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ACHIEVING INTERACTION IN LISTENING AND SPEAKING
WITHIN A CHINESE CULTURAL CONTEXT

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

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

by
Ching-Chuan Shih
September 2001

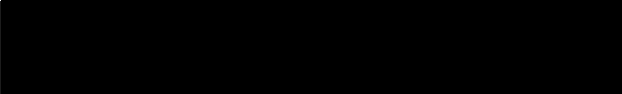
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Approved by:


Lynne Diaz-Rico, First Reader


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July 30, 2001
Date

ABSTRACT

The purpose of teaching English as a foreign language is not to teach students to speak English like natives, but to teach them to communicate in English. In Taiwan, instruction in oral communication is often insufficient. The goal of project is to provide teachers with a curriculum that helps students develop oral communication in the conversation class.

Oral communication is more important than ever because economic growth and technological advancement have increased the Taiwanese peoples' relationships with foreigners. However, traditional approaches to English instruction have not resulted in students' successful communication. This project first investigates theories and practical methods pertaining to the development of oral communication. Then, it provides teachers with a curriculum for the improvement of oral communication within the context of Chinese culture.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	iii	
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iv	
LIST OF FIGURES	viii	
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION		
Background of the Project	1	
English Instruction in Taiwan	2	
The Conversation Class in Vocational College	3	
Purpose of the Project	4	
Content of the Project	4	
Significance of the Project	5	
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE		7
Listening to Comprehend in a Second Language	8	
Listening, Language Processing, and the Creation of Meaning	9	
The Input Hypothesis and Listening Comprehension	15	
Techniques in the Language Classroom for Comprehensible Input	19	
Listening Comprehension Strategies	24	
Overcoming Affective Barriers to Comprehension	28	
Speaking to Communicate	31	
Fundamental Elements Used to Develop Oral Proficiency	32	

The Role of Language Output	34
Teaching for Comprehensible Output As Communicative Competence	37
Cognitive Factors in Developing Oral Proficiency	39
Affective Factors in Developing Oral Proficiency	42
Interactional Competence	45
Definition of Interactional Competence	45
The Knowledge that Participants Bring to a Conversation	47
Second Language Acquisition Feature of Cognitive Complexity	49
Achieving Second Language Input/Output Via Role Play	52
Second Language Discourse Management	53
Empathy	58
Cultural Influence on Communication	58
Definition of Culture	59
Cultural Differences	60
The Relationship Between Language, Culture and Communication	61
Cultural Barriers to Communication	63
Strategies for Increasing Cultural Understanding	66
Simulation of Interaction	68

The Importance of Simulation in Language Instruction	69
Using Simulation to Achieve Interactional Competence	70
Benefits for Listening and Speaking	72
The Relation of Simulation and Affective Filter	74
The Use of Simulation for Cultural Instruction	77
 CHAPTER THREE: A MODEL OF TEACHING INSTRUCTION	
Description of the Model	81
Application of the Model	86
 CHAPTER FOUR: CURRICULUM DESIGN	
Curriculum Organization	89
Learner-Centered Simulation	92
 CHAPTER FIVE: ASSESSMENT	
The Purpose of Assessment	94
Teacher Observation and Evaluation	96
Assessment in the Curriculum	97
 APPENDIX A: LESSON PLANS	
REFERENCES	180

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Model of Interaction in Listening and Speaking Within a Cultural Context . . . 82

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

English is prominent in Taiwan and other Asian countries. For decades, proficiency in English has been one of the keys to make a living successfully in Taiwan. Many Taiwanese people engage in import/export businesses with foreign countries; many others work for international corporations. As international connections and global interdependence have increased, the demand for English competency has soared. People who are able to speak fluent English usually get better jobs and earn higher salaries in Taiwan. English competency is thus generally considered a sign of success in the Taiwanese society. Taiwanese people need to communicate in English because it is a commonly used language in the global economic system.

For many years, English has been a required subject from middle school to college. Unfortunately, the majority of students are unable to apply what they have learned in school to the real world. Many English instructional contexts in Taiwan lack any kind of communication practice.

Therefore, educators in Taiwan are seeking a new pedagogy for English as a Foreign Language (EFL).

English Instruction in Taiwan

At the middle school and high school level, English classes in Taiwan mainly focus on vocabulary, grammar, and translation of reading passages in order to assist students to pass college entrance examinations. These exams have a strong influence on teaching methods in the English classroom. In addition, teachers use tests to determine students' comprehension of written English. The teaching of English is evaluated based on the scores that students obtain. Therefore, the instruction involves only reading text and translating it into Chinese, with explanations of grammar and vocabulary. Consequently, teachers do not teach how to communicate in English, and students often pay little attention to communication.

"Communication" does not seem to be the real goal of English teaching in Taiwan. English is more like an academic subject evaluated by pencil-and-paper tests rather than a tool of communication. Many Taiwanese students are able to pass tests but fail to communicate with foreign visitors. After years of learning English, many adults may even wonder if they are unable to learn a foreign language like English.

To change this situation, students may need to be encouraged to put English into practical use in an interactive manner, that is, to communicate in English.

The Conversation Class in Vocational College

The vocational colleges in Taiwan are usually designed for specific job markets such as business management and computer science. Students at this level are aware of the job requirements for their chosen profession. Therefore, they have a clear picture regarding the value and the use of English in the future workplace. The need to learn to communicate in English appears evident when English is related directly to job requirements.

In addition, students at this level are free from entrance examinations that may have imposed pressure on their lives in secondary school. Students in vocational college are able to apply English in a more interesting and practical way. In other words, they can use it to deliver specific commands, express personal feelings, and discuss life experiences rather than to fill out answers in a test. Consequently, the instruction could be more flexible, joyful and realistic to students. Hence, the vocational college is the target instructional level of this project.

Purpose of the Project

Oral communication is a basic need of human beings. As the world becomes a "global village" and people see the need to communicate with others in a common language, the profession of English teaching has much to accomplish. The attainment of oral communication is essential for English learners. The knowledge of vocabulary and grammar alone may not be sufficient. Language educators should design more effective instructional approaches and provide better opportunities for learners to master oral communication through conversation.

The purpose of this project is to develop heuristics and guidelines for English teachers to design appropriate courses. The exploration begins with a review of relevant literature in order to provide principles to comprise a pedagogical model. Based on that model, an instructional unit is presented that incorporates the model in a real-world context.

Content of the Project

This project is composed of five chapters. The first chapter describes the background and purpose of the project as well as the organization of the following

chapters. Chapter Two is a review of related literature, centered on the following: listening to comprehend, speaking to communicate, interactional competence, cultural influences on communication, and simulation. Chapter Three features a model that synthesizes the research presented in the literature review. Based on this model, Chapter Four presents six sample lesson plans. The instructional topic is primarily related to management training. Chapter Five explains a methodology for assessing oral communication proficiency.

Significance of the Project

The purpose of language is to communicate with people. As an international language, English has the power to bring together people all over the earth and offer a common tongue. Many people are now aware of the limitations of the current teaching methodology in Taiwan. The project presents an exploratory teaching model for reforming English language instructional approaches, methods, and techniques.

The project strives to recenter language instruction to meet the basic needs of learning a language, using simulation as a promising way to implement the model

presented in Chapter Three. By means of this curriculum project, the investigator hopes that English instruction in Taiwan will be improved, and that students will be more successful in using what they learn in school.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

For many English-as-foreign-language (EFL) learners outside English-speaking countries, achieving communicative competence in English may not sound like a proximal goal. Very often, students are satisfied if they can pass pencil-and-paper tests and demonstrate mastery in grammar or spelling in school. However, these students may find that their skills are inadequate for successful communication with speakers of English, forcing them to wonder what went wrong in their previous learning. On the other hand, for teachers of these non-native speakers, designing successful curricula to improve non-native speakers' communicative competence in English is a demanding task. This challenging task undoubtedly requires mastery of several domains of knowledge on the part of the teacher or instructional designer beyond that of day-to-day classroom pedagogy.

For decades, knowledge related to the teaching or learning of foreign-language communicative competence has evolved, both in theoretical development and empirical studies. To gain understanding and insight from research literature, this chapter presents a review of literature

from five related domains, including listening to comprehend, speaking to communicate, cultural differences in communication, interactional competence, and simulation in language acquisition.

Listening to Comprehend in a Second Language

Comprehending a second/foreign language spoken at a normal speed is by no means a simple skill because comprehension is composed of many components. Many researchers have presented theories of language comprehension and explored methods to promote this complicated skill. These theories and investigations provide insights into key aspects of listening and language processing, and justification for the importance of comprehensible input in relation to listening comprehension. These insights have led to ways to augment comprehensible input and listening comprehension strategies in the language classroom. To gain better listening comprehension, learners must also overcome their anxiety about learning a second/foreign language.

Listening, Language Processing, and the Creation of Meaning

Call (1985) proposes that comprehending what is heard requires more than the knowledge of individual linguistic elements. At a basic cognitive level, learners must be able to retain these elements (vowels, consonants, and the combinations) in short-term memory long enough for them to be converted to comprehensible messages. Thus from a cognitive viewpoint, effective use of short-term memory is an essential component of listening comprehension (Call, 1985).

Information Processing. When sound-carrying messages are transmitted to human sensory organs, the human brain starts to process this input. The incoming data are compared with existing memory for identification. Information processing is thus activated in the brain.

The study of information processing has been a big influence on the field of communication and education since the 1950s; it has been used to model the process that takes place between the message source (sender) and the receiver. Call (1985) describes the act of listening as a series of processes through which the sounds related to a particular utterance are converted into meaning. When speech enters

the mind as data, it goes into the sensory stores and is taken to short-term memory.

Woolfolk (1998) describes information processing as similar to the workings of a computer. Like the computer, the brain takes the data, transforms its form and content, stores the data, retrieves it when needed, and produces responses to it. Therefore, information processing entails "gathering and representing information, or encoding; holding information, or storage; and getting at the information when needed, or retrieval" (p. 250).

However, only 7 to 12 bits of data can be processed in short-term memory at a time. These bits must be transformed into syntactic constituents, analyzed into semantic units, and linked to meaningful units in the long-term memory store. In language processing, these units can be explained as words, phrases, or clauses (Call, 1985). Call explains that when sounds have entered short-term memory and have been grouped into appropriate syntactic units, they stay long enough to be converted semantically before they are removed from short-term memory to make room for new input. The data that sounds carried may or may not go into long-term memory, but the exact words in which the data was expressed seldom stay in the short-term memory for a long

period of time. Once the meaning has been obtained, the exact words are forgotten.

Short-term memory plays an important role in the organization of semantic units and the generation of meaning. As soon as sounds have entered short-term memory, they are divided into syntactic units and interpreted into possible meaning. By using syntactic rules to chunk incoming linguistic data, listeners comprehend the meaning from spoken language gained during short-term memory and store the meaningful data in long-term memory (Call, 1985).

Second/Foreign Language Information Processing. Second language input seems to be processed generally in the same way as that of the first language. Call (1985) points out the relationship between short-term memory span and second language proficiency. First, memory span for second language input is shorter than for native language input. Next, the amount of second language input that can be effectively obtained depends on increasing ability in the second language. Knowledge of second language syntax is a crucial factor in increasing the amount of linguistic material that can be retained in short-term memory.

Rivers and Temperley (1978) find that second language data often disappears from short-term memory before it can

be properly organized and precisely interpreted by second-language learners. The reason is perhaps that short-term memory for second language data is easily overloaded. Consequently, ESL/EFL beginners may have difficulty in understanding what native speakers say because perception is overloaded and recognition of meaning is beyond beginners' short-term memory capacity. Moreover, longer sentences are more difficult to process than shorter ones. Simply increasing the amount of data (length of sentences) imposes greatly increased difficulty upon learners (Rivers & Temperley, 1978).

Bottom-up Processing. Language comprehension can be seen as a result of two forms of complementary processing in listening, bottom-up and top-down processing. Bottom-up processing refers to a process of decoding an incoming message through the analysis of sounds, words, and grammar. The analysis involves a series of comparisons with existing patterns and rules stored in learners' long-term memory (Gebhard, 1996). For example, when listeners hear the sentence, "Excuse me, couldja tell me howta getto the post office?", they receive strings of sounds and chunk them. By retrieving and matching what they hear with existing structures, listeners realize that "couldja" is two words,

"could you" and that "howta getto" is "how to get to."
Listeners also identify grammatical and functional clues linked with the message. They recognize that "could you" indicates a request and "how to get to" implies asking for directions. According to bottom-up processing theory, language educators can develop instructions built on form and pattern drills to enhance the learner's comprehension.

Top-down Processing. The other form of language comprehension is top-down processing. Successful top-down processing relies on having the background knowledge needed to comprehend the meaning of a message. Background knowledge is regarded as the real-world experiences and the expectations that people have. Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) state that background information in the listener's mind is composed of two kinds: content schemata and formal schemata. Content schemata consist of cultural knowledge, topic familiarity and previous experience with a field. Formal schemata consist of people's knowledge of discourse forms: text types, rhetorical conventions, and the structural organization of prose. Both content and formal schemata can assist listeners' interpretation of the text (Floyd & Carrell, 1987). Thus, top-down processing is

essential to cognitive processing when spoken language is comprehended.

The Language Acquisition Device. Chomsky (Gliedman, 1983), defines the language acquisition device (LAD) as a "language organ" (p. 113), a language processor that develops over time like other organ of human body. This device is related to all that is universal in human languages. Its structures become activated when humans are exposed to natural language (Richard-Amato, 1996). Chomsky compares the LAD to a computer. This computer is composed of "a series of preprogrammed subsystems for meaning, syntax, relationships between various types of words, and their functions. With each subsystem, the individual through experience makes subconscious choices from a linguistic menu" (p. 14). The language menu consists of choices about word order such as subject-verb-object, verb-subject-object, subject-object-verb, and object-subject-verb. The brain selects items appropriate to the specific language to which it is exposed, relying on the language environment. In the case of second-language acquisition, the brain needs to "reset the parameters when the language to which it is exposed deviates from the way the parameters were set for the first language" (Richard-Amato, p. 15).

Listening to a second/foreign language, then, is a special application of information processing which has to do with comprehension of spoken language, a process that functions in a similar way to first language processing but somehow is more difficult. Through the use of language processing theory, many language educators have better understood how listening is processed in the mind.

The Input Hypothesis and Listening Comprehension

Krashen presumes that a language acquisition device is "an innate mental structure capable of handling both first and second language acquisition" (Gass & Selinker, p. 146). This innate structure is activated by input. However, Gass and Selinker (1994) point out "only input of a very specific kind ($i + 1$) will be useful in altering a learner's grammar."

In developing listening comprehension, people do not experience quantum leaps. Learning occurs progressively. Whatever they learn in the initial or basic level builds up the knowledge foundation that helps them advance to higher levels. In other words, cognitive development including language acquisition proceeds stage by stage as Piaget (1977) described.

Krashen's $i+1$. In 1983, Krashen proposed the Input Hypothesis, claiming that learners must be exposed to language input with gradually more difficult structures in order to develop the next stage of language acquisition. Learners are able to shift from a stage "i," the learners' level, to a stage "i + 1," the stage following "i" along some natural order. When learners acquire comprehensible input, their ability to listen can move from a stage "i" to a stage "i + 1" (Krashen, 1983).

This theorized concept is intended to present language as a net. The speakers form a net of structure around learners as they speak. Learners strive to comprehend what is said by looking for information from their existing knowledge and comparing the clues in the context including speakers' hints or gestures, even though they have not acquired the language completely (Krashen, 1983).

Caretaker Speech. Caretaker speech has been used to explain the Input Hypothesis as well as the idea of the net. Caretakers are mothers, fathers, and others who care for children. When caretakers talk to a young child, they often use simplified speech so that their messages can be understood. This simplified speech is considered helpful for language comprehension because the speech is usually

tuned to the child's level of comprehension; the process of tuning the input mostly relies on the speaker using structures of "i + 1" (Krashen, 1983). In addition to simplified speech, caretaker speech also concerns the "here and now" which provides the extra-linguistic context for young children to understand. Thus, by understanding language a little bit beyond their current level of ability, children acquire listening competence.

Teacher Talk. Teacher talk refers to the language of classroom management and explanation, when it is in the target language. The concept of caretaker speech can be applied to "teacher talk" and "interlanguage talk" (Krashen & Terrell, p. 34) in the second/foreign language classroom context. A second/foreign language classroom is often the first place for second/foreign language learners to develop their listening competence as they attend to the teacher's language. Teachers need to modify their language appropriately before they talk to learners (Krashen, 1983). As the instruction progresses, each lesson carries the clues for the next lesson.

Teachers have a powerful affect on language learners just like caretakers have a powerful affect on young children. Therefore, teachers play a significant role

laying out the language net in the second/foreign language classroom. Not only do they give learners a language lesson, but they also supply input for listening comprehension development. If learners understand what teachers are talking about, their listening competence is naturally developed with less frustration. Teachers may need to speak more of the target language than learners' native language during the instruction because learners in most cases do not have a natural environment to listen to the target language. In addition, when teachers speak in the language classroom, some techniques can assist to provide comprehensible input. These techniques are presented in the next section.

Interlanguage Talk. Other input to second/foreign language learners lies in the speech of other learners, the learning peers. The communicative attempts or actions between or among learners are referred to as "interlanguage talk" (p. 35). Like teacher talk, the talk of learning peers can also show adaptation.

Krashen (1983) declares that interlanguage talk might be helpful when peers communicate and might contain "i + 1" input so that peers can help each other progress to the next level of their listening competence. However, he also

thinks that a question remains whether the possible advantages of interlanguage talk balance the apparent problems. These problems include the ungrammaticality of much of the input, and the possibility that input might be too simple and not be progressive enough for the intermediate or advanced acquirer (Krashen & Terrell, 1983).

The Input Hypothesis explains simply that humans achieve language by understanding input that is a little beyond their current level of ability. This hypothesis is important to help educators understand the development of learners' listening comprehension in a second/foreign language.

Techniques in the Language Classroom for Comprehensible Input

Theories of second/foreign language provide instructors with the principles needed to design the instruction in a second/foreign language classroom. According to Krashen (1983), the most important element of any language teaching program is producing "input." Successful acquisition can be attained when the input provided is understood. Call (1985) considers comprehensible input as essential for developing the

competence to produce second/foreign language fluently. According to the Input Hypothesis, language acquisition takes place as learners obtain comprehensible input and understand what they hear in another language. The following methodologies may be used to facilitate comprehensible input in instruction: visual aids; media and realia; the Total Physical Response approach; teachers' simplified speech, segmentation of discourse, and use of repetition and paraphrase; use of methods to activate background knowledge; and structured tasks.

Visual Aids. Pictures and other visual aids are very useful in providing contextual clues and explicit imagery to comprehend incoming speech. Presenting students with various pictures and visuals is one of the most effective teaching techniques (Krashen, 1983). This provides the extra-linguistic context, such as locations, sequences, or shapes, that enables learners to understand the input correctly and consequently optimize learning.

Media and Realia. Not all students are verbal learners. Most students can benefit from the use of media and realia. For instance, diagrams in science books show structures and functions in a graphic way. Models that build the human alimentary system make concrete the

abstract process of digestion. In addition, computer-assisted instruction can be used in a similar fashion to augment visual pictures with auditory input (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

Total Physical Response (TPR) Approach. Requiring students to become physically involved enhances students' acquisition of comprehensible input. Asher (1982) offers the concept of "Total Physical Response" based on the belief that language can be effectively acquired through the use of body movement. In the Total Physical Response Approach, learners need to follow the instructor's commands given in the target language. These commands often begin with simple imperatives such as "Stand up!" After that, instructors can create more complex sentences, such as, "Go to the blackboard and write your name on it."

Simplified Speech. Another effective technique of producing comprehensible input is to simplify speech. Speech simplified by teachers can help learners acquire listening comprehension. Simplifying speech involves tuning to learners' comprehension level and providing contextual support to learners (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). For example, merely slowing down the speech or relating an abstract concept to a concrete concept are possible ways of

simplifying speech. In addition, teachers can monitor their own language usage and reduce the amount of their talking in the classroom. They can adapt their language by slowing their delivery, which, when combined with clearer utterance, allows ESL/EFL learners greater opportunity to separate words in a sentence and process the language (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

Segmenting Discourse. Many students report that comprehension would increase and anxiety would be alleviated if instructors would just slow the speed of their speech. However, if teachers decrease the speed at which they speak, they end up supporting the belief that listening comprehension is equivalent to word-for-word translation. Rather than simply slowing down speech, a more effective technique would be to break the discourse down into natural segments, or phrases, and deliver them as chunks of speech that provide an concept and maintain all of the natural intonations, emphases, and pauses (Vogely, 1998).

Repetition and Paraphrase. According to Krashen (1983), comprehensible input will be increased if repetition and paraphrase are used by teachers. However,

these repetitions need to be natural so that they do not sound like rote repeating.

Background Knowledge. The most significant factor influencing learning is what the learner already knows. For instance, if the learners know that the task is to determine what kind of food is served at a specific type of restaurant, the listeners are less anxious about who or what the source of information might be. Another source of background knowledge is the linguistic knowledge of their first language that learners bring with them. They know about word boundaries, exaggerated intonation, and use of gestures. They know how to request repetition and restatements. They have experienced language simplification and conversational adjustments in their native language, and recognize them as strategies that assist comprehension (Vogely, 1998).

Structured Tasks. Structured tasks effectively increase comprehension and reduce listening comprehension anxiety because the listeners know why they are listening, where to begin, and in what direction to go. When designing structured tasks, teachers need to start at a level at which the students will experience small successes, then build upon those skills. Moreover, teachers must guide

learners through the listening text by focusing their attention on one thing at a time. Thus, comprehensible input will be increased during instruction (Vogely, 1998).

Applying techniques to increase comprehensible input in the second/foreign language classroom can promote learners' comprehension of what is said. Language teachers need to use these techniques in the language classroom when they are lecturing. This instructional enhancement opens the door to success for English second/foreign language learners (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

Listening Comprehension Strategies

Rubin (1994) points out that listeners actively process language input. Two types of processing are differentiated in listening comprehension: cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies. Cognitive strategies refer to those used for solving learning problems, and considering how to store and retrieve information. Metacognitive strategies entail planning, monitoring, and evaluating comprehension. Listeners use metacognitive knowledge to gain knowledge about how much task to listen to, how difficult a task is, and about the correlation of strategies and context (Rubin, 1994).

Goh (1998) states that cognitive strategies are more directly associated to the learning task and involve direct manipulation or transformation of the learning materials. ESL/EFL learners use cognitive strategies to aid them to process, store and recall new information. For instance, in listening, learners infer the meaning of difficult words or ideas to assist their comprehension of the text. Cognitive strategies involve doing things with the incoming information, often with the help of existing knowledge from long-term memory (Goh, 1998). Metacognitive strategies, however, are not used to process input directly. They go beyond cognitive manipulation and transformation of incoming information; they entail thinking about the way information is processed and stored, and taking appropriate steps to manage and regulate these cognitive processes. An example of a metacognitive strategy is selective attention during listening, by which the listener decides in advance to which aspects or parts of the input to pay attention (Goh, 1998).

Metacognitive strategies are important because they are used to oversee, regulate, or direct the language learning process. On the other hand, the potential of these

metacognitive strategies is limited without the deployment of appropriate cognitive strategies (Vandergrift, 1999).

In addition, Vandergrift (1999) adds the category of socio-affective strategies. These are used when language learners cooperate with classmates, question the teacher for clarification, or apply specific techniques to lower their anxiety level.

Developing Metastrategic Awareness. ESL/EFL teachers can discuss the concept of strategy in class and facilitate learners to explore the kinds of strategies used to understand spoken English. A cueing activity can be used to develop metastrategic awareness. Teachers can provide students with an oral text in a language other than English and discuss the different cues one can use to guess at the possible meaning of the text. The purpose of the activity is to sensitize students to the variety of cues for which one can listen. Such an activity is useful to students who are not conscious of and/or do not naturally transfer native language listening strategies to learning another language. It also develops the strategy of selective attention, an important metacognitive strategy (Vandergrift, 1999).

Incorporating Pre-listening, Listening and Post-listening Activities. Dividing teaching activities into pre-listening, listening and post-listening components is not a novel concept. However, if used consistently, this sequence of teaching strategies can direct students through the mental processes for effective listening comprehension (Vandergrift, 1999).

Pre-listening activities are essential to achieving listening comprehension. During this phase of the listening process, teachers prepare learners for what they will hear and what they are expected to do. Pre-listening activities assist learners to make decisions about what to listen for and to focus attention on meaning while listening.

During the listening activity itself, learners continue to monitor their comprehension and make decisions about strategy use. They need to evaluate continually what they understand during the ongoing interpretation of the oral context. Strategies to be used in this stage include logical inference and appropriate use of elaboration or world knowledge and word derivation skills.

After the listening event, students need to evaluate the results of decisions made during the listening task. The teacher can encourage self-evaluation and reflection by

asking students to assess the effectiveness of strategies used in order to improve listening comprehension (Vandergrift, 1999).

Cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective strategies are important to success in listening comprehension, and these strategies can be taught. Thus, listening strategies can aid ESL/EFL learners to capitalize on the language input they receive, and to achieve success in language learning.

Overcoming Affective Barriers to Comprehension

According to Scarcella and Oxford (1992), listening anxiety arises when learners are faced with a task that is too difficult or unfamiliar to them. This anxiety is exacerbated if the listeners are under the false impression that they must understand every word they hear. Thus, the anxiety that occurs during the listening process often stems from a negative listening self-esteem.

The anxiety that goes with the listening comprehension task is the one that is most easily ignored because the goal of most classroom activities is the development of speaking skills. When considered a stepping-stone to speaking, listening comprehension is more often than not treated as a passive skill that takes place without

pedagogical emphasis during the regular classroom activities. With speaking, teachers anticipate anxiety on the part of the learners, expect them to hesitate, and help them overcome their fear of speaking; on the other hand, few educators directly address fear that occurs during listening. Listening comprehension anxiety can undermine speech production because the listener must first understand what is being said in order to interact verbally. Listening comprehension anxiety should not be ignored, but actively addressed (Vogely, 1998). Vogely (1998) suggests the pedagogical modifications described below in order to reduce listening comprehension anxiety. These techniques for anxiety reduction have also been listed as ways to increase comprehensible input (see previous section).

Many students believe that their anxiety will be decreased when teachers speak slowly. Whereas, a more effective way is to break the discourse down into natural segments and deliver them as chunks of speech that provide a concept and maintain all of the natural intonations (Vogely, 1998). Another significant factor that influences learning and reduces the anxiety is learners' background knowledge. Activating prior knowledge helps learners make

sense of what they are listening to. Structured tasks also effectively reduce listening comprehension anxiety because the listeners know why they are listening, where to begin, and in what direction to go. When starting at a level where students experience small success, teachers may guide students through the listening text by focusing their attention on one thing at a time.

When listening to a second/foreign language, learners are faced with a spontaneous and instantaneous ingress of information. It is natural that listening process can evoke anxiety in ESL/EFL learners. Teachers must understand this factor and help learners overcome their anxiety about learning a new language.

Listening comprehension is a complicated, active process in which the listener must distinguish between sounds, understand vocabulary and grammatical structures, and interpret the message conveyed within the immediate context of the utterance. It involves a great deal of mental activity as well as use of cognitive psychology on the part of the listener. The Input Hypothesis has contributed to the development of listening comprehension in a second/foreign language. Educators have offered techniques, strategies, and solutions for providing

comprehensible input and reducing anxiety in listening. These theories and methods of listening comprehension are crucial to facilitate ESL/EFL learners to acquire listening proficiency.

Speaking to Communicate

Listening and speaking are interwoven in a communication act because one complements the other. For EFL learners, being able to comprehend a foreign language but unable to speak it can have a specialized utility. However, merely being skilled in comprehension can cause helplessness and frustration in oral communication (Rivers & Temperley, 1978). On the other hand, being able to speak comprehensibly does not necessarily ensure the ability to comprehend normal native speech.

The previous section of the literature review discussed the development of listening comprehension, which only covers one aspect of oral communication. In a communication situation, the listener or message receiver usually plays a passive role. However, the speaker or message sender needs to play a more active role. In this section, the focus will shift to the development of speaking skills or language output. First, the role of

language output is investigated. And then, in order to develop oral proficiency, fundamental elements are recommended for use in instruction. The final section consists of the discussion of affective factors in developing oral proficiency.

Fundamental Elements Used to Develop Oral Proficiency

In EFL education, there are two fundamental elements which instructors need to include in their instruction in order to help learners' develop oral proficiency: pronunciation and conversational skills.

Pronunciation and Encoding Oral Message. The speech process is composed of delivering a message through the medium of sound. The message is given shape by the vocabulary and grammar of the language, which are presented in a train of sounds (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill & Pincas, 1988). To make speech comprehensible to listeners, the oral message cannot go beyond the capacity of people's perception. Before the brain processes incoming oral messages, the oral input must go through the auditory sensors and be stored in short-term or working memory. It appears that the capacity of working memory is only about five to nine separate new items at once (Miller, 1956). As

the speaker produces a train of sounds, unclear or extra sounds may interfere with listening comprehension. Thus, pronunciation is an essential step in encoding oral messages.

Pronunciation Instruction. Celce-Murcia and Goodwin (1991) state that there have been many differences of opinion in the language teaching profession about the value of teaching pronunciation and about how best to teach it. In traditional instruction, teachers use grammar-translation and reading-based approaches to teach pronunciation; however, teachers have found that students still have difficulty speaking after they are able to employ English grammar and vocabulary. Thus, educators have developed different pedagogy to help students improve their speaking through correct pronunciation.

① A well-known approach to teaching pronunciation is the methodology of minimal pair drills. With this method, teachers use lists of words as minimal pairs to practice the sound. For example, a list of "hit, bin, and list" is paired with another list of "heat, bean, and least" (Celce-Murcia & Goodwin, 1991).

Other classroom exercises also involve employing certain tools or activities designed to help students

identify differences between sounds. For example, providing visual hints for "cab" and "cap," providing contextual information of "pen" and "pan," and using dialogue exercises to demonstrate the use of stress and intonation.

Realistically, the goal of teaching pronunciation is not to make EFL learners sound like native speakers. It is rather to enable students to reach a primary level so their non-native pronunciation does not interfere with oral communication (Celce-Murcia & Goodwin, 1991).

The Role of Language Output

Vocabulary and grammar are the key elements of the target language taught in traditional EFL instruction. Many learners spend years memorizing words and familiarizing themselves with the grammatical rules, yet remain unable to make themselves understood when speaking the target language. The question arises, "Is the knowledge of vocabulary and grammar sufficient for oral communication or are there other matters for language educators to be concerned with besides than grammar and vocabulary?" One of the concerns raised by some researchers is the role of output in language acquisition.

According to Krashen (1983), comprehension precedes production. He believes speaking emerges simply when

learners are able to comprehend what is spoken completely. In his point of view, output is not used for hypothesis testing, the process by which the learners try out new structures or rules of the target language. Rather, he believes that second-language learners test hypotheses, not through the use of output, but by matching forms in the input to their own notions about the target language.

Research has shown that comprehensible input is necessary but not sufficient for effective second/foreign language learning. For example, Swain found in her 1985 study that English-speaking children in a French immersion program were able to comprehend what their teacher said and to focus on meaning, but they were still unable to fully acquire the syntactic system of French.

Swain (1985) prefers to emphasize the important role of output played in the language acquisition process. She argues that monitoring output is a significant way to test hypotheses about the target language. To produce comprehensible output, learners are pushed toward the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed, but that is conveyed "precisely, coherently, and appropriately" (p. 249).

Oral production enables the learner to move from the stage of simple interpretation to the stage of meaningful structure. Using whatever resources they may have, the learners are free to produce and create more contextual as well as meaningful use of the target language within the interactional situation (Swain, 1985).

Gass and Selinker (1994) point out that output provides several functions in language learning:

- (1) testing hypotheses about the structures and meanings of the target language;
- (2) receiving crucial feedback for the verification of these hypotheses;
- (3) developing automaticity in IL production; and
- (4) forcing a shift from more lexical and semantic processing of the second language to a more syntactic mode (p. 213).

Language acquisition occurs during interactions that provide comprehensible input as well as enough opportunities for speaking meaning fully during the conversation (Jacob, 1996). Therefore, there is a central role for output in language acquisition.

Teaching for Comprehensible Output As Communicative Competence

For teaching conversational skills, the broader goal is to help learners achieve communicative competence. Without communicative competence, learners may have difficulty speaking even though they have perfect pronunciation (Riggenbach & Lazaraton, 1991). The last decades of the 20th century brought marked changes in the goals of language education programs. Today, language learners are considered successful if they acquire conversational skills rather than produce the target language accurately.

Riggenbach and Lazaraton (1991) state that the developments in language teaching which emphasize communicative ability have moved educators away from the goal of accuracy toward a focus on fluency and communicative effectiveness.

According to the research literature, conversational and communicative activities in ESL/EFL class are popular and powerful in helping students develop their oral skills. Such activities give the learners an opportunity to focus on the meaning delivered and sound produced. These include

but are not limited to the following: interviews, role play, and speeches.

Interviews. In conducting interviews in the ESL classroom, teachers usually divide learners into pairs and ask them to interview their partners. The topics may include a wide range of suitable subjects, including family, hobbies and future plans. During the interviews, learners are allowed to generate personal voice and describe individual life experiences. Notetaking, questioning, verifying, meaning negotiation, and even chatting are all useful for learners to gradually develop communicative competence (Celce-Murcia & Goodwin, 1991).

Role play. Role play is engaging for students as well as a good activity for practicing pronunciation. It is contextualized and offers many opportunities for practicing natural speech. Role play allows learners to feel comfortable and use the expressions they have learned. Thus, role play allows learners to improve their oral skills by overcoming restrictions that might affect their pronunciation (Celce-Murcia & Goodwin, 1991).

Speeches. Making speeches is another activity that gives learners opportunities to perform orally. Speaking in public is more formal than casual conversation. This

formality requires learners to prepare in advance. Many textbooks provide speech topics related to the current unit of study, and, in some cases, suggestions for preparation are also provided. When learners make a speech, teachers should monitor the pronunciation, stress, and intonation. They should provide speakers with appropriate feedback (Celce-Murcia & Goodwin, 1991).

These activities provide more useful methods to help learners develop oral proficiency than grammar-translation and reading-based approaches. They also motivate learners to speak a second/foreign language in order to gain fluent speaking skills.

Cognitive Factors in Developing Oral Proficiency

From a cognitive perspective, language learners are active processors of information. In learning environments, language is used to create meaning, to encode ideas, to analyze and compare information, and to respond to discussions. All of these activities include cognitive factors (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

Language Acquisition Processes. Language acquisition processes involve mental activities that people employ to be able to communicate ideas. Two of the processes are directly related to the general cognitive mechanisms that

individuals use in learning a language: transfer and generalization.

Transfer is most noticeable when learners use rules from their first language that are not applicable to the second. That is, phrases or words are translated from the first language but there is no direct equivalence in a second language. This has been called "negative transfer" (Diaz-Rico & Weed, p. 32). The "negative" element is merely the surface representation. Meaning is not lost.

Contemporary theory recognizes the importance of the first language in a global sense and does not encourage learners to compare minor surface forms of the first and the second languages as they learn.

The second general cognitive strategy used by all learners is generalization (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). Generalization is the act of drawing a conclusion or making an inference. In first language acquisition, this process is seen when young children begin to acquire concepts and put labels on them. For example, children may say "Dadda" to any male because they generalize the concept "father" and the term to all the persons representative of the understood concept. In second language learning, the term "generalization" more often refers to situations in which

the learner incorrectly generalizes a rule to cases where it does not apply.

The interlanguage produced by second language learners is an intermediate language. It is a form that features some combination of constructs carried over from the first language with elements of the second. Corder (1978) calls this "language-learner language." Producing such a language form should be recognized as a dynamic process that is in constant progression toward increased proficiency.

Stages of Development. Second language learners are individuals who vary greatly in the their acquisition of a second language. However, there are generally accepted stages of development through which learners progress. Krashen and Terrell (1983) have posited three: comprehension, early production, and extending production.

In the comprehension stage, the learner of a new language simply needs to absorb the sounds and rhythms of the new language. For the most part, learners in the silent period feel anxious when expected to produce speech. Once a learner feels more confident, words and phrases may be attempted. The attempts stand for that the learner enters the second stage. This is called the "early production stage." The produced responses can consist of single words,

two- or three-word combinations, and phrases. In the third stage, extending production, second language acquisition speeds up considerably. Utterances become longer and more complex, students begin to recognize and correct their own errors, and they become more comfortable at initiating and sustaining conversations.

It is now recognized that, in natural situations, learners progress through stages in their acquisition of a second language. These stages are predicable, and learners advance through them at their own pace. Undue pressure to move through the stages rapidly only serves to frustrate and retard language learning (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

< Affective Factors in Developing Oral Proficiency >

To help learners develop oral communication is the ultimate goal for EFL language instructors. However, the classroom environment and the environment needed for natural language acquisition process may not be the same. People do not acquire their first language by practicing structured drills, or trying to make a sentence correct, but by using language as a means to communicate with others. The goal and need to communicate with others apply to ESL/EFL learners (Ernst & Richard, 1995).

Research on teaching and learning a second language has identified several important affective factors that affect learning achievement. The major factors include attitude, motivation, and anxiety. It is in these factors that teachers can best invest their effort and the selection of appropriate instructional approaches.

Attitudes. Attitudes develop as a result of experience, both direct and vicarious. They are greatly influenced by people in the learning environment. Attitudes toward self, the target language and the people who speak it (peers in particular), the teacher, and the classroom environment all have an influence on acquisition (Richard-Amato, 1996).

Motivation. One factor of which teachers need to be aware is motivation. Research has shown that integrative motivation and instrumental motivation are different. Integrative motivation refers to a desire to integrate and identify with the target language to group. Instrumental motivation refers to a desire to use the language to obtain practical goals such as studying in a technical field or getting a job (Gardner & Lambert, 1972).

Anxiety. When learning a second language, most students feel some anxiety in the classroom. This anxiety

is about desire to be perfect when speaking, and fear of making mistakes (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). Understanding the feelings of tension when performing a new language, teachers need to help learners overcome anxiety, and encourage them to speak English.

To maintain a positive attitude, increase motivation, and reduce anxiety, learners need a socially and affectively supportive environment to optimize their learning. The learners should be encouraged to practice pronunciation and converse in English. Even though the EFL learners are mostly situated in an artificial rather than natural environment, it is essential to create a supportive context that makes the best learning possible.

Speaking to communicate involves a variety of dimensions. This section started with the investigation of the role of output from the different views of researchers. Because it is important to recognize that the role of output is as fundamental as input, this literature review has presented teaching methods to help learners develop speaking skills. However, successful speakers must be willing to talk. Language teachers must realize the importance of cognitive as well as affective factors in

developing oral proficiency and invest effort in the selection of appropriate instructional approaches.

Interactional Competence

The goal of acquiring a second/foreign language is to make successful communication possible. Whereas listening and speaking skills are basic and essential for oral communication, other skills are also important. To make communication successful, ESL/EFL learners need another domain of proficiency: interactional competence. With this ability, people are able to become participants in whatever interactive conversation is taking place. Interactional competence goes beyond the basic skills of listening and speaking; this knowledge is best learned in the classroom before students experience a real-life situation.

Definition of Interactional Competence

According to Kramsch (1986), interaction is considered as a "collaborative activity which involves the establishment of a triangular relationship between the sender, the receiver, and the context of the situation" (p. 367). She explains that this involves face-to-face interaction between two or several speakers. Thus, successful interaction presupposes not only a shared

knowledge of the world and reference to a common external context of communication, but also the construction of a shared internal context or sphere of inter-subjectivity that is built through the collaborative efforts of the interactional partners. These efforts aim at reducing the uncertainty that each speaker has about the other's intentions, perceptions, and expectations. Therefore, interaction also involves negotiating intended meanings. (Kramsch, 1986).

Young (1999) states that "interactional competence is a theory of the knowledge that participants bring to and realize in interaction and includes an account of how such knowledge is acquired" (p. 118). Thus, second language knowledge is seen to exist not within the mind/brain of a single participant; rather, it is seen to be jointly constructed in interaction (Young, 1999).

The important domain of interactional competence describes what learners need to know in face-to-face interaction in order to participate with others in the interaction. It includes the knowledge that participants bring to a conversation, the internal and external context for interaction, and the achievement of interactional competence.

The Knowledge that Participants Bring to a Conversation

Spitzberg (1984) developed a model of interaction based on first language situations. He proposed that interaction knowledge lies in four main domains: cognitive complexity, role play, interactional discourse management, and empathy. As individuals acquire this knowledge, they are able to recognize and cooperate in reciprocal speech patterns when speaking to others. After a brief definition of each of these domains, I will use these four domains to organize what a second language speaker needs to consider in order to be interactionally competent.

Spitzberg labels cognitive complexity as the ability to flexibly process information about the social environment in a meaningful manner. Individuals who are considered capable of interpreting and reacting to cognitive complexity are able to bring perspective to social situations by using subtle and interpretative meanings about other people.

Role play refers to the actual adaptation to the role of another person. Role play requires the ability to interpret a specific character with certain clarity and accuracy. A highly capable person who is skilled in role

play may mostly be described as flexible, out-going, expressive, and warm. These attributes support skillful interactional management of interpersonal dialogue (Spitzberg, 1984).

Knowledge of interactional discourse management enables an individual to successfully and smoothly hold a conversation, negotiate in discussions, and maintain equal shares in turn-taking (Spitzberg, 1984). Kramsch (1993) believes that as speakers talk about their own ideas or life events, and engage in role play and social activities with others, they improve their interactional competence. As people experience more interactional events, they are exposed to social rules, principles of equity, and ways to show respect for others. Thus, speakers increase their ability to converse.

Empathy involves an emotional reaction, or an affective co-experience of another person's emotional state. Individuals with the capacity to empathize with another's feelings are good at predicting the responses of another person and also able to adapt themselves to the interactional situation. Empathy enables people to internalize sensitivity and show concern for the feelings of others (Spitzberg, 1984).

Second Language Acquisition Feature of Cognitive Complexity

Spitzberg (1984) states that cognitive complexity relates to the number and connection of cognitive schemata that people use in processing information about the social environment. He defines cognitive complexity as the capacity to interpret social behavior in various dimensions. He also refers to these dimensions as interpersonal constructs, which are the cognitive structures within which the behavior, appearance, and utterances of others are interpreted and given meaning. The more complex a person's construct system is, the more differentiated and flexible are the impressions of processed information. An individual who is able to deal with cognitively complexity is more capable of assessing situations and other people from a number of different perspectives and is able to incorporate contradictory information in an organized fashion. In order to become interpersonally competent, a person must develop the cognitive skills necessary for interpreting people and social situations. Such skills allow for the flexible and strategic adaptation of messages (Spitzberg, 1984).

Contextual considerations in an interaction can be seen as part of the cognitive complexity that a second language learner needs to address. When constructing a speech in a second/foreign language, the learner needs to consider other perspectives of interaction. ESL/EFL learners need to understand that this interaction is dependent on the context and the way this context is viewed by the participants. Ellis and Roberts (1987) define interactional context in second language acquisition as follows:

Context is created in interaction partly on the basis of particular and individual choices by speakers at a local level and partly by those speakers being able to make inferences about each other on the basis of shared knowledge and assumptions about the world and about how to accomplish things interactionally (p. 20).

In any situation of communication, there are always two elements of context: one is external, and the other is internal. According to Street, Brady, and Lee (1984), the surrounding environment of an interactional event is the external element in communicative situations. The speech behavior and the reactionary behavior of the participants

are related to circumstances surrounding discourse interaction.

Individuals tend to adapt their speech to informal language in a casual situation. Similarly, they adapt their speech to formal language in a formal situation. According to Hall (1993), there are some dimensions within discourse that are essential in the interactional setting. For instance, individuals strive to gain meaning from the social setting. When engaged in participating in the role playing through topic and idea sharing, speakers interpret the environmental hints and try to respond correctly. These attempts are aimed at making the speakers compatible with the surrounding environment.

Kramsch (1986) adds that internal context refers to the intentions, assumptions, and presuppositions of speakers and hearers, which ensure that the discourse is perceived as coherent and therefore makes sense for the participants.

The internal element during communicative interaction involves specific domain knowledge. The willingness for learners to interact in conversation relies on the knowledge and expertise that they have in various domains. When language learners are not certain about their

knowledge of the content, they may show unwillingness to be involved in discourse (Zuengler & Bent, 1991).

Both the external and internal contexts are needed for successful interactions. The successful ESL/EFL learners must consider these contextual factors as part of the social environment, and then act appropriately.

Achieving Second Language Input/Output Via Role Play

Role play describes an imaginative construction of another's role for purposes of managing interaction. This is the ability to think from another person's position and point of view (Spitzberg, 1984). By taking the role of others, a person gains second language proficiency in the various roles, cognitive constructs, and behavioral lines of action of others. For example, if a student is required to act like a teacher in a classroom activity, he or she will need to think in the way a teacher thinks and to talk in the way that a typical teacher talks. Role play requires an individual to internalize behavioral patterns or acts and to adapt to the construct system of the listener. The process helps learners acquire comprehensible input and produce appropriate output in a second language.

Second Language Discourse Management

Discourse management concerns the ability to deal with the procedural aspects of organizing and maintaining a conversation. This includes negotiation of topics discussed, turn taking, entering and exiting episodes, and handling topical development smoothly (Spitzberg, 1984).

Most teachers are not aware of the role of interaction management skills or the value of promoting interactive speaking skills. In fact, interactional competence is enhanced by the use of interaction strategies. These can be seen as a subset of Spitzberg's domain of discourse management.

By enhancing the interpretation of identity and message information, role-taking and empathic abilities allow better adjustment of responses and directions of dialogue in response to other interactants. As a result, management of communication should be more satisfying to the interactants.

There are at least two strategies that need to be considered by ESL/EFL educators: negotiation of meaning and turn-taking. These are the two most common strategies of acquiring interactional competence.

Negotiation of Meaning. According to Gass and Selinker (1994), to negotiate meaning, "participants need to interrupt the flow of the conversation in order for both parties to understand what the conversation is about" (p. 208). Pica (1994) considers negotiation of meaning as the process of exchanging the message and organization of communicative interaction to obtain comprehension. Not only do negotiation support normal conversation and the generating of meaning through interaction, but it also gives positive feedback to speakers. Through interacting with others, ESL/EFL learners are able to confirm comprehension and request clarification. Thus, ESL/EFL learners need to have opportunities to adapt their speech in the classroom.

Glew (1998) states that the learner's production is improved through corrective feedback during negotiation of meaning. When learners acquire corrective feedback, they are able to deal successfully with communicative difficulties through negotiation. For example, confirmation checks ("Is this what you mean?"), comprehension checks ("Do you understand? Do you follow me?"), and clarification requests ("What?" "Huh?") are some skills throughout conversations. Thus, negotiation makes the target language

forms clear enough for ESL/EFL learners to acquire appropriate use of the language. Any input that learners do not immediately understand can be negotiated in order to help learners to gain comprehensible input as well as to produce comprehensible output (Glew, 1998).

In the typical language classroom, teachers may be unable to provide the learners with authentic opportunities for meaning negotiation even though they know the significance of negotiation for ESL/EFL learners. However, teachers can create lessons to simulate the process of authentic meaning negotiation. For instance, language teachers can design activities and tasks that require learners to look for information within the responses of others, to screen out incorrect information, to seek or provide feedback, and to ask as well as answer questions. When learners and interlocutors work together to negotiate meaning, interactional competence is acquired.

Turn-taking. Turn-taking is a necessary part of conversation. The purpose of turn-taking is to introduce relevant topics and to understand as well as respond appropriately to a topic that is being discussed. ESL/EFL learners need to know the patterns of when to speak, when to keep silent, how long to speak, and how long to keep

silent. Though these patterns are internal, they are essential in successful oral interaction (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

A speaking turn refers to any meaningful utterance that is composed of more than one sentence or a word such as "really?" and "yeah" (Stasser & Taylor, 1991). In a shared and interactive conversation, all speakers need a speaking turn to keep a conversation going no matter what the length of the utterance. Thus, language learners need to develop the concept and habit of turn-taking in a classroom. There are two basic characteristics for learners to know about turn-taking. One is the knowledge of turn completion and the other is knowledge of when turn completion is taking place. With this understanding, learners are aware of the appropriate places of reference when speakers are taking a turn (Lerner, 1995).

Sometimes in normal conversation, one person is dominant and speaks for most of the time. Dominant speakers tend to hold the floor and take up the opportunities of others to speak. When this happens in an ESL/EFL learning situation, many of the participants may feel frustrated.

Dominant speaker turn-taking is a common, yet complicated, interpersonal and socio-cultural phenomenon.

Three processes may account for dominant speaker turn-taking within groups: (1) formation of speaking hierarchies within a group; (2) intermittent fluctuations in a member's tendencies to talk; and (3) competition among members for speaking time. Even though a turn is defined as a change of speakers, ultimately the dominant speakers tend to remain the most influential members in group decision-making (Martin-Jones & Saxena, 1996).

Martin-Jones and Saxena (1996) point out that turn-taking in classrooms helps learners acquire sufficient English. Often speakers get verbal support from one or more other speakers to show agreement or attentiveness by using fillers, comments, or questions within one speaker's turn. The facilitator, the teacher or one of the peers, of the group is usually the main supporter for a speaker. This supportive atmosphere can often lead to comments and support from other speakers without actually taking the turn from the original speaker. This type of participant support is not interruptive because it is cooperative and purposefully placed within a speaker's turn. For ESL/EFL teachers, this effect may be the goal to pursue when designing the interactional learning context.

Empathy

Empathy refers to some kind of imitation ability. Empathy does not involve one's taking account of, analysis of and adaptation to the role of another as does role-taking (Spitzberg, 1984). In contrast, empathy involves the ability to interpret others' emotion, to convey warmth, and to be assertive. In conversation, empathy increases the ability to understand the people with whom an individual is having dialogue. It also brings people closer and motivates more on-going interactions.

To sum up, interactional competence is the ability to organize one's thoughts and manipulate one's role as an interactional partner in a second/foreign language. Being able to participate and interact with native speakers is a better way for learners to make oral communication successful.

Cultural Influence on Communication

Beyond listening and speaking skills, interactional competence effectively enhances language learners' ability to communicate more effectively. But breakdowns in interpersonal communications may still occur.

As suggested in the previous discussion, ESL/EFL learners need knowledge about the context in real-life conversation situations. Understanding cultural differences is another significant domain of communicative competence and is used in parallel with interactional competence.

Definition of Culture

Culture is considered as the explicit and implicit patterns of behaviors, symbols and ideas that constitute the distinctive achievements of human groups (Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952).

Robinson (1985) defines culture as "a dynamic system of symbols and meanings that involves an ongoing, dialectic process where past experience influences meaning, which in turn affects future experience, which in turn affects subsequent meaning, and so on" (p. 11).

Diaz-Rico and Weed (2002) offer this definition of culture: culture is the explicit and implicit patterns for living, the dynamic system of commonly-agreed-upon symbols and meanings, knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, customs, behaviors, traditions and/or habits that are shared and make up the total way of life of a people, as a negotiated by individuals in the process of constructing a personal identity.

Cultural Differences

Every culture has its own internal coherence and logic. Each culture and its accompanying structures of norms, values, attitudes, and beliefs are an intertwined fabric and design that has an internal cohesion. Thus, no one culture is inherently better or worse than another because every culture is its own understandable system (Adler, 1987). When two cultures come into contact, misunderstandings can occur because members of these cultures have different perceptions, behaviors, customs, and ideas. Thus, how people interact with each other and how they carry out their messages are important to ESL/EFL language learners.

According to Hanvey (1987), crosscultural awareness is a difficult, sophisticated skill and is needed in order to acquire proficiency in second/foreign language learning. It is one thing to have some information about world conditions--the air is saturated with that type of knowledge. It is another thing to comprehend and accept the consequences of the basic human capacity "for creating unique cultures--with the resultant profound differences in outlook and practice manifested among societies" (p. 13). Cultural awareness can be seen as "the recognition that

culture affects perception and that culture influences values, attitudes and behavior" (Gaston, 1992, p. 2).

Individuals begin their own cultural development at a very early age, and by the time they become adults, they have already developed concepts concerning appropriate behavior in social environments. They take the concepts learned from their original culture for granted and often apply them to speaking the language of another culture. Without being aware of cultural differences, they may encounter communicative problems unrelated to their linguistic knowledge. The impact could be significant, but little attention is paid to this issue in most ESL/EFL classrooms (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

The Relationship Between Language, Culture, and Communication

Language is one important aspect of culture. According to Fantini (1997), language and culture are considered as dimensions that belong to each other; that is, they are inseparable. It would be completely impossible to divorce language from culture because of the strong embedding of cultural information in language use and interpretation. Thus, the culture has an influence on distinct patterns and conventions of the language indicating how, when, and where

to use the language. The acquisition of language cannot be separated from the study of culture.

Verbal and nonverbal languages allow individuals to connect to one another, offer a primary channel for a common identity, and generate a medium for interaction and negotiation. Language is not considered as an individual behavior but as one of many symbolic systems which members of a society use for communication among themselves. Language is the creation that helps cultural development (Fantini, 1997).

Through language acquisition, a newborn baby evolves into full participation in human society. In the process, a person's communicative ability permits him or her to develop human qualities by learning from vicarious and symbolic experiences (Fantini, 1997). Moreover, "language allows people to help formulate their thoughts, and to express them to someone else" (p. 10). As a mirror of how individuals perceive, transfer and think about, and state their views of the world, language reflects and affects individual views. Without language, none of these is possible.

Culture is the product of human communicative activities. "The verbal and nonverbal communicative

patterns that individuals develop are the result of adaptation in particular ways to the demands and opportunities presented by their cultures" (Ruben & Lederman, 1990, p.206). As a result, culture and human communication have a mutually influencing relationship. "Humans shape cultures through communication; on the other hand, cultures shape communication as well" (p. 206).

Culture and communication have a close relationship because culture is defined, shaped, transmitted and learned through communication. Fantini (1997) declares that culture is communication, and communication is culture. Thus, culture and communication are virtually inseparable and affect each other.

Culture influences every aspect of a society, and it affects the effectiveness of communication. Understanding the target culture can assist ESL/EFL learners to attain effective communication with native speakers.

Cultural Barriers to Communication

Communication between people is a complex process. When people attempt to engage themselves in that process from different cultures, the result may be a sophisticated crosscultural communication or a fiasco. As ESL/EFL learners communicate with native speakers, they must be

aware of cultural differences in order to prevent cultural misunderstanding. Grammatical errors may be annoying and hinder communication, but they are obvious in the surface structure. Native speakers seldom feel offended or draw negative conclusions by grammatical errors. However, when nonnative speakers make mistakes in cultural knowledge, natives may react very negatively (Bennett, 1993).

In addition, Bennett (1993) points out that many language learners think of language simply as a communication tool. That is, language is a medium that humans use to describe the objects and ideas of their physical and social world. Based on this view, learning a foreign/second language is an act of performing words and rules that function with the same meaning using a different tool than the first language. Treating languages only as sets of vocabulary linked by rules may lead to unnecessary mistakes.

Bennett explains that this kind of thinking will make a language learner become a fluent fool. This means that learners are able to speak a second/foreign language well, but do not recognize the social or philosophical content of that language. These learners probably get into the trouble of giving or taking offense when encountering complex or

subtle social situations. Consequently, native speakers may have negative opinions of learners because they understand the language but misunderstand the values and beliefs of learners.

Cultural misunderstanding takes place when speakers do not have adequate knowledge of, and sufficient exposure to, the target culture as well as a lack of understanding of the differences between the two cultures. Therefore, it is essential that learners realize that a good command of language forms alone is insufficient for the needs of communication. They need to be familiar not only with grammatical usage but also with referential meaning and social meanings. When members of very different cultures meet, communication is full of cultural information of all kinds. Many language learners do not understand that a lack of crosscultural awareness and sensitivity can result in misunderstandings and communication breakdowns, not caused by incorrect tenses or wrong word orders (Dornyei & Thurrel, 1994).

Knowledge of the target culture remains an important part of language learning. Because the crosscultural knowledge that underlies communication does not come easily, it is necessary to carefully study the target

culture to choose appropriate and relevant norms, conventions, and rules.

Strategies for Increasing Cultural Understanding

Many language learners understand that the knowledge of the sounds, grammar, and vocabulary of the target language is essential for sharing ideas. At times, understanding may not take place, even though learners are able to speak the target language fluently. Words in themselves might be too limiting. One important factor in understanding has to deal with cultural aspects that go beyond the lexical aspects. These aspects are composed of many dimensions in communication (Morain, 1987).

Crosscultural miscommunications may occur when language learners meet native speakers. Realistically, it is impossible to predict all the potential problems that cultural differences can create in communication and interaction as well as to provide an accurate solution for each.

A general approach toward improving communications is provided by Szalay & Fisher (1987). First, when interacting with native speakers, language learners need to recognize the existence of cultural differences. The translations of their ideas in another language are not likely to convey

the same meaning completely. Although the objective, specific meanings, may be comprehended, the subjective meanings may be misunderstood. Thus, learners must be aware of cultural differences, which do exist, to determine how effective the communications will be.

Next, because of their culture and life experiences, individuals produce different patterns of thinking, or frames of reference. Language learners must realize that meanings of words that the native speakers use to communicate their ideas cannot be separated from cultural frames of reference.

Finally, language learners need to study the cultural relationship to the meanings of words used in order to communicate within the culture. They can focus on learning the natural priorities of the particular culture and analyzing the psychological meaning of words describing the concepts that are important to native speakers. The understanding of culture enables learners to communicate more successfully using the relevant information. As a result, by incorporating the cultural frame of reference, learners are able to communicate effectively with native speakers (Szalay & Fisher, 1987).

Although the various definitions of culture each emphasize different aspects, the common idea is that language is part of culture. Because each group has different culture, it affects the way people communicate. It is natural that cultural barriers occur when communicating with native speakers. Understanding cultural differences and using strategies can help the learners communicate effectively within crosscultural situations.

Simulation of Interaction

To communicate effectively with native speakers, the previous analyses indicate that it is necessary to consider the following domains of competence: listening and speaking proficiency, interactional competence, and cultural differences in communication. In order for second language learners to gain this competence, it is necessary to present the target language in an instructional format.

Communication is a natural, dynamic, and complicated process. Effective communication involves the creation, interpretation, negotiation, and exchange of meanings between individuals and within and between social groups (Fiske, 1982). Simulation is one instructional method that uses authentic materials and contents to help learners

practice oral communication for real-world experiences (Harper, 1985). The purpose of simulation is to have language learners interact in meaningful and realistic contexts, generating their own discourse (Porto, 1997). Simulation provides the opportunity for teaching the integration of listening and speaking skills, interactional competence and cultural differences in communication.

The Importance of Simulation in Language Instruction

Individuals learn about the world in learning a language, and likewise the activity called "simulating" is also learning about the world (Crookall & Oxford, 1990, p. 14). Various reasons are often cited for using simulation in language learning. First, it motivates and is fun. Second, it is more correlated with the learning process than chalk-and-talk teaching practices. Third, it is more like the real world than the typical language classroom. Finally, simulation results in positive outcomes, such as more active participation, improved performance, greater retention, and better understanding of complexity (Crookall & Oxford, 1990).

Language is the tool of oral communication, and it is best obtained through active participation. Individuals

obtain knowledge of communication process through everyday experiences in a society. Though individuals can learn a second/foreign language in a classroom, that kind of learning is insufficient. Such concepts as when and how to use the language and the differences between words, are learned in everyday social environments when the language is used (Ruben & Lederman, 1990). In addition, Hall (1995) points out that interactional competence of language learners needs to be developed in the interactive practices of foreign language classrooms.

Using Simulation to Achieve Interactional Competence

Simulation asserts learners to achieve interactional competence in speaking and listening within cultural contexts. In order for student interaction to be effective, a curriculum must address four aspects of interaction: cognitive complexity, effective role play, management of discourse, and attainment of empathy. Harper (1985) describes simulation as "a simplification of a real-world situation." It involves learners in activities like unscripted role play or games. These may range from simple puzzle solving to complex situations that involve "analysis, decision making, and action" (p. 219). Ruben and

Lederman (1990) define simulations as "operating models of reality or some aspect thereof" (p. 208). In other words, simulations can be seen as real experiences. Participants are provided with real insights into these experiences and the implications of them for the other realities of interaction in the world outside the structured experience (Ruben & Lederman, 1990).

Researchers have observed that in the traditional classroom the teacher normally controls the entire conversation. For example, the teacher always determines who will speak, what will be spoken about, and even how long the conversation will last and when it will end. In addition, Long and Sato (1983) note that in teacher-dominated classrooms conversational participants are frequently asked "display" or "test" questions that call for answers demonstrating knowledge. Without opportunities to practice, students fail to develop the competence needed for their own successful participation.

The development of the ability to interact in the target language is a significant objective of foreign language learning. To achieve this goal, teachers of these classes must engage the students in "natural conversation"

in the target language in order to promote such development.

Simulation can compensate for the limitations of the traditional teacher-centered language classroom by relocating the locus of conversational control and allowing other language patterns to be introduced and experienced. That is, simulation can be used to assist learners to develop communication strategies, such as turn-taking and negotiation (Scarcella & Crookall, 1990).

In addition, simulation can go some way toward "declassrooming" the classroom. It can provide learners with a whole range of conversational models between a variety of speakers, such as employers/employees, buyers/sellers and doctors/patients, in a variety of speech situations (Scarcella & Crookall, 1990). Language learners will become more aware of appropriate interaction surrounding different environments.

Benefits for Listening and Speaking

As shown in current research, simulation has been used to improve second/foreign language acquisition. Simulations facilitate language learning in many aspects, including listening comprehension, active involvement, and speaking

skills (Scarcella & Crookall, 1990; Crookall & Oxford, 1990).

Speakers often simplify their language after failing to convey a given message to their partners. Speakers may slow down, repeat, use simpler sentences, change the topic to one that is easily understood, or check to be sure that their partners comprehend what is said (Gass & Madden, 1985). The communication patterns in language simulations facilitate the ways in which accommodation and simplification occur (Jones, 1986). Scarcella and Crookall (1990) consider simulation as an ideal tool for providing language learners with comprehensible input because they include provision for sufficient input from instructors and their peers.

An important aspect that simulations provide is active involvement. Researchers have discovered that simulation creates motivation and involvement (Orbach, 1979; Bredemeier & Greenblat, 1981). Not only do simulations facilitate the learners' attention to input, but they also encourage a focus on communicating meaning, so that language learners become actively involved in simulation. Such involvement helps learners forget they are learning the new language and encourages them to use the target

language in a meaningful and interesting situation (Scarcella & Crookall, 1990).

Another aspect of simulations for language acquisition is associated with speaking skills. Because they are based on real-life situations, simulations utilize communicative and learner-centered activities (Harper, 1985). They provide learners with authentic materials in which they can practice and develop speaking skills in second/foreign language. Because simulations emphasize learning by doing, communication skills can be converted to those useful outside the classroom. Thus, simulations assist language learners to transfer skills to a real-life situation (Scarcella & Crookall, 1990).

The Relation of Simulation and Affective Filter

Simulation techniques are seen as a successful means to obtain instructional objectives. Moreover, they provide opportunities to promote the positive psychological and social development of learners. According to Gardner (1981), second/foreign language learning not only involves the acquisition of a new symbol system but also highlights the role of social psychological variables in second/foreign language learning. Role play simulation is a technique to build or improve social skills involved in a

small group. Thus, it encourages learners to experience the target culture and perform language from the perspective of social interaction.

Harper (1985) points out that the implications of simulation go beyond the linguistic and the pedagogical elements. There are social and psychological advantages to be obtained from simulations. Simulations advance the social and psychological development of learners because they can be designed to emphasize individual opinions, encourage creativity, and boost self-esteem.

When learners use a foreign language in the classroom, there is a need to help them build self-esteem. When faced with the need to communicate in the target language, learners may feel like children again. Thus, learners need to be involved in activities that identify their values, create meaningful communication, and allow them to consider themselves able communicators. Simulations prepare learners to express needs, desires, attitudes and feelings as well as build confidence (Harper, 1985).

Research has shown that language anxiety has negative effects in the achievement of second language. It can interfere with effective language learning and cause learners not to take risks. Most people feel some anxiety

as they learn and perform in a new language. When learning a second language, anxiety exists because learners encounter tension in the classroom, and they desire to speak perfectly and fear making mistakes (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). Learners realize they are unable to communicate successfully in a new language or comprehend others readily, and their self-confidence is threatened.

Crookall and Oxford (1991) propose that a simulation can provide a warm and friendly environment to encourage learners to speak the target language by lowering their anxiety. Because learners are under less pressure to produce complex language than they may be in other situations, simulation reduces anxiety.

In addition, a significant advantage of simulation is its low error consequence for the real world. That is, if errors are made in the simulation, the real situation and people being demonstrated will not be affected. It is possible that communication mistakes will occur in the simulation; however, the gaffes will not have any serious effects in a real-life situation. This allows language learners to make mistakes in simulations that would be less acceptable in other classrooms. As a result, language learners are free to practice the target language without

fear of punishment or criticism. Simulations reduce anxiety, encourage willingness to take risks, increase positive feelings and gain self-confidence (Crookall & Oxford, 1990). Thus, simulations decrease the affective filter and assist ESL/EFL learners to acquire the language.

The Use of Simulation for Cultural Instruction

Communication is culture-bound; teaching a second/foreign language entails teaching culture. However, modeling and teaching the difference of culture, the pervasive influence of communication, and the relationship between them is difficult in typical language teaching methodology (Lederman & Ruben, 1984).

Ruben and Lederman (1990) point out that the use of interactive simulations is a meaningful method to teach culture and the relationship between culture and communication. Shoemaker and Shoemaker (1991) state that interactive simulation is a way which provides learning about communication and culture with direct and actual experience. It allows language learners to become involved and produce natural language and recognize cultural behaviors that are appropriate to native speakers.

According to Ruben and Lederman's analyses, there are two types of simulations to facilitate cultural

understanding in communication: specific and generic. These are designed to provide culture-specific learning and foster culture-generic learning.

Specific Simulations. The aim of simulations is to teach learners about the components of a particular culture. For example, role play simulations are designed for learners to apply their knowledge of verbal and nonverbal of a particular society. By the use of simulation as a teaching device, learners are able to realize particular verbal and nonverbal communication patterns when acting out in particular contexts.

Cultural-specific simulations can be implemented to enrich instruction, featuring language, gestures, facial expressions and customs with cultural content. Compared to traditional methods of instruction, cultural-specific simulations are more productive and effective (Ruben & Lederman, 1990).

Generic Simulations. Another type of simulation is for more general learning about the nature of culture and communication and their relationship between them. Generic simulations motivate learning about the processes underlying the development and change of all cultures, while the goal of a culture-specific simulation is to

foster learning about particular cultures. A culture-generic simulation is designed to duplicate the process through which common verbal and nonverbal symbols develop within a culture (Ruben & Lederman, 1990).

Generally, simulations are designed to promote learning related to the nature and development of culture, the role of communication in these processes, and difficulties of crosscultural communication.

"Tell me and I forget, teach me and I remember, involve me and I will learn" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 100). Simulation provides the opportunities for ESL/EFL learners to experience real communication, and it allows participants to learn by doing. Through simulation, ESL/EFL learners are able to acquire the knowledge of cultural differences and interactional competence as well as practice basic skills of listening and speaking. Because simulation creates a low-affective environment, it provides an effective means of facilitating learners to obtain second/foreign language proficiency.

A primary goal of learning English as a foreign language is to achieve successful oral communication. Based on theories and empirical studies, this chapter has presented a review of the literature for developing oral

communication. This communication involves not only the ability to listen and speak but also to achieve interactional competence and the awareness of cultural differences. Listening and speaking are two main channels to learning a new language. Achieving interactional competence and understanding cultural influence on communication are kinds of knowledge that make communication successful. None of these elements can be neglected. Simulation is a means to provide learners with the primary skills and the knowledge necessary to make oral communication successful.

CHAPTER THREE

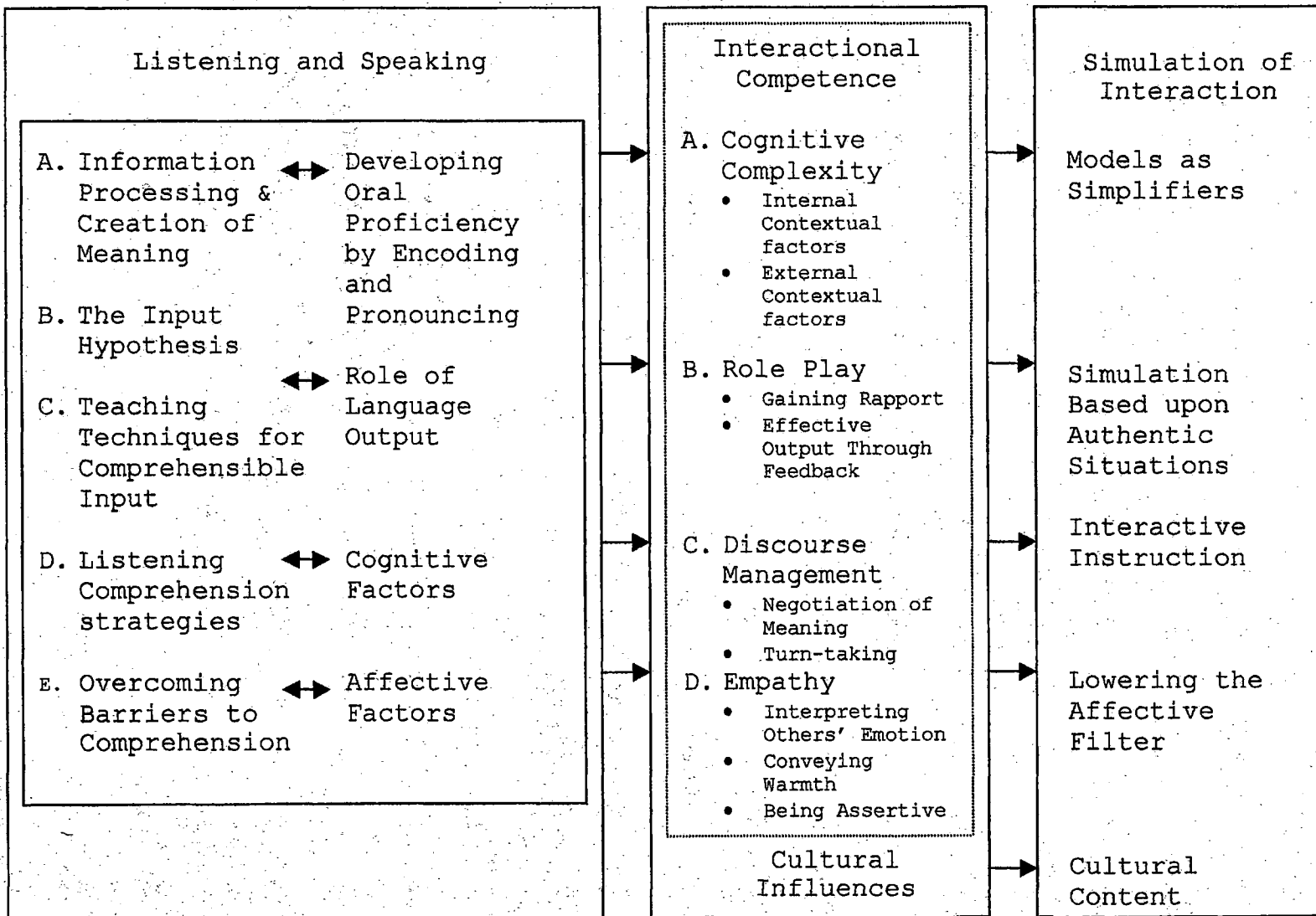
A MODEL OF TEACHING INSTRUCTION

The main purpose of this project is to find ways to help EFL learners develop oral communicative ability. As presented previously in the literature review, several theories have promising implications regarding the development and shaping of oral communicative competence in foreign language instruction. This chapter synthesizes these theories and builds an instructional model upon them. The model incorporates important pedagogical suggestions for the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language.

Description of the Model

As shown in Figure 3.1, the proposed model comprises three major parts. Each part is composed of four categories. Listening and speaking occupy the first part of learning a foreign language. After the primary part, next in importance is achieving interactional competence within cultural influences. Simulation of interaction comprises the third part, the implementation in instruction.

Figure 1. Model of Interaction in Listening and Speaking Within a Cultural Context



Listening and speaking are considered as the primary instruction goals for EFL students in learning a new language. Listening and speaking skills affect each other and are interwoven. EFL students should be exposed to authentic contexts to gain both skills. After all, they are major channels for communication.

Beyond listening and speaking proficiency, interactional competence and cultural influence on communication need to be integrated in instruction to make successful communication possible. Acquiring oral communication in English is composed of many aspects. Listening and speaking skills are not sufficient in oral communication. As presented earlier, interactional competence and cultural influence on communication must be present in the class.

Simulation is a valuable means to realize the goal of developing listening and speaking proficiency in EFL instruction. This kind of oral communication refers to the functional use of the language in order to express needs, desires, attitudes, feelings and so forth. The aim of simulation is to provide ESL students with language use in real-life situations. The representation of reality captured

in simulation keeps to increase students' motivation and confidence to communicate outside the classroom.

Four categories present the detail of this model. Each category is to be viewed across three boxes in Figure 1, from left to right. First, information processing and the creation of meaning during listening corresponds directly to the encoding and pronouncing involved in oral proficiency. This relationship suggests that oral proficiency develops when the processing of information occurs in short term and long term memory of the learner. As the learners make sense of the meaning of information and respond to it, they develop the capacity to address the cognitive complexity of the context where internal and external factors support the interactional competence. For the instructor in the classroom interaction, the teacher needs to simplify this complexity means of simulation to allow learners to process the information easily and clearly.

Second, comprehensible input and comprehensible output can be obtained through role play. Role play functions in interactional settings as the source of opportunities for learners to practice a new language. During the role play, learners gain rapport and effective output through feedback. In turn, instructors must provide learners with simulation

based upon authentic situations. In such simulated situations, input and output in the role play facilitate learners to improve their foreign language.

Third, listening comprehension strategies correspond with cognitive factors of speaking to support discourse management in interaction. By using these strategies, learners are able to interact in discourse to negotiate meaning and take turns. The instructor must provide learners with interactive instruction so that learners can use the strategies in the classroom before a real-life situation.

Last, the affective factors need to be considered in interactive teaching context. To overcome barriers to comprehension, learners need affective support, such as motivation, confidence, and change of attitude. This same affective support is necessary during speaking. During interaction, learners also need to interpret others' emotion and maintain positive attitudes. Thus, each player conveys warmth to one another. The instructor should also make use of simulation to lower the affective filter in learning. This will reduce learners' anxiety and build up confidence.

As presented in the previous chapter, listening and speaking are basic skills to learning a foreign language. Gaining interactional competence and understanding cultural

influence on communication are knowledge in order to communicate effectively with native speakers. To provide learners with the fundamental skills and the necessary knowledge, simulation is a good instructional approach. This model describes the relationship between necessary skills and knowledge, and simulation in instruction.

Application of the Model

The previous section has described how a theoretical model integrates key ideas from the literature review. This describes the necessary considerations in helping foreign language learners gain oral communication proficiency in interactive instruction. When this kind of interaction is simulated in classroom activities, there are at least two advantages. First, the learning experience is concrete. There are always many things which textbooks or audiotapes are unable to convey in the classroom. Simulation offers learners authentically based situations to deal with communication. Questions or real-time responses both stimulate learners to exercise more mental effort. Thus, learning is boosted.

The other advantage of simulation is that learners play a more active role in their learning. When learners take

more control of the learning process, they feel more responsibility in interpreting the incoming messages and finding words or phrases for appropriate responses.

As illustrated in the model, the instructional simulations that help learners acquire listening and speaking ability do not work alone. Considerations of interactional competence and cultural influence on communication are to be integrated first. The role of the teacher is to convert such considerations into the interactive context to optimize the students' learning.

CHAPTER FOUR

CURRICULUM DESIGN

The previous chapters have laid a theoretical foundation for EFL teachers to design courses and classroom activities to help students achieve oral communicative competence. For explicit demonstration of the model, six lessons are presented based upon the model presented in Chapter Three. Each lesson comprises the characteristics of the model: cognitive complexity, input/output through role play, discourse management through negotiated turn-taking, and skillful use of affective factors.

As indicated in the first chapter, the project is aimed at the foreign language instruction in the vocational college (specifically, with Taiwan as the arena). The instructional topic of the unit focuses on management training. This is to get students involved in more authentic situations and to present potential problems they may encounter in the future workplace. This chapter presents six lesson plans: Employee Supervision, Financial Control, Product Control, Advertising, Customer Relations, and Store Security and Maintenance.

Curriculum Organization

The six lesson plans are designed to cover the duties that a manager of a supplies store has. These lessons provide concrete opportunities for learners to explore English in professional areas. And they also present some problems that students may encounter in the real situations. Because oral communication goes beyond the use of vocabulary and grammar, each lesson plan is designed to help learners develop oral communicative competence through simulated situations.

Each lesson plan includes materials, objectives, warm-up activities, four task chains, and assessment. Materials are chart paper, worksheets, and focus sheets accompanied by some activities. At the end of each lesson, teachers must use an assessment sheet to maintain a long-term record of students' progress. These lesson plans provide teachers with clear instructions to follow.

Lesson One, Employee Supervision, engages learners in the context of a store manager's supervisory duties. To warm up students in this lesson, the instructor first explains to the students that supervisory duties include hiring, scheduling, training/counseling, enforcing benefits, and firing employees. The primary objective of Lesson One is to

train students to deal with supervisory duties in English. Because many students have no idea what kind of situation may occur, two dialogues are provided during activity segment. Students explore simple dialogues related to a manager's supervisory duties so that they understand what a conversation would be in the supervisory context. In this lesson, students not only learn new vocabulary and phrases regarding supervisory duties, but also gain strategies to solve the problems that they may encounter during these duties.

Lesson Two, Financial Control, deals with a manager's financial responsibilities. This lesson emphasizes basic knowledge of financial transactions in English. Because students need to know special terms such as cash control, banking deposits, cash reports, and credit card transactions, the instructor will cover these terms to students first in the first activity. In this lesson, the context involves students role playing financial duties in two dialogues. A brainstorming session will be held before students make their own dialogues. Students are asked to play the roles, then discuss what their feelings were during the role play. In this lesson, students will learn how to deal with financial duties in English.

Lesson Three focuses on product control duties of a manager of an office supply store. These duties include ordering, display, and product policies. This lesson, Product Control, provides students with opportunities to practice English in ordering products, arranging product display, and carrying out product policies for an office supply store.

Advertising is an important part of the duties of a manager. The fourth lesson, Advertising, involves students in some activities concerning product promotion. Students need to learn the knowledge related to marketing products.

Lesson Five is Customer Relations. In this lesson, students will learn to take care of potential problems with customers, which they may encounter in the workplace. Students rehearse activities in the context of dealing with customer service, which is a very common business challenge. Students need to deal with problems they will encounter in real situations. Some job-related expressions and vocabulary are introduced before students start the role-play activity.

Store Security and Maintenance is the last lesson plan of the unit. A manager of an office supply store is responsible for everything related to security and maintenance. Thus, students must learn about the store security and maintenance in English. The purpose of this

lesson is give students practice related to problems they may encounter with security and maintenance of a store. The dialogue in this lesson presents students the emergency situation of a fire.

The goal of the six lesson plans is to train students to be a manager of an office supply store. Students will improve oral communication through authentic context in this unit.

Learner-Centered Simulation

All the lesson plans presented in this chapter are simulations of real life conversations. The lesson plans integrate some domain knowledge beyond vocabulary and grammar so that they look more realistic to students. The primary treatment of these learning activities is that they are learner-centered. In other words, the teacher will mostly play the role of facilitator, not lecturer. Though guidance and materials are to be provided by the teacher, students learn from the process that they participate in the activities.

All the lesson plans include warm-up sessions and task chains. When students play a more central role in the lesson, one major challenge for the teacher is to keep

students motivated and actively participating in the activities. When students appear frustrated or bored, the teacher will need to figure out ways to boost interest. This may require experience and creative intervention. Thus, learning English becomes more like an art rather than a mere school subject.

CHAPTER FIVE

ASSESSMENT

The Purpose of Assessment

Assessments of language learning are given in an attempt to understand students' problems in the target language with a reasonable amount of accuracy, and to measure to what extent students have reached course or program objectives (Richard-Amato, 1996). Therefore, assessment is viewed as a form of outcome that is an important part of the language learning in the classroom.

Traditional assessment techniques in language often stress vocabulary and grammatical constituents, or they may have emphasized several skills simultaneously. Often these methods of assessment of language knowledge are designed and implemented in isolation from real contexts. It is not surprising that many EFL students with high scores on traditional tests fail to apply the language knowledge in actual speaking tasks. In contrast, interactive and on-going approaches to assessment may tell the teacher more valuable information about students' language learning.

The purpose of ongoing assessment is to give teachers information about learners' strengths and areas of

difficulty. Good assessment procedures give teachers specific information which will be helpful for planning future learning activities. For this reason, an assessment procedure needs to be based upon an authentic context which is realistic to the learners.

For most EFL students, however, assessment means taking a test of vocabulary memorization in the format of multiple-choice, fill-in-the-blank, and discrete-item tests. This type of assessment does not involve practical language application skills.

According to Valencia (1997), assessment based on paper-and-pencil tests may underestimate the performance of students when are unable to respond under the constraints of the testing environment. In addition, the paper-and-pencil assessment often focuses on lexical, grammatical, and structural knowledge. This type of assessment has certain drawbacks: (a) The test questions appear out of context; (b) the test does not require students to use the language as it appears in normal, everyday life; and (c) the test may not show a complete and correct picture of the learner's proficiency level, and weaknesses (Chao, 1999). Therefore, new assessment must be developed to include functional language use.

Assessment demonstrates how well the teachers teach and the students learn. Therefore, comparisons among students may not be necessary. What teachers need is information that shows learner's weakness and progress in learning so that appropriate instructional support can be provided. In other words, assessment has instructional purposes for teachers. Assessment information can assist teachers to identify student needs and decide appropriate methods and materials. In addition, it helps teacher understand students' motivation and attitudes as well as the learning process.

Teacher Observation and Evaluation

Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995) suggest that teachers are in the best position to observe and evaluate students on an on-going basis. Moreover, teachers are responsible for communicating students' progress to administrators, parents, and students themselves. Documenting student progress and diagnosing student needs are two main purposes of teacher evaluation. Much of this data can be gained as teachers design tests and observe students as they participate in the activities.

As students interact and communicate using a second language, an observant teacher can note individual differences. Observations of speaking and listening should extend across all areas of the curriculum and in all types of interactional situations. Observations may be formal or informal. They may be based on highly structured content or on divergent and creative activities. Multiple observations show student variety and progress (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

Assessment in the Curriculum

The assessment for the curriculum presented in Chapter Four and Appendix A utilizes a variety of methods. In Lesson One, Employee Supervision, the teacher will grade students on vocabulary, contents, speech clarity, communication effectiveness, and participation in the activity during role play. In addition, using Assessment Sheet 1.2, the teacher is able to evaluate what students have learned about the supervisory duties that a manager has, what awareness that interviewers and interviewees need to have during an interview, and other useful strategies. In Lesson Two, Financial Control, the assessment focuses on the financial management that a manager has to deal with, the communicative ability that a manager must have during

role play, and the strategies that work better for credit card functioning. In Lesson Three, Product Control, the instructor evaluates what students have learned regarding the duties in product control that a manager has, the situation that took place during role play, and better strategies concerning product display. In Lesson Four, Advertising, the teacher is able to assess what students have learned about the advertising duties that a manager has, the problem solving necessary during role play, and better strategies related to advertising. In Lesson Five, Customer Relations, the teacher can assess what students have learned about the duties of a store manager regarding customer relations, the communicative skills needed during role play, and strategies concerning customer relations. In addition, the teacher also monitors students' performance in vocabulary, content, speech clarity, communication effectiveness, and participation in the activity. In Lesson Six, Store Security and Maintenance, the assessment particularly stresses what students know about managerial duties regarding store security and maintenance, the communication skills needed during role play, and the strategies that a manager needs to deal with in case of a fire.

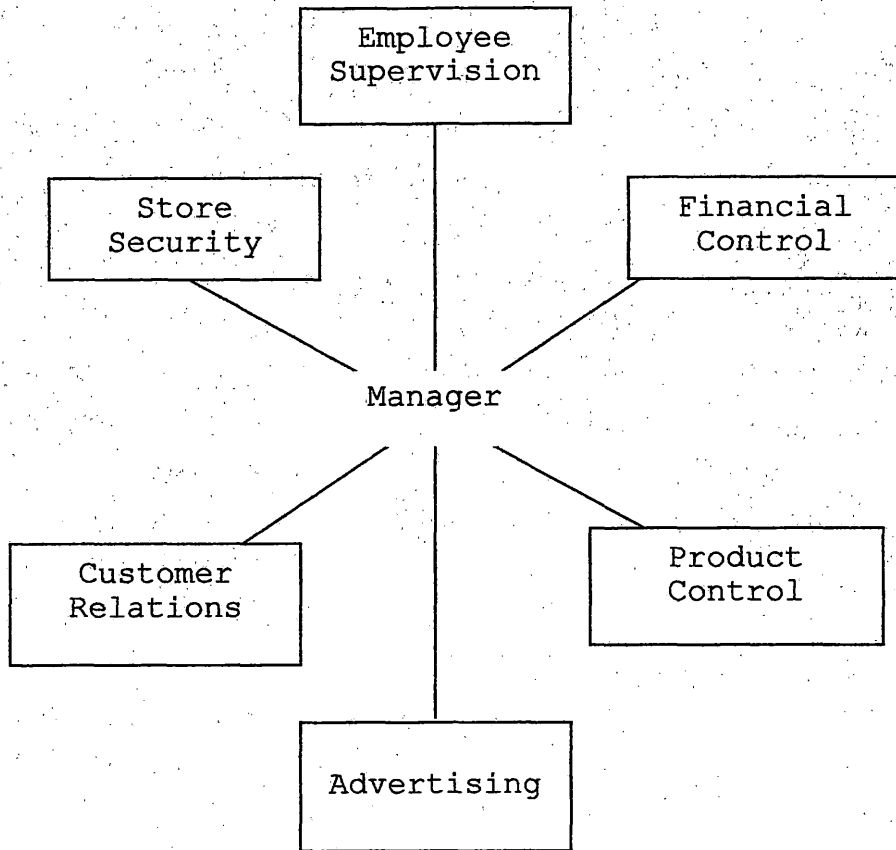
Through these methods of assessment, the teacher will maintain a long-term and on-going record of students' progress. The information will provide clear and rich description of students' learning process, and also provide the teacher with information to improve the curriculum design.

Therefore, using appropriate assessment, the curriculum design will instantiate the theoretical model, which combines listening, speaking, interactional competence, cultural influences, and simulation.

The significance of this project is to help English teachers improve teaching methods. Using this innovative curriculum as shown by the sample unit, teachers will find each lesson plan more effective and practical to foreign language learners.

APPENDIX A:
LESSON PLANS

Lesson Unit: Learning to Manage an Office Supply Store



Lesson One Employee Supervision

Level: Intermediate

Time: 60 minutes

Materials:

1. Chart paper
2. Focus Sheet
3. Worksheet
4. Self-assessment Sheet
5. Assessment sheet

Objectives:

1. To survey the complex duties of a store manager involving employee supervision
2. To gain comprehensible input and effective output through role play of a supervisor's role
3. To develop strategies in supervisory discourse
4. To be aware of the emotion of different roles

Warm-up:

1. Working with a partner, students identify one duty that a manager has related to employee supervision. Each pair of students then offers their idea.

Task Chain 1: Surveying the complex duties involving employee supervision

1. Using Focus Sheet 1.2, the instructor explains the duties of a store manager having to do with supervisory responsibilities. Supervisory duties include hiring, training, scheduling, counseling, and firing employees.
2. Each student receives Focus Sheet 1.3 that presents vocabulary regarding supervisory duties.
3. The instructor explains vocabulary to students.
4. Students are grouped into pairs.
5. Each group is given Worksheet 1.1 to decide which word belongs to hiring, training, scheduling, counseling, or firing employees.

Task Chain 2: Gaining comprehensible input and effective output through role play of a supervisor's role

1. Students are divided into groups of four.

2. The instructor gives each group the dialogues on Focus Sheet 1.4, instructing the groups to use chart paper to make a list of words or phrases that they do not understand.
3. The instructor explains to students the words or phrases on the chart paper.
4. Using Worksheet 1.2, students choose a dialogue from Focus Sheet 1.4 and write down their answers on Worksheet 1.2.
5. The instructor directs students to play roles in a job interview situation.
6. Students need to decide who will be the team of interviewers and who will be the job applicants.
7. The instructor tells members of the group to read the appropriate role description sheets (as shown in Focus Sheet 1.5 and 1.6).
8. Interviewers need to make basic information that they want to know.
9. Applicants need to prepare how to answer basic interview questions.
10. Through Self-assessment Sheet 1.1, students are able to self-assess their skills in oral communication after they did role play.
11. By observing, the teacher can grade students on used appropriate vocabulary, understandable pronunciation, clear speech, communication effectiveness, and participation in the activity of the Assessment Sheet 1.1.

Task Chain 3: Developing strategies in supervisory discourse

1. The instructor gives each group Worksheet 1.3.
2. Worksheet 1.3 presents two situations in which a late employee takes turns to negotiate the situation with a manager.
3. Students discuss the choice of better strategies to use in the real-life situation and write down their Worksheet 1.3.
4. Each group shares the opinions with others.

Task Chain 4: Being aware of the emotion of different roles

1. Students stay in the same group.
2. Each student receives Worksheet 1.4 and answers the questions.

3. Each student talks about the feelings of his/her own interview experiences.
4. Students discuss what to say or how to behave if they play different roles.

Assessment:

Using Assessment Sheet 1.2, the teacher is able to evaluate what students have learned about the supervisory duties that a manager has, what awareness that interviewers and interviewees need to have during an interview, and other useful strategies.

Focus Sheet 1.1
Understanding and Pronouncing Words

Supervision

Supervisory

Employee

Employer

Manager

Interviewer

Interviewee

Applicant

Negotiation

Turn-taking

Duties

Hiring

Training

Scheduling

Counseling

Firing

Focus Sheet 1.2
Supervisory Responsibilities

A store manager is responsible for various duties.
Supervisory duties include the following:

Hiring:

- Posting employment information on media, including salary and promotion opportunities
- Setting up job interviews
- Coming up with interview questions
- Assessing on interviewee's potential: attitude, manners, motivation, and personality
- Administering employment tests
- Checking candidate's references
- Evaluating applications
- Guarding against sex/age discrimination

Scheduling:

- Determining work shifts and work days
- Dealing with individual needs

Training and Counseling:

- Providing a job description to new employees
- Giving orientation to new employees
- Designing or providing on-the-job training courses
- Evaluating training outcomes
- Assisting employees with career and retirement planning
- Warning employees about sexual harassment
- Teaching employees on occupational safety

Enforcing Benefits:

- Tracking employee's sick leave and vacation pay
- Calculating overtime compensation
- Assessing performance for possible bonus
- Informing employees about labor union rights

Firing:

- Evaluating employees' work performance
- Warning unacceptable employees of possible dismissal
- Terminating unsuccessful employees
- Determining who to lay off if fewer workers are needed (downsizing)

Focus Sheet 1.3
Supervisory Duties

1. Hiring:
 - Manners
 - Attitude
 - Personality
 - Motivation
 - Potential
 - Salary/Promotion
 - Reference
 - Application
 - Employment test
 - Sex/age discrimination

2. Training and Counseling:
 - On-the-job training
 - Career planing
 - Retirement
 - Orientation
 - Occupational Safety
 - Sexual harassment

3. Scheduling:
 - Work day
 - Shifts

4. Enforcing Benefits:
 - Overtime compensation
 - Sick leave
 - Vacation pay
 - Bonus
 - Labor union

5. Firing:
 - Lay-off
 - Terminating
 - Downsizing
 - Dismissal

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Worksheet 1.1
Word Identification

With your partner, decide which belongs to the categories.

- A. Hiring B. Scheduling C. Training/Counseling
D. Enforcing Benefits E. Firing

sex/age discrimination
 on-the job training
 lay-off
 retirement
 shifts
 work day
 potential

occupational safety
 reference
 dismissal
 application
 bonus
 career planning
 vacation pay

attitude
 salary
 orientation
 sick leave
 terminating
 labor union
 overtime compensation

employment test
 personality
 manners
 downsizing
 personality
 promotion
 sex harassment

Focus Sheet 1.4
Dialogues

Dialogue A

- A: Have you filled out any forms yet?
B: No, I haven't.
A: What about the company rules and regulations?
Have you received them yet?
B: The receptionist has already given them to me, but I
haven't read all of them yet.
A: Has she given you a tax withholding form yet?
B: No, she hasn't.
A: And what about the insurance forms?
B: No, I haven't received any forms yet.
A: Here's a tax withholding form and a few other necessary
forms. You can sit here and fill them out. Then read the
rules and regulations. If there is anything that you
don't understand or if you have any questions, please
feel free to ask. Let me know when you finish. Then I'll
introduce you to other employees.

Dialogue B

- A: Come on. Let's all take a short break.
B: OK. I could use a break. It's been ages since I've been
at this location. How is everything here?
A: It's still the same.
B: Do you still work a lot of overtime?
A: Not anymore! I haven't worked overtime since my doctor
told me to take it easy.
B: What was the matter? Were you working too hard?
A: Yes, I was, and I had a minor heart attack.
B: How are you now?
A: Much better!
B: Good. I'm glad to hear that.

(Adapted from Hamel, 1984)

Worksheet 1.2
Discussing a Dialogue

Directions: Choose a dialogue. Discuss with your partner and answer the questions below.

1. Name the characters in the dialogue.

2. Where are they?

3. What are they doing?

4. Who decides to end the conversation?



Focus Sheet 1.5
Interviewer Role

Background: Office Central is an office supply store that has been selling high-quality office supplies for 5 years in San Bernardino. Recently, Office Central wants to market its products in Redlands.

The Current Situation: The manager of Office Central is looking for an intelligent, energetic salesperson who is familiar with office supplies. A marketing degree or related degree is also an important qualification. The manager is willing to pay a high salary to the right person. (Shoemaker & Shoemaker, 1991)

Your Roles:

You will play the role of the Office Central manager and her/his assistant. You are ready to interview applicants who have applied for the position of a salesperson. In the interview, you should try to

1. discover skills of the applicant
2. find out what type of personality the applicant has
3. keep the interview informal and relaxed

Focus Sheet 1.6
Applicant Role

Background: Office Central is an office supply store that has been selling high-quality office supplies for 5 years in San Bernardino. Recently, Office Central wants to market its products in Redlands.

The Current Situation: The manager of Office Central is looking for an intelligent, energetic salesperson who is familiar with office supplies. A marketing degree or related degree is also an important qualification. The manager is willing to pay a high salary to the right person. (Shoemaker & Shoemaker, 1991)

Your Role:

You will play the role of a job applicant who wants a position as a salesperson in Office Central. This is a job you really want because it presents an opportunity to use all of your skills. Try to convince the team that interviews you that you are the best person for the job.

Worksheet 1.3
Strategies: Late Employee

Dialogue A:

- A: I am afraid that you were late for your shift this morning.
B: I am very sorry! It won't happen again. But I can explain. I drove my roommate to the hospital late last night. He had a terrible headache and fever. That's why I got up late this morning.
A: It sounds like a reasonable explanation. I hope this won't happen again.
B: You have my word!

Dialogue B:

- A: I am afraid that you were late for your shift this morning.
B: Yes, sir. But, look, the traffic is terrible out there! I don't know how to get through the traffic jam during the rush hour.
A: I would appreciate if you have a better explanation.
B: This is my explanation and it is a fact.
A: Well, here is another fact. You're the only one that was late this morning.

Discussion:

With your partner, discuss what strategies have been used in Dialogue A and B.

A:

B:

What strategies do you think will work better? Write down why.

Worksheet 1.4
Feelings

Respond to the questions below (Adapted from Fantini, 1997).

Did you speak/act the same way as you speak in a job interview in your native language?

Did you feel anxious or nervous when you were speaking English in a job interview?

How did you act/speak when you were the job interviewer?

How did you act/speak when you were the job applicant?

Self-assessment Sheet 1.1

Try to self-assess about your role play.

Name _____ Activity _____ Date _____		
	Point Value	Critique
1. Used appropriate vocabulary	_____/20	
2. Pronunciation is understandable	_____/20	
3. Spoke loudly enough	_____/20	
4. Spoke clearly	_____/20	
5. Showed organized thoughts	_____/20	
TOTAL:	_____/100	

Assessment Sheet 1.1

The instructor grades students when they are doing role play.

Name _____ Activity _____ Date _____		
	Point Value	Critique
Used appropriate vocabulary	_____/20	
Pronunciation is understandable	_____/20	
Spoke loudly enough	_____/20	
Spoke clearly	_____/20	
Showed organized thoughts	_____/20	
TOTAL:	_____/100	

Assessment Sheet 1.2

1. Complexity: Check which formal duties a manager has.

- Visiting regularly an employee's home
- Counseling an employee
- Providing an employee with coffee
- Hiring an employee
- Having lunch with an employee
- Training an employee
- Firing an employee
- Scheduling an employee

2. Role Play: According to Focus Sheet 1.5 and 1.6, answer the questions below.

What does a manager try to do in an interview?

What opportunity does a job applicant look for?

3. Discourse Management: What went wrong?

- A: I am afraid that you were late for your shift this morning.
- B: Yes, sir. But, look, the traffic is terrible out there! I don't know how to get through the traffic jam during the rush hour.
- A: I would appreciate if you have a better explanation.
- B: This is my explanation and it is a fact.
- A: Well, here is another fact. You're the only one that was late this morning.

Negotiation of meaning

- a. Not taking responsibility
- b. Meaning was lost
- c. Not repairing mistakes

Turn-taking

- a. Not taking turns
- b. Misunderstanding timing of taking turns
- c. Unable to think from another person's view

Lesson Two
Financial Control

Level: Intermediate
Time: 60 minutes

Materials:

1. Focus Sheet
2. Worksheet
3. Self-assessment Sheet
4. Assessment sheet

Objectives:

1. To survey the complex duties of a store manager regarding financial management
2. To gain comprehensible input and effective output through role play about financial management
3. To develop strategies in discourse about finances
4. To be aware of the emotion of different roles

Warm-up:

1. The instructor asks students to circle the words they understand on Worksheet 2.1

Task Chain 1: Surveying the complex duties of a store manager regarding financial management

1. Using Focus 2.1, the instructor tells students that a store manager needs to deal with financial work every day. This financial work includes cash control, banking deposits, cash reports, and credit card functioning.
2. Each student receives Focus Sheet 2.2 that presents vocabulary regarding financial management.
3. The instructor explains vocabulary to students.
4. Students are grouped into pairs.
5. Each group is given Worksheet 2.2 to decide which word belongs to financial duties: baking, cash reports, cash control, credit card functioning, and accounting.

Task Chain 2: Gaining comprehensible input and effective output through role play about financial management

1. Each group receives dialogues on Focus Sheet 2.3.
2. Each group selects words or phrases that they do not understand and writes them on the blackboard.

3. The instructor explains to students the words or phrases.
4. Each group receives Worksheet 2.3.
5. Using Worksheet 2.3, students choose a dialogue from Focus Sheet 2.3 and write down their answers on Worksheet 2.3.
6. The instructor describes to students a situation on Focus Sheet 2.4.
7. Students are divided into groups of four.
8. The instructor gives each group Worksheet 2.4.
9. Using Focus Sheet 2.4, students make up a dialogue on Worksheet 2.4,
10. Students play the roles based on the situation that takes place on Focus Sheet 2.4.

Task Chain 3: Developing strategies in discourse about finances

1. The instructor gives each group Worksheet 2.5.
2. Worksheet 2.5 presents two conversations in which a manager uses different strategies answering a customer's questions.
3. Students decide the better strategies to use and share their opinions in class.

Task Chain 4: Being aware of the emotion of different roles

1. Students stay in the same group.
2. Each student talks about the feelings of his/her role.
3. Students discuss what the appropriate way to express when playing a manager or an employee.

Assessment:

After this lesson, teacher can evaluate them by using Assessment Sheet 2.1. The assessment will focus on financial management that a manager has to deal with, communicative ability that a manager must have during role play, and strategies that work better for credit card functioning.

Worksheet 2.1
Understanding Words

Cash Control

Banking Deposits

Cash Reports

Credit Card Functioning

Focus Sheet 2.1

Basic Information about a Manager's Financial Duties

Instruction: A store manager is responsible for various duties. For financial management, the duties include the following:

Banking:

- Depositing purchase checks from customers
- Monitoring bounced checks
- Balancing bank accounts
- Withdrawing necessary amounts of change
- Seeking maximum interest rates

Cash Reports:

- Preparing balance sheets and tracking transactions
- Predicting necessary cash flows
- Planning necessary loans to cover expenses

Cash Control:

- Maintaining cashier machines and safe
- Monitoring customer check writing signatures
- Preparing cash and coin totals
- Totaling sales receipts

Credit Card Functioning:

- Credit card application approval
- Dealing with credit transactions
- Checking customer identity and credit limit

Accounting:

- Maintaining accounts payable (debts owed to creditors)
- Maintaining accounts receivable (Funds owed to store by customers)
- Tracking accounts with cash statements
- Tracking assets and net worth
- Paying sales taxes collected to government

Focus Sheet 2.2
Financial Management

1. Banking:
 - Depositing
 - Withdrawing
 - Bounced Check
 - Interest rate
 - Bank statement
2. Cash Reports:
 - Cash flow
 - Balance sheet
 - Expenses
 - Loans
 - Transaction
3. Cash Control:
 - Sales Receipt
 - Signatures
4. Credit Card functioning:
 - Credit approval Assets
 - Credit limit
 - Customer identity
5. Accounting:
 - Debts
 - Net worth
 - Sales taxes
 - Accounts receivable
 - Accounts payable

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Worksheet 2.2
Word Identification

With your partner, decide which belongs to the categories.

- A. Banking B. Cash Reports C. Cash Control
D. Credit Card Functioning E. Accounting

___ accounts payable
___ interest rate
___ signatures
___ credit approval
___ expenses

___ net worth
___ accounts receivable
___ loans
___ withdrawing
___ credit limit

___ customer identity
___ sales taxes
___ bounced check
___ transaction
___ depositing

___ cash flow
___ bank statement
___ sales receipt
___ assets
___ balance sheet

Focus Sheet 2.3
Dialogues

Dialogue A

A: May I help you?

B: Yes. I'd like to deposit these checks into my store's account.

A: Let's see. You have 25 checks and the total of deposit will be 546 dollars and 75 cents.

B: That's correct.

A: Here is your receipt. By the way, did you get a call from us regarding a bounced check yesterday?

B: I didn't. I came back in town late last night from a business trip. Can I see the check?

A: Of course. Fortunately, you have put down the person's ID number and phone number on the check.

B: I hope that was not from a false ID.

Dialogue B

A: May I help you?

B: Yes. I am wondering if you would accept monthly payments for my purchase.

A: Of course we do. One of the convenient ways is to apply for our business credit card. We offer very competitive interest rates.

B: I would be glad to apply for it. How long does it take to process?

A: Just a few minutes. In addition, you'll get 5% discount from what you purchase on the day of application. It applies to everything in our store.

B: Really, that sounds great!

A: Here's the application form.

Worksheet 2.3
Discussing a Dialogue

Directions: Choose a dialogue. Discuss with your partner and answer the questions below.

1. Where does the conversation take place?

2. What is the major issue that they are talking about?

3. Name the characters in the dialogue.

4. Have you recently had a similar conversation?



Focus Sheet 2.4
Balancing a Check Register

Directions: In this activity, one partner (an employee) will look at the checkbook register below. The other partner (a manager) will look at the statement from invoices. There are two mistakes. A store manager tries to find out what went wrong by asking an employee about the check register and statement.

Monthly Statement for Highland Bank
Account Number: 8944-7884-9983

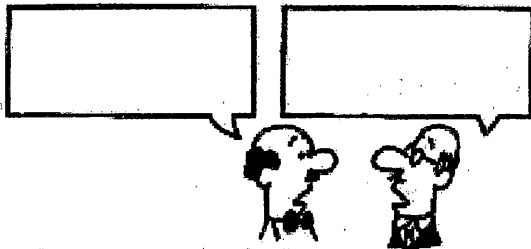
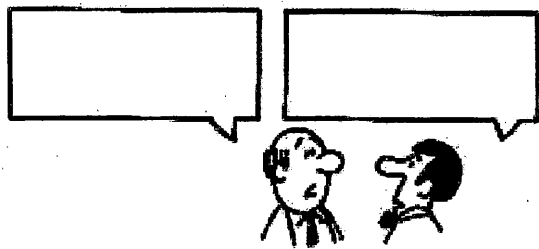
#	DATE	Description	Withdrawal	Deposits	Balance
		Starting balance			5448.77
	6/11	Deposit		200.53	5649.30
132	6/12	Water & power	152.33		5496.97
133	6/13	Phone service	250.65		5246.32
134	6/15	Federal Express	55.85		5190.47

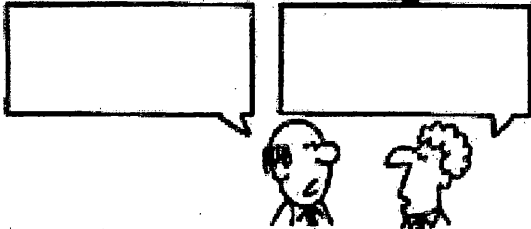
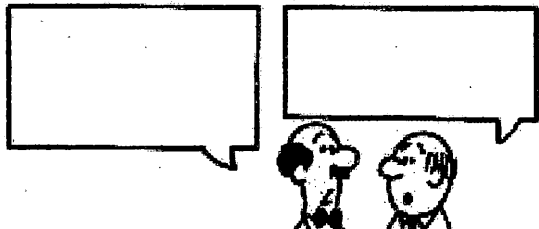
Check Register for Office Central

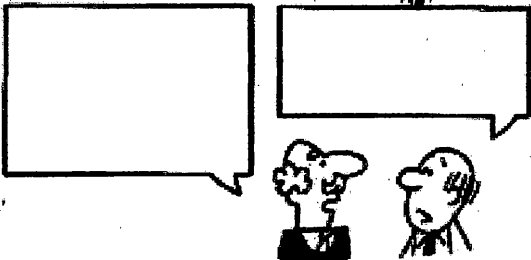

#	DATE	Description	Withdrawal	Deposits	Balance
		Starting balance			5448.77
	6/11	Deposit		200.53	5648.77
132	6/12	Water & power	152.33		5496.44
133	6/13	Phone service	250.56		5245.88
134	6/15	Federal Express	55.58		5190.30

Worksheet 2.4
Creating a Dialogue

Directions: According to Focus Sheet 2.4, work with your partner to create a dialogue regarding the situation and act it out.

1.  2. 

3.  4. 

5.  6. 

Worksheet 2.5
Strategies: Financial Discourse

Dialogue A:

A: May I help you?

B: Yes. I am wondering if you accept monthly payment for my purchase?

A: Of course we do. One of the convenient ways is to apply for our business credit card. We offer very competitive interest rate.

B: I would be glad to. How long does it take to process?

A: In just a few minutes. In addition, you'll get 5% discount from what you purchase on the day of application.

Dialogue B:

A: May I help you?

B: Yes. I am wondering if you accept monthly payment for my purchase?

A: Of course we do. We'll need to check your credit history, if you don't mind.

B: Do I need to provide all my personal information? I am a little bit concerned about that.

A: Just necessary information. I don't see any problem with that. Come on! Don't worry.

B: Thanks! I think I need to think about it.

What strategies do you think will work better? Discuss with your partner and write down why.



Assessment Sheet 2.1

1. Complexity: Circle the financial management a manager deals with.

Hiring an employee	Cash control
Banking deposits	Scheduling an employee
Cash reports	Credit card functioning

2. Role Play: According to Focus Sheet 2.4, answer the questions below.

What did the manager do when he/she recognized two mistakes on a check register?

What did the manager tell an employee?

3. Discourse Management: What went wrong?

A: May I help you?

B: Yes. I am wondering if you would accept monthly payments for my purchase?

A: Of course we do. We'll need to check your credit history, if you don't mind.

B: Do I need to provide all my personal information? I am a little bit concerned about that.

A: Just necessary information. I don't see any problem with that. Come on! Don't worry.

B: Thanks! I think I need to think about it.

Negotiation of meaning

- a. Not replying appropriately
- b. Meaning was lost
- c. Not repairing mistakes

Turn-taking

- a. Taking a lot of turns
- b. Misunderstanding timing of taking turns
- c. Unable to think from another person's view

Lesson Three
Product Control

Level: Intermediate

Time: 60 minutes

Materials:

1. Focus Sheet
2. Worksheet
3. Self-assessment Sheet
4. Assessment Sheet

Objectives:

1. To survey the complex duties of a store manager regarding product control
2. To gain comprehensible input and effective output through role play about product control
3. To develop strategies in discourse about store product
4. To be aware of the emotion of different roles

Warm-up:

1. The instructor shows students the products on Focus Sheet 3.1 by using overhead projector.

Task Chain 1: Surveying the complex duties of a store manager regarding product control

1. Using Focus Sheet 3.2, the instructor explains to students that a store manager has to deal with product control every day. This duty includes ordering and display.
2. Each student receives Focus Sheet 3.3 that presents vocabulary regarding product control.
3. The instructor gives students enough time to read and makes sure that every student understands.
4. Students are grouped into pairs.
5. Each pair of students categorizes words by using Worksheet 3.1
6. Each group discusses the questions on Worksheet 3.2.

Task Chain 2: Gaining comprehensible input and effective output through role play about product control

1. Students are divided into groups.
2. Each group receives dialogues on Focus Sheet 3.4.

3. Students have enough time to read the dialogues.
4. Students make a list of words or phrases that they do not know on the blackboard.
5. The instructor explains the words or phrases.
6. The instructor gives each group Worksheet 3.3 and tells them to answer the questions.
7. Students receive Focus Sheet 3.5.
8. Based on the situation on Focus Sheet 3.5, each group plays the roles in front of class.

Task Chain 3: Developing strategies in discourse about product

1. Students are divided into groups.
2. The instructor gives each group Worksheet 3.4.
3. The instructor explains to students the situation on Worksheet 3.4.
4. Students select one situation which presents the better strategies.
5. Students answer the questions on Worksheet 3.4 and share their opinions with others.

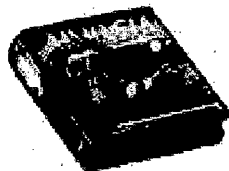
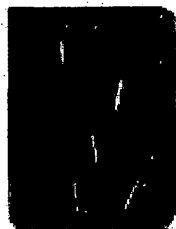
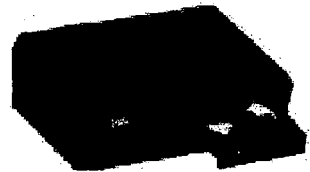
Task Chain 4: Being aware of the emotion of different roles

1. Students stay in the same group.
2. Each student talks about the emotion during the role play.
3. The instructor gives each student the Worksheet 3.5 to write down their feelings.

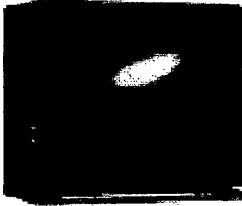
Assessment:

1. Using Assessment Sheet 3.1, the instructor evaluates what students have learned regarding the duties in product control that a manager has, situation that took place during role play, and better strategies concerning product display.

Focus Sheet 3.1A
Products



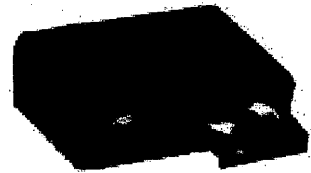
Focus Sheet 3.1B
Products



large TV



comfortable rocking chair



good CD player



cheap watch



fast printer



small cell phone



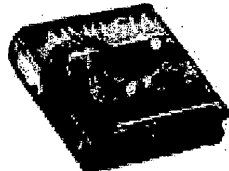
lightweight video camera



powerful computer



tall bookcase



short novel

Focus Sheet 3.2
A Manager's Product Control Duties

Instructions: A store manager is responsible for various duties. For product control, the duties include the following:

Ordering:

- Determining items to sell
- Maintaining stock
- Contacting suppliers
- Predicting prospective sales
- Taking inventory and recording
- Balancing supply with demand

Displaying:

- Designing categories of aisles in showroom
- Designing the signs
- Determining sale items for sales promotion
- Pricing items, including sales and discount prices

Product Policies:

- Honoring product warranties, guarantees, and repair
- Offering and charging for delivery and installation
- Offering product demonstrations of necessary
- Making available financing and layaway
- Making available raincheck if item is not in stock

Focus Sheet 3.3
Understanding Vocabulary

1. Ordering:
 - Stock
 - Supply
 - Demand
 - Inventory

2. Displaying:
 - Sales promotion
 - Showroom
 - Discount price

3. Product Policies:
 - Raincheck
 - Repair
 - Warranty
 - Guarantee
 - Return policy
 - Delivery
 - Demonstration
 - Financing
 - Layaway

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Worksheet 3.1
Word Identification

With your partner, decide which belongs to the categories.

A. Ordering

B. Displaying

C. Product Policies

___ raincheck
___ demonstration
___ inventory
___ supply

___ stock
___ discount price
___ demand
___ delivery

___ warranty
___ sales promotion
___ showroom
___ guarantee

___ financing
___ layaway
___ repair
___ return policy

Worksheet 3.2
Complex Duties: Product Control

Directions: Work with your partner to discuss the questions below.

1. Ordering (Internal Factors):

- What do you need?
- What can you order?
- Who can afford to buy?
- What will be advertised?

2. Ordering (External Factors):

- When do you place order?
- How do you arrange for shipping
- Who can unload products?

3. Display (Internal Factors):

- What will be displayed and why?
- When do you need advertisement?

4. Display (External Factors):

- Is merchandise clean?
- How can you prevent damage?

Focus Sheet 3.4
Dialogues

Dialogue A

- A: Excuse me! Could you tell me where the electronic supplies are?
- B: You bet. Go down this aisle and turn left.
- A: I am sorry to tell you it is hard to find them. Perhaps they should be placed closer to the cashier desk.
- B: I apologize for your inconvenience. And thank you for your suggestion. We are going to rearrange the display and reshelve everything soon. The signs will also be printed in brighter colors.

Dialogue B

- A: Sir, the new model of small cell phones are almost sold out. We need to order more before the customers complain.
- B: I just did. Our supplier will ship the order within a week. Since this is a hot product, they require payment in advance of shipment. These cell phones are going out faster than I expected.
- A: What do I tell our customer if we are out of them before the shipment?
- B: Tell them we'll issue a rain check. Put down their names and phone numbers. We'll call them as soon as we get the supplies.

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Worksheet 3.3
Discussing Dialogues

Directions: Discuss with your partner and answer the questions below.

1. Identify the characters in the dialogues.

2. Describe the situation of the dialogues.

3. In the dialogue A, why did Mr. B make an apology?

4. In the dialogue B, what do they do if they are out of the product?

Focus Sheet 3.5
Role Play About Product control

Roles:

Manager, Clerk, Customer

Situation:

A clerk meets you in the morning and suggests you that you may need to change the product display a little. He says that within two days, three different customers came to him and asked for help to find the new digital telephone. As one of the customers said, the sign posted by the cashier desk gives the wrong directions.

Worksheet 3.4
Strategies in Discourse

Directions: Work with your partner to select the better strategies in a conversation and write down your discussion.

Dialogue A:

- A: Excuse me! Could you tell me where the electronic supplies are?
B: You bet. Go down this aisle and turn left.
A: I am sorry to tell you it is hard to find them. Perhaps they should be placed closer to the cashier desk.
B: My apology for your inconvenience. And thank you for your suggestion. We are going to rearrange the display and re-shelf everything. The signs will also be printed in brighter colors.

Dialogue B:

- A: Excuse me! Could you tell me where the electronic supplies are?
B: You bet. Go down this aisle and turn left.
A: I am sorry to tell you it is hard to find them. Perhaps they should be placed closer to the cashier desk.
B: Really? I thought it is easy to find. Are you new in town? The electronics have been there for years.
A: Oh, I just didn't see the sign. If there were one, I wouldn't need your help.

Discussion:

Discuss with your partner. What strategies have been used in Dialogue A and B?

A:

B:

What strategies do you think will work better? Write down why.

Worksheet 3.5
Feelings

If your employee disagrees with you, how would you express your feelings? Indicate your tendency on a 0-5 scale.

- _____ honesty
- _____ generosity
- _____ discretion
- _____ loyalty
- _____ tolerance
- _____ compassion
- _____ self-discipline
- _____ conviction
- _____ commitment

1. What do you think is the most important thing to do in order to communicate effectively with people?

2. Can you think any strategies you will use when you feel uncomfortable with a person who has different opinions?

Assessment Sheet 3.1

1. Complexity: Check which duties that a manager has regarding product control.

- Determining items to sell
- Designing the signs
- Maintaining inventory
- Banking deposit
- Predicting prospective sales
- Scheduling an employee

2. Role Play: According to Focus Sheet 3.5, answer the questions below.

What happened to the customer?

What situation took place in an office supply store?

3. Discourse Management: What went wrong?

- A: Excuse me! Could you tell me where the electronic supplies are?
- B: You bet. Go down this aisle and turn left.
- A: I am sorry to tell you it is hard to find them. Perhaps they should be placed closer to the cashier desk.
- B: Really? I thought it is easy to find. Are you new in town? The electronics have been there for years.
- A: Oh, I just didn't see the sign. If there were one, I wouldn't need your help.

Negotiation of meaning

- a. Not taking responsibility
- b. Meaning was lost
- c. Not repairing mistakes

Turn-taking

- a. Not taking turns
- b. Misunderstanding timing of taking turns
- c. Unable to think from another person's view

Lesson Four Advertising

Level: Intermediate

Time: 60 minutes

Materials:

1. Focus Sheet
2. Worksheet
3. Assessment Sheet

Objectives:

1. To survey the complex duties of a store manager regarding advertising
2. To gain comprehensible input and effective output through role play
3. To develop strategies in discourse about advertising
4. To be aware of the emotion of different roles

Warm-up:

1. The instructor bring samples of flyers to show students actual advertising.

Task chain 1: Surveying the complex duties of a store manager regarding advertising

1. Using Focus Sheet 4.1, the instructor tells students that a manager needs to plan advertising. This duty could be to plan store and display advertising, newspaper and flyers, and sales.
2. Each student receives Focus Sheet 4.2.
3. The instructor makes sure if everyone understands the vocabulary.
4. Students are grouped into pairs.
5. Each pair categorizes words by using Worksheet 4.1.

Task Chain 2: Gaining comprehensible input and effective output through role play

1. The instructor hands Focus Sheet 4.3 to students.
2. Students are divided into groups.
3. Instructor tells students that there are two dialogues on Focus Sheet 4.3, and explains vocabulary to students.
4. Instructor gives each group Worksheet 4.2.

5. Students discuss what situation it is in the dialogues and answer the questions on Worksheet 4.1.
6. Each group receives Focus Sheet 4.4.
7. According to the situation on Focus Sheet 4.4, students role play in front of class.

Task Chain 3: Developing strategies in discourse about advertising

1. The instructor gives each group Worksheet 4.3.
2. Worksheet 4.3 presents two situations in which a manager takes turns to talk to an employee.
3. Students discuss the choice of better strategies to use in the real-life situation and write down their Worksheet 4.3.

Task Chain 4: Being aware of the emotion of different roles

1. The instructor asks each group to sit in a circle.
2. Speakers tell the feelings of his/her roles during role play.
3. The instructor asks each group to share their feelings.

Assessment:

Using Assessment Sheet 4.1, the teacher is able to assess what students have learned about the advertising duties that a manager has, the problem solving necessary during role play, and better strategies related to advertising.

Focus Sheet 4.1
A Manager's Advertising Duty

Instructions: A store manager is responsible for various duties. For advertising, the duties include the following:

Planning Store and Display Advertising:

- Coming up with sales promotions and discounts
- Designing posters and banners if necessary
- Planning the display area
- Offering samples if feasible

Planning Media Ads:

- Determining advertising costs using media
- Deciding which product features to emphasize
- Designing advertising copy and layout for newspapers, flyers, and yellow pages of phone book
- Investigating cost of media advertising, including television, radio, print media, direct mail, and outdoor advertising

Planning Sales and Marketing:

- Determining promotion items
- Evaluating the cost and benefit
- Contracting services of advertising agency if needed
- Offering contests to promote items

Focus Sheet 4.2
Vocabulary

1. Planning Store and Display Advertising:
 - Poster
 - Advertising banners
 - Sample
 - Discount

2. Planning Media Ads:
 - Yellow pages
 - Newspaper
 - Television
 - Radio
 - Direct mail
 - Flyer
 - Radio
 - Outdoor Advertising
 - Product feature
 - Layout

3. Planning Sales and Marketing:
 - Marketing
 - Contest
 - Advertising agency

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Worksheet 4.1
Word Identification

With your partner, decide which belongs to the categories.

- A. Planning Store and Display Advertising
- B. Planning Media Ads
- C. Planning Sales and Marketing

advertising agency
 contest
 television
 product feature

marketing
 yellow pages
 flyer
 outdoor advertising

layout
 sample
 radio
 advertising banners

newspapers
 poster
 direct mail
 layout

Focus Sheet 4.3
Dialogues

Dialogue A

- A: We want to use the right marketing mix to reach our target market.
- B: Certainly. We've done some tactical planning already. We think we've come up with a good plan.
- A: What media do you plan to use?
- B: Well, taking into account the images you want to project, we've asked our copywriter to prepare copy for radio and newspaper first.
- A: So that way, our advertising dollars would be focused on people we know who are computer users.

Dialogue B

- A: As you know, the iHome PC is due for release next month. I think we've worked out the advertising plan.
- B: Great! That's vital. Quality is the focus of the ad campaign. And the equipment must be demonstrated well if it is going to be the cash cow we want it to be.
- A: Let's go over our promotion plan.
- B: OK. We have trained six employees to run the demonstrations. And the exhibition team is already on the road ready to do the computer show.
- A: Good. What about print and radio?
- B: We've taken out full-page ads for the local newspapers. And more important, our press releases have been well received.
- A: Any larger ads?
- B: Yes. We're putting a color full-page ad in the Sunday edition of three major newspapers.
- A: If these do not work out as we want, I think we should use radio ads to advertise on in-store raffle.

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Worksheet 4.2
Discussing Dialogues

Directions: Work with a partner. Answer the questions below.

1. What is the purpose of the discussion in the dialogue?
2. What is product the store is trying to sell?
3. What are the means used by the store to sell the product?
4. What would you do if you encounter the same situation in the dialogue?

Focus Sheet 4.4
Role Play About Advertising

Roles:

Manager, Clerk, Local Newspaper Advertising Agent

Situation:

A clerk finds that a radio clock which is a popular product in other states is not checked out frequently in your store. This clerk comes to you and suggests that you might need help from the local newspaper advertising agent.

Worksheet 4.3
Strategies in Discourse about Advertising

Dialogue A:

- A: As you know, the iHome PC is due for release next month. I think we've worked out the advertising plan.
- B: Great! That's vital. Quality is the focus of the ad campaign. And the equipment must be demonstrated well if it is going to be the cash cow we want it to be.
- A: Let's go over our promotion plan.
- B: OK. We have trained six employees to run the demonstrations. And the exhibition team is already on the road ready to do the computer show.
- A: Good. What about print and radio?
- B: We've taken out full-page ads for the local newspapers.

Dialogue B:

- A: As you know, the iHome PC is due for release next month. I think we've worked out the advertising plan.
- B: Great! That's vital. Quality is the focus of the ad campaign. And the equipment must be demonstrated well if it is going to be the cash cow we want it to be.
- A: The equipment? I thought we're going to use the local television. The ads would reach more people.
- B: I doubt the product features can be demonstrated on television. We have trained six employees to run the demonstrations. We want to people to see and try the new features.
- A: Do you mean people would really bother come to our store to see it? I don't think so. I would rather watch TV at home.

Choose a conversation that presents the better strategies and write down why.

Assessment Sheet 4.1

1. Complexity: Check which advertising duties a manager needs to plan.

- Designing posters
- Display products
- Determining promotion items
- Designing signs to indicate items
- Determining advertising costs using media

2. Role Play: According to Focus Sheet 4.4, answer the questions below.

What did you do when an employee told you that a radio clock is not checked out frequently?

What did you tell the local newspaper advertising agent that you need help?

3. Discourse Management: What went wrong?
- A: As you know, the iHome PC is due for release next month. I think we've worked out the advertising plan.
- B: Great! That's vital. Quality is the focus of the ad campaign. And the equipment must be demonstrated well if it is going to be the cash cow we want it to be.
- A: The equipment? I thought we're going to use the local television. The ads would reach more people.
- B: I doubt the product features can be demonstrated on television. We have trained six employees to run the demonstrations. We want to people to see and try the new features.
- A: Do you mean people would really bother come to our store to see it? I don't think so. I would rather watch TV at home.

Negotiation of meaning

- a. Not taking responsibility
- b. Meaning was lost
- c. Not repairing mistakes

Turn-taking

- a. Not taking turns
- b. Misunderstanding timing of taking turns
- c. Unable to think from another person's view

Lesson Five
Customer Relations

Level: Intermediate

Time: 60 minutes

Materials:

1. Focus Sheet
2. Worksheet
3. Assessment Sheet

Objectives:

1. To survey the complex duties of a store manager regarding customer relations
2. To gain comprehensible input and effective output through role play
3. To develop strategies in discourse
4. To be aware of the emotion of different roles

Warm-up:

1. Students are given Worksheet 5.1 and asked to describe the picture.

Task Chain 1: Surveying the complex duties of a store manager regarding customer relations

1. Using Focus Sheet 5.1, the instructor explains to students that customer relations are very important to a store. A manager needs to know the skills to deal with customers and increase customers satisfaction.
2. Each student receives Focus Sheet 5.2.
3. The instructor explains vocabulary to students.
4. Each pair of students categorizes words by using Worksheet 5.2.

Task Chain 2: Gaining comprehensible input and effective output through role play

1. Students are grouped to work in pairs.
2. Each group receives Focus Sheet 5.3.
3. The instructor explains vocabulary to students.
4. The instructor gives each group Worksheet 5.3 to answer the questions.
5. The class is divided into groups of three.
6. The instructor gives each person in the group a role card (as shown in Focus 5.4).

7. Students have enough time to read the card and ask questions.
8. Students do not show the card to one another.
9. Students play their roles in front of the class.
10. Students are able to self-evaluate on Self-assessment Sheet 5.1 when participating in the role-play activities.
11. The teacher can grade students on vocabulary, contents, speech clarity, communication effectiveness, and participation in the activity of Assessment Sheet 5.1.

Task Chain 3: Developing strategies in discourse about customer relations

1. Students stay in the same group.
2. The instructor gives each group Worksheet 5.4.
3. Worksheet 5.4 presents two situations in which a customer is getting a refund.
4. Students select the strategies that work better when a manager encounters a similar situation.

Task Chain 4: Being aware of the emotion of different roles

1. Students sit in a circle.
2. Each student talks about the feelings of role play.
3. When a speaker is talking, listeners need to take notes and compare with their own feeling.

Assessment:

Using Assessment Sheet 5.2, the teacher can assess what students have learned:

1. the duties of a store manager regarding customer relations
2. the communicative skills after role play
3. the strategies concerning customer relations

Worksheet 5.1
Describing the Picture



Focus Sheet 5.1
A Manager's Customer Relations Duties

Instructions: A store manager is responsible for various duties. For customer relations, the duties include the following:

Customer Service:

- Planning store policies
- Dealing with complaints
- Dealing with returns and refunds
- Dealing with individual customer needs

Customer Satisfaction:

- Planning newsletters or publications
- Planning public relations events and activities
- Providing clerk training in customer relations
- Enforcing return and refund policies
- Survey to assess customer satisfaction and product loyalty using questionnaires and focus groups

Focus Sheet 5.2
Vocabulary

1. Customer Service:

Customer service
Complaints

2. Customer Satisfaction:

Return policy
Refund policies
Public relations
Satisfaction
Survey
Questionnaire
Loyalty
Newsletters
Focus groups

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Worksheet 5.2
Word Identification

With your partner, decide which belongs to the categories.

A. Customer Service

B. Customer Satisfaction

___ questionnaire
___ refund policy
___ public relations

___ complaints
___ newsletter
___ focus groups

___ customer service
___ satisfaction
___ loyalty

___ return policy
___ survey

Focus Sheet 5.3
Dialogues

Dialogue A

- A: Are you the manager of the store?
B: Yes, ma'am. What can I do for you?
A: Could I have a refund on this?
B: Is there anything wrong with it?
A: Yes, this part is defective. I didn't notice it when I bought it.
B: Oh, I'm sorry about that. May I see your sales slip, please.
A: Yes, here it is.
B: I'm sorry, ma'am. Your refund period expired ten days ago.
A: What difference does ten days make?
B: Well, even though you can't get a refund on it, I can let you change for another one or anything else.
A: Do you have exactly this same kind model and color?
B: Let me see. Hmm.. This one is the same model, but just the color is different.
A: It looks like I have no choice.

Dialogue B

- A: You seem to be interested in our new J-007 cellular phone. Would you like to know more about it?
B: Yes. I would. What does this button here do?
A: That button is for our call screening function. It allows you to identify the caller before you answer the phone.
B: What else can you tell me about this phone?
A: This special phone utilize state-of-the-art technology to bring you several functions in addition to the call screening feature.
B: So, what are the unique functions?
A: Oh, it's loaded with them. If you are outside of your service area, the cellular phone still receive messages.
B: No kidding?

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Worksheet 5.3
Discussing Dialogues

Directions: Discuss with your partner and answer the questions below.

1. Name the characters in the dialogue.

2. Describe what situation the two characters encounter.

3. Why does the customer want to get a refund?

4. Did the customer get the refund in the end?

Focus Sheet 5.4
The Role Play in the Supplies Store

Directions: Each student in a group receives one card. Because each card is different, students cannot show one another and then act out in front of the class. (Shoemaker & Shoemaker, 1991)

Role 1: A clerk in the Office Central store

You are busy telling your employee how to display the items when a customer asks you a question.

Role 2: A customer in the Office Central store

You are looking for a specific kind of cellular phone. You do not see it in the self. Ask the clerk if she/he has this cellular phone. Describe it clearly, so she/he knows what it looks like.

Role 3: A customer in the Office Central store

You are in a hurry to get to work and have to buy pencils and paper. Another customer is taking too much time asking questions. You interrupt and want to pay the clerk.

Worksheet 5.4

Strategies in Discourse about Customer Relations

Dialogue A:

- A: Are you the manager of the store?
B: Yes, ma'am. What can I do for you?
A: Could I have a refund on this?
B: Is there anything wrong with it?
A: Yes, this part is defective. I didn't notice when I bought it.
B: Oh, I'm sorry about that. May I have your receipt, please.
A: Yes, here it is.
B: I'm sorry, ma'am. Your refund period expired ten days ago.
A: What difference does ten days make?
B: Well, even though you can't get a refund on it, I can let you exchange it for another one or anything else.

Dialogue B:

- A: Are you the manager of the store?
B: Yes, ma'am. What can I do for you?
A: Could I have a refund on this?
B: Is there anything wrong with it?
A: Yes, this part is defective. I didn't notice when I bought it.
B: Oh, I'm sorry about that. Hmm... it looks like the package has been dropped to the ground. OK, may I have your receipt, please.
A: Yes, here it is.
B: I'm sorry, ma'am. Your refund period expired ten days ago. I am afraid it is against our return policy.
A: What difference does ten days make?
B: Well, even though you can't get a refund on it, I can let you exchange it for another one or anything else. Please fill out this claim form.
A: Claim what? It was not my fault.
B: I am sorry. This is our policy.

Discussion: What strategies do you think will work better? Discuss with your partner and write down why.

Self-assessment Sheet 5.1

1. Evaluate yourself about your role play.

Name _____ Activity _____ Date _____		
	Point Value	Critique
1. Used appropriate vocabulary	_____/20	
2. Pronunciation is understandable	_____/20	
3. Spoke loudly enough	_____/20	
4. Spoke clearly	_____/20	
5. Showed organized thoughts	_____/20	
TOTAL	_____/100	

Assessment Sheet 5.1

Name _____ Activity _____ Date _____		
	Point Value	Critique
1. Used appropriate vocabulary	_____/20	
2. Pronunciation is understandable	_____/20	
3. Spoke loudly enough	_____/20	
4. Spoke clearly	_____/20	
5. Showed organized the thoughts	_____/20	
TOTAL	_____/100	

Assessment Sheet 5.2

1. Complexity: Check what are the duties of a store manager regarding customer relations.

- Firing an employee
- Dealing with complaints from customers
- Dealing with returns and refunds
- Scheduling an employee
- Dealing with individual customer needs
- Planning store policies

2. Role Play: According to Focus Sheet 5.4, answer the questions below:

What can a manager do when two customers need help?

What did you learn from other group after role play?

3. Discourse Management:

A: Are you the manager of the store?

B: Yes, ma'am. What can I do for you?

A: Could I have a refund on this?

B: Is there anything wrong with it?

A: Yes, this part is defective. I didn't notice when I bought it.

B: Oh, I'm sorry about that. May I have your receipt, please.

A: Yes, here it is.

B: I'm sorry, ma'am. Your refund period expired ten days ago.

A: What difference does ten days make?

B: Well, even though you can't get a refund on it, I can let you exchange it for another one or anything else.

Can you come up with different strategies to make this dialogue work better? Try to write your ideas.

Lesson Six
Store Security and Maintenance

Level: Intermediate

Time: 60 minutes

Materials:

1. Pictures
2. Focus Sheet
3. Worksheet
4. Assessment Sheet

Objectives:

1. To survey the complex duties of a store manager regarding store security and maintenance
2. To gain comprehensible input and effective output through role play
3. To develop strategies in discourse
4. To be aware of the emotion of different roles

Warm-up:

1. The instructor shows students the pictures about alarm, extinguisher and so on.

Task Chain 1: Surveying the complex duties of a store manager regarding store security and maintenance

1. Using Focus Sheet 6.1, the instructor explains to students that a store manager has to maintain the safety of a store. This duty includes implement security systems, fire safety, implement surveillance systems, and implement security responses.
2. Each student receives Focus Sheet 6.2.
3. The instructor explains vocabulary to students.
4. Each pair of students categorizes words by using Worksheet 6.1.

Task Chain 2: Gaining comprehensible input and effective output through role play

1. Instructor cuts the conversations on Focus Sheet 6.3 into some pieces and put them into envelopes.
2. The class is divided into three groups.
3. Instructor gives each group an envelope with some pieces of sentences.

4. Students are told that the pieces of sentences need to fit together exactly to form a conversation.
5. After completing the conversation, each group read it aloud in front of the class.
6. Students are divided into groups. The instructor explains a situation to students.
7. Students need to solve the problem by working with groups.
8. Students are given a fire drill situation on Focus Sheet 6.4.
9. The instructor tells students to play the role from the fire drill situation on Focus Sheet 6.4

Task Chain 3: Developing strategies in discourse

1. The instructor gives each group Worksheet 6.2.
2. Students discuss to choose the better strategies to use in a real-life situation and write down the reasons on Worksheet 6.2.

Task Chain 4: Being aware of the emotion of different roles

1. Students share the experience in actual security event like robberies or safety event like fire.
2. Students imagine the feeling of a store manager as he must maintain the security and safety.

Assessment:

Using Assessment Sheet 6.1, the teacher is able to assess students. The assessment will focus on what students know about managerial duties regarding store security and maintenance, the communication skills needed during role play, and the strategies that a manager needs to deal with in case of a fire.

Focus Sheet 6.1

A Manager's Security and Maintenance Duties

Instructions: A store manager is responsible for various duties. For security and maintenance, the duties include the following:

Implement Security Systems:

- Planning alarm systems for burglar monitoring
- Maintaining alarm functions including emergency exits
- Planning fire defense with fire alarms, smoke detector, fire extinguisher, and fire evacuation drills
- Obtaining property insurance against fire and theft

Store Security:

- Planning hidden cameras and surveillance systems
- Maintaining surveillance monitoring systems
- Reviewing tapes in case of theft or safety incidents

Maintenance:

- Supervising sanitation and repair work
- Disposing of hazardous material

Security Responses:

- Contacting the police and fire departments in case of emergency
- Communicating necessary information

Focus Sheet 6.2
Vocabulary

1. Implement Security Systems:

Fire alarm
Fire drill
Smoke detector
Burglar monitoring
Property insurance
Emergency exit
Evacuation drills
Fire extinguisher

2. Customer Monitoring:

Hidden camera

3. Maintenance:

Sanitation
Surveillance

4. Security Responses:

Fire Departments
Hazardous material

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Worksheet 6.1
Word Identification

With your partner, decide which belongs to the categories.

- A. Implement Security Systems B. Customer Monitoring
C. Maintenance D. Security Responses

hidden camera
 sanitation
 burglar monitoring

fire drill
 emergency exit
 hazardous material

smoke detector
 evacuation drill
 fire alarm

fire extinguisher
 property insurance
 police department

Focus Sheet 6.3

Dialogue

A: What a day!

B: Are you all right?

A: Yes, but there was a fire here a few hours ago.

B: I heard about it on the radio while I was driving here. Did anyone get hurt?

A: Some people got a few small cuts and bruises, but there was no serious injuries. They are fighting the fire when the fire fighters arrived.

B: How did it happen?

A: One of our sales clerks accidentally set fire to some chemicals in the warehouse while he was smoking.

B: What did you and the other employees in our store do?

A: We were helping to evacuate the nearby building while the fire fighters were putting out the fire.

B: Was there much damage?

A: I don't know.

B: I think I'll call the insurance company anyway. How is the sales clerk who set the fire?

A: He'll be OK. He was lucky that he didn't kill himself. He tried to put out the fire by himself. When he realized that he couldn't, he asked some employees to help him. You know, they almost put it out by themselves before the fire fighters arrived.

B: What about the other people?

A: The paramedics treated a few people. A woman cut herself on some broken glass, and a man burned himself on some hot metal. That's all I know.

B: Thank heavens!

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Focus Sheet 6.4
Role Play about Safety

Roles:

Members of each group play the roles of a store manager, a fire fighter, and a customer.

Situations:

The situation is that the manager pulls the switch of the fire alarm but it does not work. The smoke detector goes off. The manager tries to call the fire fighter but the phone is disconnected. The customer needs to leave the building but the power is out. How will the manager solve the problem?



Worksheet 6.2
Strategies in Discourse

Dialogue A:

A: What a day!

B: Are you all right?

A: Yes, but there was a fire here a few hours ago.

B: I heard about on the radio while I was driving here. Did anyone get hurt?

A: Some people got a few small cuts and bruises, but there was no serious injuries. They were fighting the fire when the fire fighters arrived.

B: How did it happen?

A: One of our sales clerks accidentally set fire to some chemicals in the warehouse while he was smoking.

B: I think I will call the insurance company anyway. How is the sales clerk who set the fire?

Dialogue B:

A: What a day!

B: Are you all right?

A: Yes, but there was a fire here a few hours ago.

B: I heard about on the radio while I was driving here. How is the store? Is the damage serious?

A: I don't know. We were fighting the fire when the fire fighters arrived.

B: How did it happen?

A: One of our sales clerks accidentally set fire to some chemicals in the warehouse while he was smoking.

B: I think it is time to replace someone.

Discussion:

With your partner, discuss what strategies have been used in Dialogue A and B.

A:

B:

What strategies do you think will work better? Write down why.

Assessment Sheet 6.1

1. Complexity: Check the duties that a manager has to maintain the safety of a store.

- Maintaining alarm functions
- Supervising cleaning work
- Dealing with refunds
- Maintaining surveillance systems
- Banking deposit
- Planning alarm systems

2. Role Play: According to Focus Sheet 6.4, answer the questions below.

What did a manager need to tell a customer when the smoke detector went off?

What did a manager say to a firefighter on the phone when an emergency took place?

3. Discourse Management: What went wrong?

A: What a day!

B: Are you all right?

A: Yes, but there was a fire here a few hours ago.

B: I heard about on the radio while I was driving here. How is the store? Is the damage serious?

A: I don't know. We were fighting the fire when the fire fighters arrived.

B: How did it happen?

A: One of our sales clerks accidentally set fire to some chemicals in the warehouse while he was smoking.

B: I think it is time to replace someone.

Negotiation of meaning

- a. Not taking responsibility
- b. Meaning was lost
- c. Not repairing mistakes

Turn-taking

- a. Not taking turns
- b. Misunderstanding timing of taking turns
- c. Unable to think from another person's view

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