _____ Yes, I often do. _____ Golf.

(Richards, hull & Proctor, p. 38)
The American Way - Sports

In many parts of the world, there are four seasons: spring, summer, fall and winter. In the U.S., there are only three: football, basketball and baseball. That's not completely true, but almost. In every season, Americans have a ball. If you want to know what season it is, just look at what people are playing. For many Americans, sports does not just occupy the sidelines. It takes center court.

Besides "the big three" sports, Americans play a variety of other sports. In warm weather, people enjoy water sports. Lovers of surfing, sailing and scuba diving flock to the ocean. Swimmers and water skiers also revel in the wet stuff. Fishermen try their luck in ponds, lakes and rivers. In winter sportsmen delight in freezing fun. From the first snowfall, skiers hit the slopes. Frozen ponds and ice rinks become playgrounds for skating and hockey. People play indoor sports whatever the weather. Racketball, weightlifting and bowling are year-round activities. For many people in the U.S., sports is not just for fun. It's almost a religion. Thousands of sports fans buy expensive tickets to watch their favorite teams and athletes play in person. Other fans watch the games at home, glued to their TV sets. The most devoted sports buffs never miss a game. Many a wife becomes a "sports widow" during her husband's favorite season. America's devotion to athletics has created a new class of wealthy people: professional athletes. Sports stars often receive million-dollar salaries. Some even make big
money appearing in advertisements for soft drinks, shoes and even toiletries.

Not all Americans worship sports, but athletics is an important part of their culture. Throughout their school life, Americans learn to play many sports. All students take physical education classes in school. Some try out for the school teams, while others join intramural sports leagues. Athletic events at universities attract scores of fans and benefit the whole community. Many people also enjoy non-competitive activities like hiking, biking, horseback riding, camping or hunting. To communicate with American sports nuts, it helps if you can talk sports.

Sports in America represents the international heritage of the people who play. Many sports were imported from other countries. European immigrants brought tennis, golf, bowling and boxing to America. Football and baseball came from other old world games. Only basketball has a truly American origin. Even today some formerly "foreign" sports like soccer are gaining American fans. In 1994 the U.S. hosted the World Cup for the first time ever.

Not only do Americans import sports, but they export sports fever, as well. Satellites broadcast games to sports fans around the globe. The World Series, the U.S. professional baseball championship, has begun to live up to its name. The names of American superstars like basketball great Michael Jordan have become household words the world over. Who knows? Sports seasons may even change world weather patterns. (Haselton, 1994, p. 14)
Appendix 2-9

How People in the United States Spend Their Time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Time (minutes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>prepare meals</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eat</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do housework</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do laundry</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>watch TV</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>talk to friends</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>read</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>play sports</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>walk</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Richards, Hull & Proctor, p. 34)
Sports and Recreation in Taiwan

Baseball, basketball, and golf

Baseball. Baseball has a fanatical following in Taiwan. Children around the island dream of becoming professional ballplayers. The 1993 professional season alone drew a record crowd of 1.6 million cheering fans, and a radio audience of some 200,000 listeners. Periodically aired on all three TV channels, the professional games with their gaudy fanfare and screaming crowds have inspired baseball mania.

The successful growth of Taiwanese professional baseball has had a positive effect on the island's amateur and youth leagues. There are more than 220 amateur teams and more than 1,000 little league teams in Taiwan today, whereas a few years back, there were only about 40 college squads.

Basketball. Basketball is another most popular sports in Taiwan. The first professional basketball games ever played in Taiwan have been broadcast on local TV station since April 28, 1994, but the event organizers say that Taiwan's first professional basketball league will not be officially inaugurated until November. The new league will be called the Chinese Professional Basketball Association and will feature five teams. Each team may have up to five foreign players, including mainland Chinese athletes.

Golf. Golf first came to Taiwan some eighty years ago and has gained in
popularity ever since. Taiwanese golfers have excelled in international golf, placing first in 20 Asian tournaments and winning more than 120 individual matches in Asian games since 1962. The 1980s were peak years for Taiwanese professional golf, and 1984 the Taiwanese team was ranked second in the 31st World Cup and International Trophy Championship. Performance on the international green however has dipped somewhat in recent years, arousing much concern in local golfing circles. To boost professional golf in Taiwan, the Professional Golfer's Association became an independent entity in August 9, 1993.

The year 1994 features the highest prize money - US$338,461 - ever in tournament golf in Taiwan. The 1994 Taiwanese PGA Championship and the Formosa Open PGA, which will take place in August, will be one of the major golf tournaments in Asia.

Recreation

So, what do you do for fun here, anyway? It's a common question asked by visitors when they first arrive in Taipei. The city appears exciting enough, but not exactly leisure friendly. Major thoroughfares are jammed with traffic and the sidewalks are crammed with people and parked motorcycles. Isn't there any place to go bike riding? jogging? Even take a stroll without weaving through a maze of clutter?

Taipei, like the island's other urban centers, actually has a very active leisure life. But it has a unique recreational style, one that has emerged as society
adapted to rapid urbanization. The biggest single shift is that recreation has become increasingly constrained by diminishing physical space and limited free time. Except for a handful of private companies, all businesses require employees to work at least a half-day on Saturdays. The long work week restricts leisure activities and leaves little spare time.

Another factor that reduces leisure time in the urban centers is traffic. In metropolitan Taipei, rush-hour traffic frequently triples normal commuting time. It can be even worse on holidays and weekends; during Chinese New Year, a one-hour drive to a neighboring town can easily extend to three or four hours. Thus, although Taiwan boasts five national parks, accounting for 8.5 percent of the island's land mass, many people don't dare try to reach them. A common travel horror story entails a family setting out for the beach or mountains early Sunday morning, only to turn around and come home after spending half the day stuck in unmoving traffic. And those who do reach a recreation area are likely to find the place so crowded that swimming or hiking is less then relaxing.

To attract patrons who work long hours, most leisure spots are open late into the night. Bookstores and clothing boutiques are commonly crowded with browsers until 10:00 P.M. On week nights, night markets are packed with people of all ages - even grandparents and kids - until long after midnight.

Eating out is a major social pastime. Treating friends and family to a bite to eat is probably the most popular entertainment islandwide. Most neighborhoods have a wide range of restaurants. An outing could include dinner at a chic
Japanese sushi bar or a simple snack purchased form one of the ubiquitous street vendors; the only rule is that no one eats out alone. (Academia Institute for Social Science, 1995, p. 468)
Appendix 3-1

**Differences in Average Monthly Earnings by Education Level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Level</th>
<th>Average Monthly Earnings</th>
<th>Increase Over Previous Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No high school diploma</td>
<td>$492</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school diploma</td>
<td>1,077</td>
<td>585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational training</td>
<td>1,237</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two years of college and an associate degree</td>
<td>1,672</td>
<td>435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor's degree</td>
<td>2,116</td>
<td>444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's degree</td>
<td>2,822</td>
<td>706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate degree</td>
<td>3,855</td>
<td>1033</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Gardner & Jewler, 1995, p. 12)
Appendix 3-2

Your Reasons for Attending College

Briefly list three reasons why you've entered college.

1. 

2. 

3. 

Which one of these three is the most important? In the space below, explain why this reason is the most important:

____________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________
Appendix 3-3

American Way: Education

On the first day of school, Johnny had a hard time getting out of bed. "Johnny, school!" warned his mother. "Aw, Mom, do I have to go to school?" Johnny complained. "Yes, son, summer is over, and the new school year is starting. You must go to school. And besides," reasoned Johnny's mother, "you're the teacher!"

This old American joke does have a ring of truth to it. American teachers and students alike enjoy their summer vacation. But don't let the humor fool you: education is a major part of American culture. Schools do more than just fill students' heads with knowledge. They pass on culture, traditions and values.

American children start their education in elementary school. Most youngsters enter first grade at around six years of age. Children can prepare for this step by attending preschool and kindergarten from ages three to five. Young learners finish elementary school in fifth or sixth grade. From there, students go on to junior high school until eighth or ninth grade. Americans complete their required education in high school. They graduate and receive a diploma after twelfth grade.

Beyond high school, Americans have many chances for further education. In contrast to other countries, the U.S. has no national college entrance exam. Instead, private companies give exams to students. Universities decide which
tests students must take. In addition to test scores, university officials also consider applicants' high school grades and other activities. Universities give scholarships and financial aid to help many who cannot afford the high tuition costs. Students with less academic goals may enroll in vocational schools or community colleges.

The American style of education, compared to that of other countries, is quite informal. In fact, the casual class atmosphere often amazes international students. American teachers encourage students to think for themselves. Instead of grading students only on test scores, teachers evaluate papers, group projects and class participation, as well. Students often have to think creatively to solve problems - not just memorize facts. Students also learn how to do research by using resource materials to find their own answers. In this way, classrooms illustrate the American emphasis on individual responsibility.

Freedom of choice is another American value not absent from school life. In addition to their required courses, high school and college students may choose elective courses. These electives allow students to study subjects that interest them. The menu of choices might include typing, band and home economics, as well as special academic classes. Other activities occupy students' time after school hours. Most schools have sports teams, clubs and publications that give students valuable experience.

The American system of education is far from perfect. Teachers in America fight to control cheating and plagiarism. Drugs, violence, sex and peer pressure
interfere with student's education. Test scores are declining. In light of these issues, American teachers have an important and challenging job. They must instill cultural and moral values, as well as knowledge, in young American citizens. Wake up, Johnny! You've got work to do! (Haselton, 1994, p. 18)
Assessing Your Skills

For each set of statements below, circle the number of the one that best describes you.

1. I like my watch to be set exactly at the correct time.
2. I like my watch to be set a few minutes ahead of the correct time.
3. Most of the time, I don't wear a watch.

1. I tend to arrive at most functions at least 5 minutes early.
2. I tend to arrive at most functions exactly on time.
3. I tend to arrive at most functions a little late.

1. In the course of my daily activities I tend to walk and talk quite fast.
2. In the course of my daily activities I tend to take my time.
3. In the course of my daily activities I tend to walk and talk slowly.

1. In high school I almost always completed my daily assignments.
2. In high school I usually completed my daily assignments.
3. In high school I often failed to complete my daily assignments.

1. I like to finish assignments and reports with a little time to spare.
2. I tend to finish assignments and reports exactly on the due dates.

3. I sometimes finish assignments and reports a little late.

1. I rarely spend more than 15 minutes at a time on the telephone.
2. I sometimes spend more than 15 minutes at a time on the telephone.
3. I often spend more than 15 minutes at a time on the telephone.

1. I rarely spend more than an hour eating a meal.
2. I sometimes spend more than an hour eating a meal.
3. I usually spend more than an hour eating a meal.

1. I never watch more than 1 1/2 hours of TV on a weeknight.
2. I sometimes watch more than 1 1/2 hours of TV on a weeknight.
3. I usually watch more than 1 1/2 hours of TV on a weeknight.

Now add up the numbers that you have circled: _____  
(Garner & Jewler, 1995, p. 60)
Appendix 3-5

**Timetable and Master Plan**

(1) List all class meeting times. (2) Try to reserve about one hour of daytime study for each class hour. (3) Reserve time for meals, exercise, free time. (4) Try to plan a minimum of one hour additional study in evenings or on weekends for each class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sun</th>
<th>Mon</th>
<th>Tues</th>
<th>Wed</th>
<th>Thurs</th>
<th>Fri</th>
<th>Sat</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6:00</td>
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</table>

*(Gardner & Jewler, 1995, p. 66)*
Appendix 3-6

**Semester Assignment Preview**

To see the "big picture" of your workload this quarter or semester, fill in the following assignment preview sheet, listing all tests, reports, and other deadline-related activities. (Gardner & Jewler, 1995, p. 66)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Course</th>
<th>What's Due</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Follow a Routine

Humans have a built-in biological clock that helps them establish a rhythm and routine. Some psychologists believe this natural rhythm is thrown out of sync when events conflict with our biological expectations.

Perhaps the best-known example of this problem is jet lag. Similarly many shift workers such as nurses and police officers are less productive and more lethargic and irritable as they adapt to new time schedules. Commuting students likewise may have time lag problems when they adjust their schedules to satisfy competing obligations or when block-scheduling requires them to vary their schedules. For example, if you study 2 hours every night Monday through Thursday, then engage in leisure activities during these times Friday through Sunday, you are likely to have trouble getting back into studying on Monday evening. Like the victim of jet lag, you confuse your body about whether it should study, play, or vegetate during this time of day. Likewise students who sleep in on weekends often find it hard to make it to Monday morning classes.

As a commuter you face more schedule challenges than the residential students. Keep your biological clock running smoothly by establishing as much routine as possible. (Gardner & Jewler, 1995, p. 78)
What's Wrong With You

John: Hi! You're not looking good! What's wrong!

Mary: Oh, I am upset about my grade.

John: Gee, what's the matter?

Mary: I just received my transcript for the spring quarter. I got an "F" for my math class.

John: Really? That's too bad! So, are you going to take it again next quarter?

Mary: Yeah! I am afraid I'm just not gonna make it.

John: Well, do you know what you should do to improve your grade? Schedule your time. Use the right study strategies and make a study plans. You will see it really works!

Mary: Ugh.
Tactics for Taking Notes

If you turn these tips and tactics into habits, your notes will be the envy of your classmates. Use these tips and tactics until they are second nature to you.

Telegraphic sentences. When you taking notes, use telegraphic sentences. Leave out unnecessary words. Use the key words only. Ignore rules of grammar. Write down a streamlined version of the lecturer's key points.

Modified printing style. You can give up your old way of writing and adopt the modified printing style. Your writing will be surprisingly rapid and amazingly clear. Anyone can adopt this style and use it to write neatly and clearly. If you have your own way of forming some of the letters, use it. What flows naturally form your pen or pencil will be swifter and easier than a forced change.

The two-page system. When you need to scramble to keep up with a fast-taking lecturer, you may find this two-page system helpful. Here’s the way it works: lay your binder flat on the desk. On the left-hand page, record main ideas only. The left-hand page is your primary page. On the right-hand page, record as many details as you have time for. Place the details opposite the main ideas that they support. After the lecture, remain in your seat for a few minutes and fill in any gaps in your notes while the lecture is still relatively fresh in mind.

The cassette and tape taboo. Do not use a tape or cassette recorder. If you do, you’ll be wasting time and not learning very much. When a lecture is on
tape you cannot review it in five or ten minutes; you have to replay the entire lecture. Worst of all, you cannot use the technique of reciting, which is the most effective learning technique known to psychologists. Furthermore, you also lose the advantage of visual learning - that is, seeing the words and seeing the relationship between the written ideas.

**No shorthand.** Don't take lecture notes in shorthand. Shorthand notes cannot be studied effectively while they are still in symbol form. Besides, shorthand symbols still have to be transformed into regular words. If you need a fast method to keep up with the lecturer, use the abbreviations and the symbols listed at the end of this chapter.

**No typing.** Scribbling is a bad habit. Write legibly the first time. Don't rationalize that you'll type your notes when you return to your room. Typing your notes is a waste of time, opportunity, and energy. You'll need almost a full hour to decipher and type one set of scribbled lecture notes. The hour you spend typing could have been extremely productive if you had spent it reciting notes taken during the lecture. Typing can exhaust you physically, mentally, and emotionally, leaving you unfit for the task of learning.

**The final barrage.** Pay close attention to the end of the lecture. Speakers who do not pace themselves well may have to cram half of the lecture into the last five or ten minutes. Record such packed finales as rapidly as you can. After class, stay in your seat for a few extra minutes to write down as much as you can remember.
**Instant replay.** As soon as you leave the lecture room, while walking to your next class, mentally recall the lecture from beginning to end. Visualize the classroom and the lecturer and any blackboard work. After mentally recalling the lecture, ask yourself some questions: What was the lecturer getting at? What really was the central point? What did I learn? How does what I learned fit in with what I already know? If you discover anything you don't quite understand, no matter how small, make a note of it and ask the instructor before the next class to explain it.

**Avoiding ice-cold notes.** During your first free period after class, or that evening at the latest, read over your notes to fill in gaps and to give yourself an overview of the lecture. Review your notes while the lecture is still fresh in your mind. Ice-cold notes are frustrating and are time wasters. Days after a lecture, you do not want to be gazing at your own writing and wondering, "What did I mean by that?" (Pauk, 1988, p. 137)
Taking Tests

Getting ready. Arrive at the examination room early, to get a good seat. Sit where the light is good for you; where the proctor will not disturb you as he or she paces up and down; where you can see the blackboard; and where there will be a minimum of distractions.

Do not sit near a friend. Friends are distractions. Any conversation before the exam is likely to interfere with the mindset you have developed for the exam. And, during the exam, you are likely to break concentration if your eyes meet those of your friends. If your friend leaves the room early, you may be tempted to leave early too, so you can discuss the exam. Finally, there is the danger of being accused of cheating because of a friendly but harmless word or smile.

If you feel tense before or during the exam, breathe in until your lungs feel completely full. Take a sudden, quick, extra breath through your open mouth. Let your breath out slowly. Repeat the three steps five, six, or seven times, depending on what feel right for you. They are hardly noticeable to others.

Listen carefully for additional instructions, before - and even after - you receive your copy of the exam. The instructions that are written on the examination itself are not always complete, or they may require clarification. If you have already received your copy, you may be tempted to read the exam, giving only half an ear to the spoken instructions. It pays to stop reading and listen,
because the proctor's oral instructions may change or even negate some
written instructions. You would, for example, be in hot water if you missed the
proctor's instruction to "Do only three out of the five essay questions."

If the directions are not clear, and the exam hasn't started yet, immediately
ask about them. Don't start any test with such a doubt in your mind. If the exam
has already started, and you have a question - specially about procedure - raise
you hand high. When the proctor comes to you, whisper your question.

**Answering the questions.** Before you answer any questions, read the
directions carefully. Then skim the entire exam, just enough to become slightly
familiar with the types of questions asked and to see how much weight is
assigned to each question. Next, quickly decide how much time you should
spend on each question. Finally, begin answering the questions, but do the easy
questions first. You will save time because you'll be able to get to work
immediately; you'll feel better about the exam once you put a question or two
behind you; and, with your thinking processes limbered and oiled, you'll be in a
good position to attack the harder questions.

Do not get upset when run into a question that you can't answer, and do
not sit and ponder the question forever. Both of these responses are time
wasters, and your time should be used for earning exam points. When you come
to a tough question, read it again carefully. If you can, quickly outline some kind
of logical or reasonable response and carry the response as far as possible,
hoping to get some credit for the effort. Then put the question and answer out
your mind, and go on to the next question. If you can't write anything at all, either because your memory is blocked or because you just don't know, go on the next question immediately. Return to the skipped question later.

You have use extra time to reread the questions, to make sure you understood the real intent of each one. You may want to change some of your answers. Research shows that students improve their scores by changing answers on objective tests after giving the questions more thought. So, after calm thought, if you think you should change an answer, do so. But don't change an answer simply because you are nervous about your original response. (Pauk, 1988, p. 251)
Appendix 3-11

A Worried Mother

A: How are you, Mrs. Chen?

B: Well, I'm fine. But I'd like something for my son. He doesn't have any energy these days. He's so nervous that he is gonna have a test next Friday.

A: Oh, that's too bad.

B: Can I have some multi-vitamins with vitamin E?

A: All right. Do you want a large or small bottle?

B: Could I have two large one, please?

A: Why yes, Mrs. Chen. Here you are.
Appendix 3-12

Specific Ways to Handle Stress

Sometimes, in spite of your best efforts, you will fall victim to stress. The National Association for Mental Health recommends five simple, specific actions that may help you when that happens. Remember as you read and visualize them that success will not come from a half-hearted effort, nor will it come overnight. You will need determination, persistence, and sensitivity. The results, however, will be worth your best effort, whether yours is an occasional mild upset or a problem that is more lasting and severe. The first one is "Talk it out." If a problem persists, don't afraid to look for help of others. Resident tutors, resident counselors, the health services, and peer advisers for these important services. Second one is "Escape for a while." Sometimes, when things go wrong, it helps to escape from the painful problem for a while, to lose yourself in a book or a game or to take a brief walk for a change of scene. But, remember it is not a way to solve the problem. The third action about handling stress is "Work off your anger." To make this powerful principle of psychology work for you, put on an act of supreme calmness. Miraculously, you'll gain instant and genuine inner calmness. If you act happy, you'll happy. If you act calm, you'll be calm. The fourth one is "Give in occasionally." Here is a practical way to avoid a stark confrontation. No matter how sure you are of a fact or idea, put yourself in a nonthreatening position. Fifth is "Do something for others." People with worries
need someone with whom they can share their trouble. Don't criticize or give advice; just listen and show that you care. (Pauk, 1989, p. 20)
Appendix 3-13

Protection from Stress

A. Feeling good about yourself can be an effective buffer against stress. Begin here by identifying some of your personal strengths.

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

Expand this into longer list of what you like about yourself, and keep the list in a private place. Every day, whether you feel the need or not, review your list and try to add a new positive thought about yourself to it.

B. Likewise it's important to eliminate unnecessary worries. Most of our worries are either passed on to us by other people or conjured up in our imaginations.

What are some of your current worries?

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

What can you do to eliminate one or more of them?

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

(Gardner & Jewler, 1995, p. 345)
Where to Go for Help - Typical College Support Services

College support services are not always located where you might think or named what you might expect. If you're not certain where to look for a particular service, there are several ways to begin. You might ask your academic advisor or counselor, consult your college catalog and phone directory, or call or visit the office of student services for assistance. The majority of these services are free.

**Academic Advisement Center.** Guidance about choosing classes; information on degree requirements.

**Academic Skills Center.** Improve study skills and memory skills, help on how to study for exams, and individual tutoring.

**Adult Re-Entry Center.** Programs for returning students, supportive contacts with other adult students, and information about services such as child care.

**Career Planning and Placement.** Career materials library; career interest assessments; career goal counseling; computerized guidance programs; assistance finding a major; full-time, part-time, co-op, and internship campus job listings; opportunities for graduating students to interview with employers; and help with resume and job interview skills.

**Chaplains.** Worship services, fellowship, and personal counseling.

**Commuter and Off-Campus Services.** Listings of nearby available housing, roommate listings, orientation to the community, maps, information on
public transportation, baby-sitting lists, and so forth.

**Counseling Center.** Confidential psychological counseling on personal and interpersonal concerns ranging from roommate problems to prolonged states of depression, and programs on managing stress.

**Financial Aid and Scholarship Center.** Information about financial aid programs, scholarships, and grants.

**Health Center and Enrichment Services.** Tips on personal nutrition, weight control, exercise, and sexuality; Information on substance abuse programs and adult children of alcoholics syndromes; and general health care, often including a pharmacy.

**Housing Center.** Assistance in locating on or off campus housing

**Legal Services.** Legal services for students (if your school is affiliated with a law school, check to see whether senior students in the law school are available for counseling).

**Math Center.** Help with math courses.

**Physical Education Center.** Free or inexpensive facilities for exercise, recreational sports facilities and equipment for swimming, racket sports, basketball, archery, weight training, dance, and so on.

**Physically Challenged Student Services.** Support in overcoming physical barriers or learning disabilities.

**Writing Center.** Help with writing papers and reports.

(Gardner & Jewler, 1995, p. 17)
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Association for Bilingual Education.


MARINE CORPS SUBCULTURE

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

by
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Early sociological literature on subcultures was formed and directed by the work of Albert K. Cohen. Cohen (1955) proposed that gang subcultures were the result of ineffective family supervision, the breakdown of parental authority, and the hostility of the child toward the parents.

In The Subculture of Violence (1967), Wolfgang and Ferracutti proposed that violent activity among humans is responsive to specific sets of circumstances, in which violence becomes the expected reaction to certain environmental stimuli. Wolfgang and Ferracutti’s work focused primarily on deviant subcultures, with criminal members.

More recent literature has focused on "occupational subcultures" created by the jobs people perform. These subcultures are not necessarily criminal or deviant, however, they still have many of the characteristics of the criminal subcultures such as shared sentiments, beliefs, and customs.

The purpose of this thesis is to provide another type of assessment of the subculture, specifically; an in-depth
analysis of the subculture within the United States Marine Corps. This analysis attempts to bring the traditional literature of criminal subculture and the subculture of violence together with more recent literature of occupational subculture to explain many of the behaviors exhibited by Marines. This study questions whether domestic violence rates within the Marine Corps are an example of some of the deviant activities identified by the more traditional subculture literature.

This thesis concludes that the United States Marine Corps is a subculture of violence according to the traditional research on subcultures presented by many early scholars. Further, the Marine Corps has many of the characteristics discussed in more recent findings on occupational subcultures. The prevalence of violence is demonstrated by the high rates of domestic assaults. This thesis suggests that the Marine Corps must take steps to foster an environment which does not condone violence in family settings and introduces broader training situations which are not limited to wartime scenarios.
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CHAPTER ONE

Marine Corps and Subculture Theory

INTRODUCTION TO SUBCULTURE THEORY

People who form a unique group within a given culture are called a subculture (Kappler, Blumberg, & Potter, 1993). The sociological definition of subculture is a group of peers who share many characteristics of society, but have separate, distinct values that make them unique as compared to the larger culture (Kappler, Blumberg, & Potter, 1993; p. 141).

Early sociological literature on subcultures was formed and directed by the work of Albert K. Cohen. His book, Delinquent Boys (1955), focused on how a delinquent subculture could begin (Williams & McShane, 1994). Cohen's work studied juvenile gangs, describing them as "malicious," and "negativistic." Cohen (1955) proposed a definition of gang subculture where its members are the result of ineffective family supervision, the breakdown of parental authority, and the hostility of the child towards the parents.

Cohen proposed that juveniles join gangs to achieve a status that they can not achieve in the larger, more
dominant culture. Cohen believed that when juveniles become frustrated because they cannot achieve a respectable status in the middle class world, the gang becomes a solution. The gang can quickly provide them a status. This status is easily achieved in comparison to the effort it would take to assimilate into the dominant culture.

Subculture implies that there are value judgements or a social value system which is apart from and a part of a larger or central value system (Wolfgang & Ferracutti, 1967). In a subculture, certain types of conduct are expected. The way a person is to act under certain circumstances becomes the rule, or the norm. These rules are called conduct norms. Conduct of an individual is, then, an external exhibition of sharing in values (Wolfgang & Ferracutti, 1967).

The purpose of this thesis is to provide another type of assessment of the subculture, specifically, an in-depth analysis of the subculture within the United States Marine Corps. This analysis attempts to bring the traditional literature of criminal subculture together with the more recent literature of occupational subculture discussed in chapter two to explain many of the behaviors exhibited by Marines.

Some studies have concluded that basic training in the
military can result in the transfer of violent responses to family interactions (Eisenhart, 1975). The Marine Corps domestic violence rate, when compared to the other services, is an example of this. Chapter three uses the Marine Corps' domestic violence rate as an example of how the Marine Corps fosters an environment for its Marines that creates a subculture of violence.

MILITARY SUBCULTURE

An example that seems to accurately exhibit characteristics of a subculture is the United States Armed Forces. The conduct norms of the military are very distinct and different than the rest of society. Also, with the conversion to an all volunteer force, the U. S. military has lost many of the characteristics that had previously made the military installation a community and it began to take on features characteristic of modern industrial occupations (Segal, Lynch, & Blair, 1979). The military is no longer a calling, but an occupation.

Recruits undergo a personal transformation during basic training. There, they receive more than just training, they are ingrained with a sense of service, honor, and discipline. It is at boot camp that the conduct norms of the military begin to take form. All hair is shaven from each recruit's head, all personal effects are taken away, and the values of the subculture begin to be
instilled. The self-interest of the individual becomes second to that of the institution they come to know as the military. Service members become convinced they are selective, better, and above all, different.

The military is the nation's force in readiness. This belief is perpetuated through training as well as fostered by the media and the entertainment industry. Many motion pictures as well as newspaper and magazine articles reinforce what the military is supposed to be and how its members are supposed to act. Almost all of them send the same message: service members are supposed to be tough and aggressive.

The effect of the media and entertainment industries on the image of service members was explored by James William Gibson in Warrior Dreams: Paramilitary Culture in Post-Vietnam America (1994). Gibson evaluated and critiqued several films made during the late 1970s and 1980s, mostly action-adventure films, and described how they created and communicated an American war culture. In these films service members are nearly always portrayed as virtuous defenders of a just cause, and war seems safe, even attractive (Gibson, 1994). Gibson refers to such films as Rambo, Dirty Harry, Patriot Games, and Lethal Weapon to show how the violence of war is glamorized and paints a picture that is not representative of the actual
destructive nature of military combat.

In the military, great emphasis is put on its members to conform to the conduct norms of the subculture. A military unit, regardless of size, is a disciplined family structure, with similar relationships based on mutual respect among members. It is believed that issues and problems which tend to lessen a units' effectiveness must be addressed and resolved. If a service member is having troubles, and those troubles affect the performance of the unit, he or she will receive pressure from the unit to resolve the issue. This pressure may lead to increased frustration, aggression, and ultimately, violence.

The subculture of the military is not isolated to just the service member. Each and every member of a service person's family is also within the military subculture. Military families are subjected to many of the same experiences as their civilian counterparts, however, military families experience stressors unique to their particular situation.

Low pay, having dependents to support, and the high cost of housing today create a great deal of pressure in many military families lives. For example, a service person just out of basic training in 1994 earned $854.40 per month, which is $213.35 per week, and $10,994.20 annually (Marines, 1994). Military spouses may feel the
need to contribute financially to offset the low pay. However, spouses often face a difficult challenge when they try to seek employment. Because of the frequency of relocating, spouses are often unable to establish careers. This may create a significant amount of friction and resentment in a relationship. Not being able to contribute financially may develop low self-esteem in some spouses, they may feel even more trapped, and dependent on their spouse.

Sixty-one percent of all military members have a family (U.S.D.O.D., 1993). Both during basic training and tours of duty, military men and women are separated from family members for extended periods of time. This separation may make a parent less involved in the lives of the children, as well as less involved in the relationship with their spouse. Additionally, reunification can be as stressful as it is joyful.

Packing up your possessions and moving to another town may be stressful for anyone. It often means leaving friends behind and no longer having the support of family members. Mobility may also involve additional expenses which can exacerbate an already stressful financial situation.

Military personnel often feel isolated from their family because of long hours and temporary separations.
Service members and their families are also physically isolated from the surrounding communities, living on installations, behind fences, and inside of gates usually maintained by armed guards. Further, communication barriers add to an already frustrating lack of contact with family members. During basic training and tours of duty, the isolation and communication barriers are at their greatest.

Many military men who have served overseas have married women from other countries, which introduces culture and life-style differences and creates additional barriers to communication. This usually includes lack of support from friends and family for the spouse, which in turn creates more dependence on the relationship. The military family is isolated and removed from their hometown where other family members and friends can provide emotional support. When the military family travels or is transferred overseas, many problems similar to those discussed above can create stress within the family: isolation, lack of support from friends and family, difficulties in acculturation, and increased physical and emotional dependency on the relationship.

The activities of a military member are closely monitored by his or her superiors. During basic training, field maneuvers, and combat situations, service members
live and work together. Their activities are continually supervised. If there are problems at home or at work, the commanding officer usually knows about them.

Many in the military describe a double message they receive from command or the military system in general. The first message, "Your family is recognized in that we will offer services for family members to help you keep everyone healthy and happy at home." On the other hand, the second message is, "When it comes right down to it, your work is more important than your family. We really do not want you to bother us about them." Of course, the degree to which these messages are expressed varies from commander to commander; however, the consensus is that these dual messages do exist in one form or another.

In recent years, there is increased stress due to the uncertainty associated with force drawdown. As of December 31, 1994, the services had a combined strength of 1,584,232 people on active duty, which was 8,132 fewer than November and about 91,000 fewer than in 1993 (Navy Times, 1995; p. 28). The Presidio Base Closure Evaluation (1992) found that over the last four years many civilian jobs have been cut and military members have been called in as replacements, often in understaffed offices and in jobs for which they had no previous training. Increased pressures and future uncertainty place stresses on families. The
Presidio report found that these stresses often take their
toll in incidents of family violence, child abuse, and
alcohol and drug abuse. Additionally, when civilian jobs
are cut, military members become even more isolated and
less integrated with the civilian communities.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE MARINE CORPS SUBCULTURE

With deployment rates far above those of the other
services and an increase in small, urban conflict
throughout the world, the Marine Corps, in particular, is
even more vulnerable to these unique stressors. In 1993,
seventy-eight percent of all officers and sixty-eight
percent of all enlisted Marines were away from their
families for over thirty days. Marine Corps spouses are
especially young, with one-third between the ages of
seventeen and twenty-four. Sixty-eight percent of all
Marine Corps families have children under the age of
eleven, and Marine Corps families move more frequently than
the other services, about every 2.4 years (Marines, 1994).

The Marine Corps presents a unique opportunity to
analyze both the traditional and more recent research on
subculture. Being a Marine is an occupation, and the
Marine Corps subculture is truly an occupational subculture
with common attitudes and beliefs created by the job.
Being a Marine is a distinct identity because of the
character of the Corps.
Subculture theory in general, and more specifically the subculture of violence theory, help explain how violent activity among humans is responsive to specific sets of circumstances. The behavior is learned and shared in a cultural setting, and violence becomes the expected reaction to certain environmental stimuli (Shoemaker & Sherman, 1987). Marvin E. Wolfgang and Franco Ferracutti developed a theoretical framework for the theory in their book, *The Subculture of Violence* (1967). Violent subcultures place positive value on the use of violence to resolve personal problems.

The subculture of violence theory is an attempt to explain violence among specific categories of people who are thought to exhibit particularly high rates of violence. Wolfgang and Ferracutti suggest that a subculture of violence is likely to exist among societies that are characterized by "machoism," or the equation of maleness with aggression, and societies that are characterized by "frontier mores," where the rule of "gun and fist" are idealized.

**DISPERSION AND HOMOGENEITY**

Subcultures are characterized by lack of dispersion. Subcultures are often isolated in certain geographic areas, with definite boundaries. When one lives and works upon a military installation, they are removed from the dominant
culture, they are geographically separated from the general public. Although Marines and their families are stationed around the world, as figure one demonstrates, when compared to the other services, the Marine Corps is unquestionably much less dispersed. Figure one shows that the Marine Corps has only 18 installations, as compared to 82 for the Army, 86 for the Navy, and 97 for the Air Force.

The Marine Corps is much smaller than any of the other services, with 174,507 personnel, which is less than half of any of the other services (Figure 2). The small population demonstrated in figure two suggests that the Marine Corps may be less socially active than the other services, particularly when one considers that this small number of Marines is only dispersed throughout eighteen installations world-wide.

The lack of dispersion and small population demonstrated in figures one and two makes the Marine Corps less socially integrated in the larger surrounding community and perhaps much more socially inactive than any of the other services. Marines will meet fewer people and be stationed at fewer installations than any of the other service members. Marines and their families have a much better chance of being stationed at the same base several times throughout a Marine’s career. Marines and their
FIGURE 1
TOTAL NUMBER OF INSTALLATIONS

USMC  ARMY  NAVY  AIR FORCE

FIGURE 2
ACTIVE DUTY MILITARY

families are much more likely to live near and to meet and work with the same people time and time again.

The Marine Corps is the only service to have twenty-four hour a day military police presence at the entrances to all of their installations. This "closed gate" policy leads to lack of socialization with the surrounding civilian communities, further isolating Marines and their families. This sends a message that the Marine Corps is interested in keeping those not in the subculture away from those who are.

It is in homogeneity that the subculture has strength and durability (Wolfgang & Ferracutti, 1967). Members of a subculture are most often very similar with regard to race, ethnicity, and gender. The most obvious characteristic of homogeneity within the Marine Corps is the fact that it is almost entirely male. In 1994, the representation of women in the Department of Defense Armed Forces was twelve percent. The Marine Corps had by far the lowest percentage of women (4.3%), while the Air Force had the highest (15.3%) (Figure 3). The Marine Corps' low percentage of women demonstrated in figure three makes it much more homogeneic than the other services.

The overwhelming majority of Marines are concentrated in the lower pay grades, with eighty-three percent of enlisted Marines between the paygrades of E1 to E5. The
FIGURE 3
PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN IN THE SERVICES

evidence linking crime and economic inequality is strong, particularly when analyzing the subculture of violence. Marvin Wolfgang’s study of youth crime in Philadelphia found that when the city’s youths were divided into two groups of higher versus lower socioeconomic status (SES), the youths with the lower SES committed substantially more criminal activity (Currie, 1985).

The military is clearly a subculture in the most traditional sense. In the Marine Corps, behavior is developed as a result of learning and adjusting to the environment produced by the Marine Corps. From the minute a recruit steps off the bus at recruit training until the day he/she is discharged (and probably even after that), this environment is unavoidable.

The Marine Corps has the characteristics of a subculture of violence (such as its homogeneity with regard to age, sex, income, and lack of dispersion). This chapter suggests that as traditional subculture research indicates, the subculture of the Marine Corps has the potential to cause deviant activities. The problem being investigated is how the violent training of Marines effects the lives of Marines and their families, and in turn, how that effects the mission of the Marine Corps.
CHAPTER TWO

Related Sociological Perspectives

There are several theories and perspectives that are related to the subculture of violence theory that help explain and define violent subcultures and their characteristics. This chapter reviews this literature and attempts to show how the Marine Corps has many of the characteristics commonly found in some of the related violent subculture theories and perspectives.

FRUSTRATION-AGGRESSION HYPOTHESIS

One explanation of why violence occurs in a subculture is based on the theory that frustration often provokes an aggressive response. The occupation of soldiering can be much more frustrating than that of civilians, as noted in chapter one. Steinmetz and Straus (1974) found that the more normal the aggressive behavior is defined within the occupational role, the greater amount of violence there will be. Aggression is the essence of the Marine Corps. The inherent nature of Marine Corps operations and training requires that Marines have the ability to behave aggressively. This is explained perfectly in the mission of the Marine Corps rifle squad: "To locate, close with,
and destroy the enemy by fire and maneuver (FMFM 1-0)."
From boot camp on, at every level of training, Marines are taught aggressiveness. This pro-aggressiveness attitude is reinforced from the very top of the rank structure to the very bottom. For example, in a recent interview, Sergeant Major Lewis G. Lee, the Sergeant Major of the Marine Corps (the highest ranking enlisted Marine) said, "Marines are naturally aggressive, and we have to encourage that (Navy Times, 1994)."

ENVIRONMENTAL THEORIES

According to environmental theories, the environment that the Marine Corps creates for its Marines may be one of the causes of the subculture of violence. Every service is based on discipline, honor, and obedience to orders. However, the Marine Corps, in particular has a world renowned reputation as being the most disciplined and demanding of all the services.

The slogan, "First to fight," has appeared on Marine recruiting posters ever since World War One. "Leathernecks," the Marines' long standing nickname was bestowed upon Marines because the original Marine uniform had a leather neck piece which protected the neck from sword slashes. "The Scarlet Trouser Stripe," worn by officers and noncommissioned officers is in honor of Marine officers and noncommissioned officers who were killed or
wounded during the battle of Chapultepec during the Mexican War. "Band of Brothers," this slogan recognizes that a brotherhood concept depends on all members belonging. These slogans and traditions are just a few examples of the environment which is commonplace throughout the Marine Corps and helps to create and encourage aggressive behaviors.

The primary goal of Marine Corps leadership is to instill in all Marines the fact that they are warriors first (FMFM 1-0, 1995). Marines are taught that the only reason the United States of America needs a Marine Corps is to fight and win wars. Everything else is secondary. Feared by enemies, respected by allies, and loved by the American people, Marines are a "special breed" (FMFM 1-0). It is these guiding beliefs and principles that influence Marines attitudes, and regulate their behavior.

This matter of being different than any of the other services is at the very heart of the Marine Corps. A sense of elitism has grown from the fact that every Marine, whether enlisted or officer, goes through the same training experience. Only the Corps requires uniform training for all its members. Both the training of recruits and the basic education of officers have endowed the Corps with a sense of cohesiveness enjoyed by no other American service. The determination to be different has
manifested itself in many ways over the years, but most of all, to an unyielding conviction that Marines exist only to fight.

**SYMBOLIC INTERACTIONISM**

Symbolic interactionism maintains that it is not possible to understand crime merely by studying criminals, nor can one study violence without considering the environment that develops the aggressive behaviors (Vold, 1979). Therefore, one who is considered deviant in a given society depends very much on the society itself.

In the Marine Corps, violent, aggressive behaviors are not considered as deviant as in society as a whole. Marines are taught to act and behave in violent, aggressive ways and these behaviors are positively reinforced, supported, and rewarded. Furthermore, non-aggressiveness represents a clear and present danger (Eisenhart, 1975).

In symbolic interactionism, meaning is regarded as the central concept in the explanation of behavior, and the influence of the psychology of sociological conditions must be assessed in terms of the meaning those conditions have for the individual (Vold, 1979). To a Marine, violent behavior "means" less than it does to others. Military basic training, in general, creates those meanings. The plausibility of this hypothesis was explored by Ekman, Frieson, and Lutzker (1961) who, while studying
psychological reactions to infantry basic training, administered the MMPI to recruits in the first, fourth, and eighth weeks of basic training. The change in the shape of the profiles suggests that aggressive, impulsive, and energetic features became more prominent, and that recruits became less prone to examine their own responsibility for conflicts, and more ready to react aggressively (Ekman, Frieson, & Lutzker, 1962). This study was administered to only Army recruits; however, the psychological agenda of aggression is more clearly etched and blatant in the Marine Corps (Eisenhart, 1975).

Individual action is a construction and not a release, being built up by the individual through noting and interpreting features of the situation in which he acts (Blumer, 1969). Marines "construct" a definition of aggression that is tolerant of violence, and this definition, over time and continuous reinforcement, becomes real. Certain types of behavior begin to symbolize aggressive behavior. These symbols, or interpretations, define violence and aggression as acceptable acts. This interpretation is not an automatic response, it is formulated through self-interaction. When a Marine is engaging in an act, he interprets the act and develops a meaning for it. With regard to violence, the Marines' meaning is that it is acceptable.
Society's reaction to an individual's behavior is the most important element of symbolic interactionism. If society reacts positively to an individual's behavior, the individual is more likely to continue acting in that manner. The Marine Corps subculture responds favorably to aggressive, violent behaviors. Aggressive behaviors may be further instilled during training scenarios that require aggressive behaviors. Eisenhart (1975) illustrates this with what he was told as a recruit on the bayonet field upon his last lesson, "The next time you are in a bayonet fight, one of you will die and that will be the one who is not aggressive enough".

CORRECTIONAL BOOT CAMPS

Correctional boot camps offer an opportunity to demonstrate how military style boot camps help create the subculture of violence. Correctional boot camps generally involve a short period of incarceration with an intensive regimen very similar to military boot camps. However, the "recruits" are offenders, usually first time offenders and emphasis is on strict discipline, physical training, drill and ceremony, military bearing and courtesy, physical labor, and punishment for minor misconduct. The idea is to turn lawbreakers into disciplined, authority respecting men (Morash & Rucker, 1990).

The important element for the current discussion is
that correctional boot camps offer the opportunity to study whether boot camps alone lay a foundation that sets the stage for a subculture of violence. Although correctional boot camps do not provide training in the use of weapons, and/or physical assault, they promote an aggressive mode of leadership and conflict dominated style of interaction that could exacerbate tendencies toward aggression (Morash & Rucker, 1990).

Studies of correctional boots camps indicate that at the very least, military boot camps do not make offenders any less violent than they were before the boot camp. An evaluation of two-hundred eighty-one graduates of a Florida correctional boot camp found little difference between their performance and a control group: twenty-five percent were rearrested over the next twenty-five months, compared with twenty-eight percent of the control group (Walker, 1994).

Further research will tell us more about the effectiveness of correctional boot camps. However, for purposes of the current discussion, there are differences between correctional boot camps and military boot camps that renders them incomparable. Correctional boot camp graduates often return to the same neighborhoods with the same bleak prospects and delinquent peers that may have led to their initial arrests (Walker, 1994). These
neighborhoods are often characterized by bad economies and high crime rates. Although not by design, a correctional boot camp offers nothing positive at the end, while military boot camps offer entry into a career. Most importantly, military boot camps offer entry into the military subculture, where the aggressive behaviors taught at boot camp are rewarded and supported, while correctional boot camp graduates return to neighborhoods, where the positive aspects of their experiences are negated by peers and family.

The message being sent in correctional boot camps is, "Play the game and you get out early" (Salerno, 1994). Offenders know that all they need to do is get by and they will be free at an earlier date. In military boot camps, however, recruits view their harassment as necessary to accomplish some worthwhile goal (Salerno, 1994).

OCCUPATIONAL SUBCULTURES

"Occupational subcultures" are subcultures created by the jobs people perform. These subcultures are not necessarily criminal or deviant; however, they still have many of the same characteristics as criminal subcultures such as shared sentiments, beliefs, and customs.

Occupational subcultures do not have geographical boundaries as do many delinquent subcultures, they are more often bordered by the job. Police and correctional officer
subcultures are examples of occupational subcultures. A common value that both police and correctional officer subcultures share is bravery. The potential to become the victim of a violent encounter, the need for support by fellow officers during such encounters, and the legitimate use of violence all contribute to a subculture that stresses the virtue of bravery (Kappler, Blumberg, & Potter, 1993). Similar to military personnel, police and correctional officers must insert themselves into dangerous and violent situations and encounters that ordinary citizens are not required to do (Singer, 1993).

All occupational groups undergo a socialization process, through informal gatherings such as "coffee pot stories" or "scuttlebutt." However, few occupational groups rival the intensity with which the Marine Corps develops the subculture of violence. Few occupational groups can compare to the regimented system by which the Marine Corps instills its conduct norms. Military sociology is unique and different.

The occupation of police officer, however, does have very similar characteristics to those of the military subculture. A very important similarity between the military subculture and police subculture is that both occupations require an intense training evolution prior to obtaining the job. The military has its boot camp and the
police have their academy. Both are isolated, intense programs where the conduct norms of the subculture begin to be taught.

Part of the controversy in occupational subculture literature is whether personality traits of the members are similar prior to indoctrination, or developed on the job. As stated earlier, Ekman, Friesen, & Lutzker (1960), found similar aggressive behaviors among military recruits. Similarly, Reiss and Bordua (1967) report many significant differences on personality trait scores between a group of police recruits at the beginning of training, but few significant differences in comparison with a group of experienced police officers. Moreover, the recruits scores were similar across four geographically separated cities. These findings suggest that in both the military and the police, personality traits, attitudes, and beliefs are developed as a result of the occupation.

The police are a generally homogenous group and, as in the military, women are not represented in police work in proportion to their percentage of society. In 1985, women constituted five percent of the police work force while constituting fifty-one percent of the population (Garrison, Grant, & McCormick, 1988, p.34).

Studies show that in both the military and in police work, the central problem women face comes from their male
counterparts. Janus, Lord, & Power (1988) found sixty-nine percent of women police officers reported the public's attitude toward them was the same or equally supportive as their male contemporaries. However, less than perfect relations with male officers were revealed, with fifty-five percent reporting that they had been assigned a demeaning detail solely because they were women (Janus, Lord, & Power, 1988, p.126).

Similar to the findings of women in police work, Larwood, Glasser, & McDonald (1980) found that women were viewed as less reliable than men in nontraditional military specialties. Further, they found that the longer men are in the military, the more negative they became toward women.

Both the military and police lack females in command positions. In 1994, only two percent of all general officers were female, and the Marine Corps had only one female general officer (Marines, 1994). Warner, Steel, & Lourich (1989) found that among more than two hundred cities studied, representation of women on city councils plays a major independent role in estimating the level of utilization of women as police officers. They found that the higher the percentage of women on city councils, the higher the utilization rate for women officers.

Police officers are isolated because their work
carries into their off duty hours. Some people may not socialize with police because of the jobs they perform. Police show an unusually high degree of solidarity, which stems from the dangers associated with the job. The conclusion reached here is that the personalities of police officers differ from the rest of the population in many of the same ways as the military subculture.

While the military subculture and the police subculture seem to have many like characteristics, one distinct difference is significant. Research on the police subculture is rather extensive, while the military subculture has been practically ignored. Police researchers identified the problems created by the subculture, and many departments have used those research findings to develop programs that deal with the problem. Community-oriented policing has helped create a better relationship between the police and the communities for which they serve. Physical ability tests and entrance standards have been changed to make the requirements equal for all applicants. Affirmative action programs have allowed more minorities and women to fill the ranks.

As more research on the military subculture is established, perhaps the Department of Defense will also be able to establish policies and standards that will help ease the troubles faced by service members and their
families. This is particularly important in the face of studies such as Segal, Lynch, & Blair (1979) which indicates satisfaction among members of the armed forces is significantly lower than that of civilians.

Correctional officers also possess a distinct subculture that is similar to the military subculture. Kauffman (1988) interviewed correctional officers at three different correctional facilities and found characteristics similar to those discussed here describing military subcultures. The officers considered group solidarity essential not only to the accomplishment of shared goals, but also to their very survival as individuals. As a group, they were willing and able to bring considerable pressure on members to conform. The demographic characteristics of correctional officers are also similar to that of the military. Kauffman (1988, p.24) found most of the officers she studied were young, white men who had no formal education beyond high school.

In chapter one, it was noted that military life presents several stressors unique to members of the military and their families. Some of these stressors were low pay, family separation, isolation, and lack of support from the institution of the military. Long, Shoudsmith, Voges, and Roache (1986) studied correctional officers and compared them to a control group of Army personnel. A
conclusion which may be reached from the findings of this study is that correctional officers produce significantly more stress reactions than does a group of Army personnel. This is an interesting finding in light of the fact that there are several similarities between the two professions. Many prisons are located in remote, rural areas, and often times the officers and their families live in the same neighborhoods. There may even be special living arrangements where only prison staff can live in a specific neighborhood. This is very similar to the military installation. Much like the military, prison staff is almost completely closed off from the free society (Fox, 1983).

Long, et al. (1986) concluded that the correctional officer subculture was the reaction of the "person" to the "social environment." This is the same way by which the military subculture has been formed. As the military member enters the "institution" of military, their entire life becomes the result of working and living in the military subculture.

SKINHEAD SUBCULTURE

The American Skinhead subculture offers the most recent opportunity with which to compare the Marine Corps subculture. Mark S. Hamm provides an analysis of the American Skinhead subculture in American Skinheads: The
Criminology and Control of Hate Crimes (1993). Hamm’s work suggests that subcultures are constantly being formed and evolving. Subcultures may be a very important element of all societies.

More than anything else, skinheads are depicted as vitriolic racists (Hamm, 1993). Skinheads have earned their title from their shaven heads, and the term has come to symbolize young, white males who behave violently against minorities simply because of their race or ethnicity. Skinheads have been the center of recent media attention, which has depicted them as a neo-Nazi gang responsible for many beatings, and even murders of minorities.

It is not the purpose of the current discussion to explore the causes or beliefs of the skinhead subculture. Instead, Hamm’s (1994) work provides a more recent example of a violent subculture, one that is alive and well today, that has many of the same characteristics of the Marine Corps.

Hamm (1994) found the conduct norms of skinhead subcultures to be transmitted most intensely through peers. Violence is the norm among skinheads, non-violence is a form of deviancy. Therefore, violent acts are expected or one will feel as though he is not doing his part, as if he does not belong. Further, Hamm found that skinheads
felt more comfortable behaving violently with other skinheads nearby. Violence became an act of imitation, and group reinforcement for this behavior came to define violence as acceptable in the minds of the skinheads (Hamm, 1994).

This current, modern-day subculture develops its conduct norms the same method by which the Marine Corps develops its conduct norms. During training, Marines are "performing" for other Marines. Acts of non-aggression are considered weak, and dangerous. When Marines witness other Marines behave aggressively, and then are rewarded and praised for their actions, they imitate that violence in hopes of receiving the same rewards and praises. From the moment a recruit enters boot camp, he or she will never be alone. He or she will constantly be in the presence of other members of the subculture, where they will feel more comfortable when behaving aggressively.
Domestic Violence as a Product of the Subculture

This chapter uses domestic violence rates in the military as a way to demonstrate the military subculture, particularly the Marine Corps subculture of violence. Domestic violence can be used in the theoretical context discussed here to show that the Marine Corps has many of the characteristics of subcultures.

DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AS A NATIONAL PROBLEM

Child abuse, spouse abuse, and other physical violence occur in more than half of all U.S. households (Kadushin & Martin, 1988). An estimated fifty million people fall victim to physical harm at the hands of another family member each year. In this country, a woman is more likely to be assaulted, injured, raped, or killed by a male partner than by any other type of assailant (Brown & Williams, 1987).

Suzanne Steinmetz and Murray Straus (1974) have noted: "It would be hard to find a group or an institution in American society in which violence is more of an everyday occurrence than it is within the family." Violence not only causes physical harm in families; each incident also
weakens the loyalty, attraction, and trust between members that are basic to positive family functioning (Zastrow, 1993).

DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AS A MILITARY PROBLEM

Domestic violence is indeed a serious national problem, and recent attention has been given to domestic violence and military personnel. Just as domestic violence remains a problem for all Americans, members of the American Armed Forces also face the dilemma of what to do about domestic violence. Figure four shows how abuse cases within the Department of Defense has increased since 1988. Figure four is particularly alarming considering that the total Department of Defense population has been reduced every year since 1988 (Navy Times, 1995). While the population shrinks, the amount of abuse cases is climbing. The Marine Corps has a particularly difficult challenge, with the highest rates of spouse and child abuse when compared with the other services. Figures five and six show that the Marine Corps' rates of child and spouse abuse are the highest of all the services.

LACK OF PROSECUTION OF MARINE CORPS OFFENDERS

Since Marines are taught that violent behavior is good, they develop a different meaning of violence than most people. Violence may "mean" less than in the other services or as in society in general. It may not be
FIGURE 5
RATE/100 OF SPOUSE ABUSE

FIGURE 6
RATE/100 OF CHILD ABUSE

regarded or defined as abnormal. This different definition of violence ultimately leads to the lack of any deterrence of domestic violence in the Marine Corps. In most civilian communities, if an individual is arrested for domestic assault, he is taken to jail, at a minimum for the night, and faces stiff penalties as well as the humiliation of being arrested and going to jail. This provides some form of deterrence. However, in the Marine Corps, if a Marine is apprehended for a domestic assault, he is released that night to his unit representative. The unit representative will recommend to the Marine that he spend the night in the barracks. Usually the Marine will spend the night in the barracks, and the following day the domestic assault will be on the blotter, and the Marine’s unit commander will receive a copy of the incident report.

At this point it is left up to the unit commander to punish as he/she sees fit. However, often there is very little, if anything, done. The Marine may receive formal counseling, but most of the time there is no further disciplinary action taken.

Marines can be punished by commanders with non-judicial punishment (NJP). NJP refers to a limited range of punishments which can be imposed for disciplinary offenses by a Commanding Officer or Officer in Charge to members of their command (Military Justice, 1992). Article
128 of the Uniformed Code of Military Justice (UCMJ) is entitled, "Assault (Spouse and child abuse)." Therefore, there is an article that allows the commander the authority to charge and punish Marines for this crime.

A Marine has the right to refuse NJP in lieu of a Trial by Courts Martial. A Trial by Courts Martial is a formal hearing much like a normal civilian trial, but the jury is made up of senior enlisted and Marine officers. Usually, however, Marines accept NJP. At NJP the commander is the judge, jury, and executioner. He/she determines guilt or innocence and punishes as he/she deems appropriate. At NJP the commander's authority to punish is more restricted than if the Marine were to elect to go to a Trial by Courts Martial.

In essence, NJP is the Marine Corps form of plea bargaining, and therefore, is a regular occurrence. Examples of violations for which Marines commonly receive NJP are; drunk and disorderly, dereliction of duty, or unauthorized absence. Rarely, however, is a Marine given NJP for a domestic assault. The Department of Defense Family Advocacy Committee's Research Subcommittee (1993) initiated action to complete a survey of all of the branches of the military. The survey counted the number of cases prosecuted under the UCMJ for domestic violence offenses (article 128 or other appropriate articles of the
Manual for Courts Martial). Also surveyed was the number of cases which had administrative separation as a result of domestic violence assaults. The Family Advocacy Program Managers for each branch of the services worked with their headquarters Staff Judge Advocates (Marine lawyers) to count the number of cases in 1992.

The survey identified 19,281 substantiated domestic violence cases for 1992. The study counted 250 cases as prosecuted under the UCMJ and 482 cases were identified as having been administratively separated. The total number of cases found in this study indicates that a very small number of cases faced legal action for abusive behavior.

The lack of prosecution lends support to the theory of symbolic interactionism. The entire system, including the Military Police, Staff Judge Advocates, and unit commanders seem to define domestic violence as almost non-criminal, allowing it to happen without punishment or any other kind of deterrence. Systematic and thorough investigation and prosecution of domestic violence acts under the UCMJ would appear to be a secondary response to this criminal and violent behavior. It appears, from the low numbers of cases prosecuted or administratively separated, that diversion into treatment remains the primary intervention for domestic violence offenders.

VICTIM MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT PUNISHMENTS

40
There seems to be a misconception by the victims of abuse in the Marine Corps that if their spouse is identified as abusive, he/she will face stiff penalties. While very few Marines are formally punished for abusive behaviors, one analysis found Marine corps victims to be more afraid of military consequences for their spouse than of any other consequence (Caliber, 1994).

In September, 1994, Caliber Associates prepared an analysis of the Marine Corps spouse abuse responses to a Department of Defense victim intake survey. The abuse victims study was designed to examine both perceptions of the consequences of reporting abuse as well as actual system responses to reported abuse by military sponsors (Caliber, 1994). Analysis of the survey data indicates a number of significant differences between the responses from Marine Corps spouse abuse victims and spouse abuse victims from the other services. The Caliber (1994) analysis found that about two-thirds of all Marine Corps victims were very or somewhat afraid that their spouse's military career would be in trouble, their spouse would be punished by the military, their spouse would be kicked out of the Marine Corps, or that it would be unpleasant for their spouse at work.

The survey respondents were asked, "How afraid are you that any of the following will happen because your problem
is known by the military?" When compared to the other services, the Marine Corps victims are much more afraid of the military consequences. Table one shows that in every single aspect examined, the Marine Corps victims were much more likely to be afraid of the military consequences. Perhaps the most important aspect examined was that almost half of all Marine Corps victims feared that their spouse would hurt them, while only about a third felt this way in the other services. This may indicate that Marines exhibit aggressive tendencies while in the home much more frequently than members of the other services.

Table one indicates that Marine Corps victims strongly believe their spouse will suffer disciplinary action for abusing them. However, the Department of Defense statistics on prosecution rates clearly show that this is not the case. What is it, then, that makes Marine Corps victims more fearful? It may again be the environment. The same environment that makes Marines more aggressive and violent may make the victims more fearful.

Marine spouses often hear the stories of Marines being punished swiftly and harshly for acts that to them seem ridiculous. These punishments create an environment that leads the spouses to believe a Marine will be punished harshly for a crime as serious as spouse abuse. Force
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VICTIMS' FEARS</th>
<th>USMC</th>
<th>ARMY</th>
<th>NAVY</th>
<th>AIR FORCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Things will get worse at home</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse will hurt her</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse will be kicked out of the military</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse will leave her</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will not be able to support self/kids</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family will think bad of her</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends will think bad about her</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too many people will hear about it</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

drawdown has made promotion and retention very difficult. Spouses believe a black-mark such as a domestic assault on a Marine's record will surely force them out of the service. This will create an even worse economic situation for the family, and this is the last thing the spouse wants. Also, one of the most common punishments given at NJP is to garnish wages.

Top-ranking officers publicly proclaim to take a tough stance against domestic violence. On May 11, 1993, the Commandant of the Marine corps issued the following order to all General Officers, all Commanding Officers, and all Officers in Charge, "We must maintain a coordinated response in which family violence is reported to proper authorities whenever suspected...commanders should...initiate administrative or disciplinary proceedings to hold offenders accountable for their actions."

It would appear as though the Commandant is publicly proclaiming that the Marine Corps is taking a tough stance against domestic violence. Essentially, he is ordering officers to prosecute cases against Marines who behave violently while in the home. Quite simply, it is not happening. But if the commandant said it should happen, most Marines and their families believe it is happening. This helps create the environment that sponsors fear and
develops these misconceptions regarding punishment.

AGE GROUPS AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF MARINE CORPS
ABUSERS AND THEIR VICTIMS

A subculture may be made up of all ages, however, the violence is usually most prominent in a limited, segmental age group (Wolfgang & Ferracutti, 1967). The Caliber study found that in each service, the majority of abusers were in the paygrades E4 to E6, but Marine Corps abusers were consistently more likely to be in the E1 to E3 paygrades (Table 2). Table two shows that Marine Corps abusers fit the description given by Wolfgang & Ferracutti with regards to the violence being most prominent within a certain age group.

Forty-three percent of the Marine Corps is within the E1 to E3 paygrades (Marines, 1994). Almost all Marines are promoted above the E3 paygrade during a normal four year enlistment, and most Marines enlist within a year or two after graduation from high school. Therefore, the overwhelming majority of domestic violence assailants in the Marine Corps are in a younger age group.

Table two also suggests that Marine Corps abusers are of a lower socio-economic status. Social class is an important factor in many studies of violent crime, and the subculture theory is no different. Studies of subculture since 1958 consistently report the same observation:
that the overwhelming majority of assaultive crimes are committed by persons from the lowest stratum of a social organization (Wolfgang & Ferracutti, 1967).

Just as Marine Corps abusers tend to be younger, so do the victims of domestic assaults (Table 3). More than two-thirds of Marine Corps spouse abuse victims are twenty-five or younger, while about one-half of the victims in the Army, Navy, and Air Force combined were twenty-five or younger. Conversely, eight percent of victims in both the Army and Navy were thirty-six or older, while only one percent of Marine Corps victims were over the age of thirty-six.

Domestic violence within the Marine Corps is an example that fits the subculture model theory. It appears as though the violent, aggressive behaviors taught to Marines carries over into their family life. It also appears that the institution, the environment created by the Marine Corps allows, and almost encourages, violence at home. Finally, family violence is isolated to a very segmented group of young, economically troubled families.

IMPORTATION EXPLANATION AND SELECTION PROCESS

There seem to be two competing theories that may explain the origins of the Marine Corps’ subculture. According to social learning theory, the majority of violence exhibited by Marines is a learned behavior. This
### TABLE 2

ABUSER PAYGRADE BY MILITARY SERVICE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paygrade</th>
<th>Marine Corps</th>
<th>Army</th>
<th>Navy</th>
<th>Air Force</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E1-E3</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E4-E6</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E7-E9</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OFFICERS</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 3

VICTIM AGE BY MILITARY SERVICE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>Marine Corps</th>
<th>Army</th>
<th>Navy</th>
<th>Air Force</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-25</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36+</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

is an occupational view that suggests that the institution of the Marine Corps assists in developing and creating violent behavior. The other theory is that the high rate of domestic violence in the Marine Corps is directly correlated with recruiting practices. This "importation" explanation suggests that the Marine Corps tends to recruit and enlist individuals who have a predisposition for violence. This theory is similar to the early literature by Cohen (1955) in which juveniles join gangs as a result of ineffective parental authority, family supervision, and shared experiences of failure in traditional middle-class social systems.

Perhaps the Marine Corps subculture is the result of both schools of thought. If so, the Marine Corps recruits those with a predisposition for violence and then develops the violent traits even further. As Cohen has noted, juveniles join gangs to achieve a status that they can not achieve in the larger, more dominant culture. In one sense the Marine Corps is similar to Cohen’s gang, where violent juveniles view the Marine Corps as a means to achieve a status that to them seems unattainable in the civilian world.

Marine Corps recruiting practices support this importation explanation, and the high rate of violence in the Marine Corps may be directly related to recruiting
practices. While the other services have changed recruiting practices to stay competitive with civilian employment opportunities, the Marine Corps recruiting practices have remained the same. The other services advertise enlisting for the purposes of "learning a trade" or "learning a skill." However, the Marine Corps continues to present the image of "warrior" or "knight" in most recruiting media. While the Marine Corps mission requires combat effectiveness, today there is a need for more intelligent and technically proficient recruits. The message the Marine Corps may be sending is, "come join our gang, come join the Marine Corps to vent all of your violent, aggressive tendencies, and we will pay you for it." Individuals with an attitudinal predisposition for abuse may find this appealing. Also, Marine Corps recruiting practices legitimize violence by indicating, "this is the reason why we want you, and you better not let us down."
Conclusions

COMPARISON TO NATIONAL PROBLEM

The historical sequence of events concerning the United States Marine Corps' policies and actions to stop domestic violence seems to replicate the problems faced by the nation’s criminal justice system over the last twenty years. While the nation’s criminal justice system’s response has evolved dramatically over the last two decades, the Marine Corps response has remained the same. The Marine Corps has failed to shift to defining domestic violence assaults as a crime. As both a crime and a social problem, offenders must be both prosecuted and treated. One of the problems for the Marine Corps in addressing this critical issue of domestic violence lies in its failure to adopt the same changes many of the leading states and cities in the country have adopted. Domestic violence is a crime under specific state criminal penal codes, and it is a crime under article 128 as defined in the Manual for Courts Martial. To be effective in addressing this problem, the Marine Corps must change its policies and practices. The Marine Corps must adopt a pro-prosecution
policy calling for systematic, universal investigation and prosecution of the perpetrators of such acts.

The Marine Corps faces a unique opportunity to become the leader among the armed forces. Legal, investigative, and command personnel must work together to develop the prosecution policies and practices required to stop family violence in the Marine Corps. Specifically, the Marine Corps must increase the conviction rates of accused batterers; and enhance penalties for convicted batterers. This tough position must be communicated to all Marines, and Marines must be trained to know what the Marine Corps response will be.

PREVENTING DOMESTIC VIOLENCE IN THE MARINE CORPS

Outside of combat, reacting quickly and intensely with anger and aggression is usually problematic. The Marine Corps needs to capitalize on the fact that most of its abuse cases are among young couples who have not yet had time to establish patterns of chronic and escalating abuse. The Marine Corps should place substantial emphasis on primary prevention to sensitize young Marine couples to the definitions, symptoms, and dynamics of abuse. Marines and their spouses need to know that the Marine Corps defines family abuse as criminal. This could be done with a violence prevention program at recruit training to educate recruits about domestic violence and provide them
with skills to help them avoid destructive behavior. Also, this program would educate recruits on the possible disciplinary actions that could be taken if they are arrested for a domestic assault.

This training should stress that even though Marines are required to behave violently, this behavior must be contained to training and the battlefield. The training should show that it is inappropriate to respond to everyday circumstances as if they were situations encountered in the life-threatening context of combat. Specifically, Marines need to be shown that violence against their defenseless spouse and children is not appropriate. Marines are constantly put in training situations that require quick decisions to be made at a moment's notice under the most stressful of situations. This decision-making training should be carried over into the family setting. Marines should be shown that it is feasible to control emotions in a family setting because it is similar to the requirements on the battlefield. The distinction between home and training needs to be clearly defined. This distinction can be established with broader training situations that are not just limited to wartime scenarios.

A generalized uncertainty of the consequences, as well as the concern about negative career impact to the service
member, inhibits many spouse abuse victims in the military from coming forward. The Marine Corps needs to acknowledge that these young women are frequently scared and confused—scared of both their husbands and the Marine Corps institution, which seemingly have total control over their lives. Commanding officer sanctions will only work to the extent that commanding officers, who have authority to impose sanctions, understand and begin to sanction Marines for family violence.

DETERMINE ORIGINS OF SUBCULTURE

Perhaps the Marine Corps should set out to clearly determine whether the subculture is occupational or traditional. That is, does the Marine Corps tend to recruit and enlist individuals who have a predisposition for violence before they enter the Marine Corps? Or, is the high rate of violence a result of the environment created by the Marine Corps? This could be determined by conducting studies of recruit’s awareness, understanding, and attitudinal predisposition to violence. The test should be administered to new recruits entering boot camp, and again after the adjustment has taken place. This pre-test/post-test should be designed to capture information of family abuse history, definitions of violence, attitudes towards violence, and some socio-economic information.
The Marine Corps should analyze the entire Marine Corps criminal justice system, and identify how it contributes to the subculture of violence. This includes the Military Police, Staff Judge Advocate, and Unit Commanders. Each of these components continues to allow family violence to happen by unofficially defining it as non-criminal, thus contributing to the subculture of violence.

Marine Corps military police training and practices should be analyzed with regard to handling domestic violence situations. Military police investigators should be trained to conduct more effective evidence collection and to respond sensitively during victim interviews.

The Marine Corps should perhaps capitalize on the established research and literature on subcultures to aid them with overcoming violence. The literature presented here on police subcultures is an example of a similar institution that is taking steps to overcome an identified problem. The Marine Corps should take steps similar to those of police agencies across the country.

The Marine Corps should identify factors that create or contribute to the subculture of violence. The Marine Corps has an opportunity to lead all the other services on this issue, and the Marine Corps' leadership should advocate and fight to develop solutions to handle this
devastating social problem. If the Marine Corps leads, the other services will follow, and ultimately, these recommendations may make the Marine Corps even more effective in combat, by making the individual Marine's family life more pleasant.
REFERENCES


