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## Promoting oral fluency for English learners using differentiated corrective feedback

Chien-Fang Lin

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PROMOTING ORAL FLUENCY FOR ENGLISH LEARNERS USING  
DIFFERENTIATED CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

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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  
Chien-Fang Lin  
December 2005

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December 2005

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*Nov. 28, 2005*  
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Date

## ABSTRACT

Speaking English fluently is an important academic task that English learners face as they acquire English language proficiency. The purpose of this project is to address the need for helping English learners to improve their oral expression. The research mainly focuses on oral expression strategies with which students can overcome their fear of speaking in public and be better understood in society.

This project investigates a series of important teaching concepts that can be incorporated into ESL/EFL speaking programs: pronunciation software, intonation, corrective feedback, nonverbal communication, and oral fluency. Some current teaching methods based on a theoretical framework regarding oral expression are also illustrated, such as pronunciation software, intonation, and corrective feedback. Finally, a theme-based lesson unit is presented that incorporates the theoretical framework to develop fluency in ESL/EFL oral expression.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This project is dedicated to my family. They have supported me in finishing my higher education in the United States and gave me the encouragement to accomplish my goals. Moreover, I would like to extend my gratitude to many people who helped me to complete this project.

First of all, I would like to offer my thanks to my professor, Dr. Lynne Diaz-Rico, for her support, guidance, and invaluable advice through the writing of the project.

Secondly, I would like to thank my second reader, Marlene J. Lopez, for her kind instruction.

Lastly, I would particularly like to thank my best friends and classmates, Tzu-Ru Tsai, Chia-Chi Lin, and Man-Lin Rau, for their support and encouragement; and Jelon Avery, Dave Saline, and Chin Imamura for providing helpful revisions.

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### Background of the Project

English is the international language of the world. Millions of people use and learn English every day. In Taiwan, English has become one of the most important keys to success. Many Taiwanese people engage either in import or export businesses with foreign countries or work in foreign business companies. For this reason, they need to use English on a daily basis. As the need for communication increases, learning English has become necessary in Taiwan. People who can speak fluent English usually can get good jobs and increase the chance to advance in their careers. When people prove they are good at English, they can earn good salaries in Taiwan. Thus, English competency generally is considered a sign of success in Taiwanese society. On the other hand, through the improvement of technology, people can communicate with citizens from other countries by the Internet. When they communicate, they usually find English is the most common language used in the world. Furthermore, learning English

becomes a useful tool not only to earn a good living, but also to communicate with people from other countries.

### English Curriculum in Taiwan

According to educational policy, English has become a required subject from elementary schools to universities in Taiwan. Although the educational system mandates teaching English early, students still have a serious problem applying their learning from school to the real world.

Most theories about teaching English emphasize these four areas: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. However, the English curriculum in Taiwan lacks instruction and practice in speaking.

Most English classes in Taiwan stress grammar, vocabulary, and reading. The purposes are to assist students to pass college entrance examinations. These tests greatly influence teaching methods in English classrooms, which are based on how to prepare students to get high scores on these tests. Therefore, the teachers purposely ignore listening and speaking, and pay more attention to grammar, vocabulary, and reading. Both sides do not want to waste time practicing content that is not

included on the tests. Thus, teachers do not teach nor do students learn listening and speaking skills.

Listening and speaking skills are not the goals of English teaching in Taiwan. English has become just a tool to pass tests. Students probably attain good abilities in reading and writing. Nevertheless, they are afraid to communicate with people in English.

Taiwanese learn English not only for economic reasons, but also because it is a bridge to communicate with people from different ethnic backgrounds and cultures. In Taiwan, there are many private "cram" schools providing instruction for different English levels. These cram schools are also divided by different ages to support the needs of children, adolescents, and adults. On the other hand, many students may prefer to study abroad, where they can learn fluent English and higher degrees at the same time. Moreover, these students usually obtain better jobs and salaries in Taiwan. For these reasons, learning English is considered a basic requirement for Taiwanese.

#### Target Teaching Level

Because public schools tend merely to provide fundamental academic English instruction (reading and

writing), cram schools try to give people other avenues to increase their English abilities. On the other hand, although students' situations are different, teachers can freely adjust their instruction according to the students' need.

This is also the reason why I would choose teaching in cram schools: teaching these students can give me a lot of satisfaction in helping them gain confidence in speaking English. I hope I can use my experience to develop extracurricular activities to attract their interest in English. Then, they can make English as a part of their lives. I think it will be a challenge for me to teach in cram schools, but I believe I can do it well in improving their speaking ability.

#### Content of the Project

Due to the education limitations in Taiwan, many Taiwanese do not have full access to English instruction. They are not aware of the fact that there are various methods to learn a second language. They are also not aware they can connect English to other cultural settings. This project is focused on methods that can help students express English smoothly and fluently and learn about

Western cultures. It is comprised of five chapters.

Chapter One describes the background and purpose of the project. Chapter Two, Review of Literature, explains five related topics in the field. Chapter Three provides a theoretical framework that is designed according to the five related topics. Chapter Four, the Curriculum Design, presents five lesson plans. Chapter Five, Plan for Assessment, discusses purposes and types of assessment, specifically assessment for speaking.

#### Significance of the Project

The purpose of language is to communicate with people. English, spoken by many people in the world, has an important role in transmitting culture, technology, and literature. The project presents experimental ways of improving students' fluency in speaking English through learning about other cultures.

By implementing this project, the investigator hopes the methods and concepts presented can assist teachers to improve students' speaking fluency, so language learners can more freely speak English with people around the world.



## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### ✓ Oral Fluency

##### Introduction

◀ Oral fluency is an important component in learning a language, such as in an ESL/EFL class. ▶ Most people learning English think that if they cannot speak well, they cannot interact with others who speak English. However, it is difficult to define fluency. Can people say that someone speaks a language fluently when their speech is grammatically incorrect? Is grammatical accuracy an inseparable part of what is normally meant by fluency? Addressing these and other questions, oral fluency has become a focus for research.

In this section, oral fluency will be discussed from several perspectives: first, the importance of oral fluency and its definition; then, linguistic elements in oral fluency; next, the relationship between accuracy and fluency; and finally, the teaching of oral fluency.

##### The Importance of Oral Fluency

Fluency in language learning comprises speaking, reading, and writing. Oral fluency requires language

learners to make appropriate connections between the target language and their own background experiences (August, 2004). Drawing upon their native-language fluency, second-language learners can achieve their communicative goals more rapidly in the target language.

Both second-language learners and teachers consider oral fluency an important representation of students' second-language learning achievement. Despite the fact that many students have studied English for a long time, most still have problems speaking English fluently. Although many may already have attained proficiency in writing, listening, and reading, they still may find speaking the most difficult language-learning skill. Only by speaking fluently can they demonstrate successful communication.

#### Definitions of Oral Fluency

Many researchers have defined oral fluency. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2004) stated that fluency is the quality of being able to speak or write a language easily and well. Defining fluency has been difficult even for those concerned with first-language speakers. "It seems reasonable to say that although native speakers of a language share a great deal in the way of competence and

perhaps all of core grammar, they differ greatly in terms of eloquence, wit, volubility, smoothness of delivery, and so on" (Schmidt, 2001, p. v).

Fluency as Flow and Motion. There are many definitions of oral fluency. The term oral fluency has often been used to describe general foreign-language proficiency in terms of "flow," "continuity," or "smoothness of speech." Proficiency is also often reported in terms such as "movement," "current," "fluency," "liquidity," or "ease" (Koponen & Riggensbach, 2001, p. 6). For instance, in Mandarin, the term that describes a person's speaking proficiency is *liu li* (fluent and smooth). In German, speaking proficiency is described as *fliessend* (running) and *flussig* (flowing). In French, a similar word would be *couramment* (from the verb "courir" = to run). In English, fluent means "liquid" and "fluid." As these examples demonstrate, impressions of oral fluency usually are associated with motion and flowing current. "Thus, the potential inference will be that language is in motion" (Koponen & Riggensbach, 2001, p. 7).

Although the term oral fluency has been applied to native-speakers' speech, it is applied most often to non-native language learners. This explanation has led

researchers and educators to ponder the importance and relevance of oral fluency. Crystal and Varley (1993), discussing language pathology and fluency, pointed out that the popular sense of oral fluency refers to the degree of ability that people demonstrate while enacting a motor activity. In relation to language, the term implies ease and rapidity of speaking; speaking is accomplished by continuous flow with little hesitation and a good command of grammar and vocabulary.

Oral fluency is a key to language proficiency used in communication. When people communicate, most of them prefer to speak with others whose speech has the characteristics associated with flow and motion. Therefore, these features are modes of referring to a person's proficiency in oral language.

Fluency as Smoothness. One of the most common images of fluency is the concept of smoothness and continuity of speech. Goldman-Eisler (1961) noted that oral fluency is a continuity of well-structured and highly intelligible speech. Sapon et al. (1956) gave the concept of fluency a broader definition as follows:

Fluency, somewhat difficult to define precisely, yet a very real and apparent dimension of oral

performance, is more than the sum of the parts described above [phonetic accuracy, control of structure, and style]. We might consider as contributing to the determination of the degree of fluency such characteristics as continuity response, absence of inappropriate pauses, length of time required for beginning a response, and absence of extraneous sounds and false starts. (p. 35)

Despite the many aspects that comprise a definition of fluency, most language researchers and teachers think the concept of fluency parallels the notion of global proficiency. Lehtonen and Sajavaara (1977) stated,

The term fluency is sometimes used to refer to the high-quality performance attained by an exceptionally good foreign language learner. In most cases, fluency is seen as something concerned with the production of speech, and speech which is described as fluent is usually characterized by features such as the lack of hesitation and pauses, the length of the sentences, the absence of grammatical and pronunciation errors, and the speed of delivery.

A superficial impression of fluency seems to be conveyed primarily by the continuity of the acoustic signal and its linguistic acceptability. (p. 20)

In addition, some researchers think oral fluency is an element of communicative competence. Faerch, Hastrup, and Phillipson (1984) indicated that a speaker's ability is a kind of representation of linguistic and pragmatic competence. Hedge (1993, p. 275) offered a similar definition of fluency: "to speak and write a particular language competently and with ease."

These varieties of definitions demonstrate how complex is the concept of fluency. Consequently, there is no all-purpose definition of fluency. Although these perspectives do not exhaust the notion of fluency, they still provide several important dimensions of the concept.

#### Linguistic Elements in Oral Fluency

Although many researchers and professionals have tried to define fluency, it still has no fixed definition. Moreover, there are several factors which influence individual speakers in their fluency. Linguistic proficiency is a main one.

o

The achievement of linguistic proficiency in L1 or Ln  
(one's second or third, fourth, etc.) includes both the  
acquisition of linguistic knowledge and the acquisition of  
pragmatic knowledge (Chomsky, 1980). However, it also  
involves the acquisition expressed by Bialystok and  
Sharwood-Smith (1985) in terms of "knowledge" and  
"control." Fluent performance can be the consequence of  
the learners' own sufficient abilities including  
linguistic knowledge (grammar, lexis, and phonology),  
pragmatic knowledge (form-function), and processing  
skills.

Furthermore, oral fluency also needs to be  
accompanied by other language skills, such as listening,  
reading, and writing, in order to achieve communicative  
purposes. If learners lack language skills, they cannot  
receive information, nor can they respond fluently.  
Therefore, fluency refers to successful performance of the  
task of linguistic production (Lennon, 2001).

In summary, the attainment of linguistic proficiency  
in L1 or Ln involves the acquisition of linguistic and  
pragmatic knowledge, and the acquisition of language  
skills. When learners combine these skills, they will  
automatically produce custom-built chunks of language and

processing loads will be eased. Linguistic proficiency can also be attained through a person's NL and TL self-correction and can help learners reach their target language.

#### Other Factors Influence Oral Fluency in English as a Second Language/Foreign Language Class

Speaking is a complicated process. It is influenced by many factors. Some factors include curriculum, psychology, and language environment. In order for students to continue to progress in their oral fluency, they must be aware of the factors that influence their learning objectives.

The Curriculum Factor. The role of oral proficiency in curriculum is a problem in most non-English countries. It is difficult for teachers to balance their instructional time between speaking fluently and speaking accurately. If they overemphasize either of these concepts, their students may not progress in their language acquisition (Yan, 2004).

The Psychological Factors. Self-esteem, motivation, anxiety, attitudes, and other related factors are psychological factors influencing the target language's learning. The most important of these factors is the



learner's anxiety. A clinical observation reported by Horwitz (1986) is that learners in oral ESL/EFL classes often feel anxious about communicating with others.

This communication anxiety usually influences learners' self-concept because they are forced to communicate with less proficiency in their target language than in their native one. They feel apprehensive when speaking to other people while using their target language because they fear they will not be understandable (Yan, 2004).

Language Environment Factors. "Language environment refers to time, occasion, site or object of speaking" (Yan, 2004, p. 11). Environmental differences may influence the acquisition of oral production. Generally, people who are learning a language need a stable environment that can support their use of the target language. However, due to the fact that most students are accustomed to speaking their native language with others who come from the same language background, most ESL/EFL students have difficulties achieving their goal of English-language acquisition. The quality of the teacher's instruction also influences learners' achievement. In most Asian countries, some teachers may lack English

proficiency. This not only affects academic achievement, but also may make students' attainment of oral fluency a struggle.

### Accuracy and Fluency

In popular opinion, fluency and accuracy are distinct. Language educators usually connect these concepts by seeing them as extremes in the fluency continuum; that is an overemphasis on accuracy may discourage fluency, but fluency itself may not achieve accuracy. Fluency and accuracy usually relate to teaching methodology (class activities) as aspects that influence the oral performance of students.

However, the notion of fluency and accuracy being in some ways irreconcilable has been changing. Brumfit (1984) addressed his views of fluency and accuracy in a pedagogical context and proposed that fluency and accuracy can mutually exist in speaking. According to his view, language learning activities designed to be fluency-oriented encourage spontaneous language use and are directed toward communication. The activities designed to be accuracy-oriented are focused on forms and controlled verbal behavior.

When Palmer discussed language learning and the relationships between fluency and accuracy, he stated similar concepts:

We are acting in accordance with the principle that no active work is profitable until the pupil has mastered the sounds of the language, and can produce them with fluency and accuracy. Our ideal standard program is based on the principle of fluency and accuracy or nothing. (as cited in Koponen & Rigggenbach, 2001, pp. 17-18)

These quotes document a view that fluency cannot be isolated from integrated language performance. Moreover, fluency and accuracy are concepts that are important to teachers as they make decisions about the content of lessons and the distribution of time among several activities (Brumfit, 2001).

### Summary

Communication is a complex activity. Oral fluency is one of the important elements of communicative language; it is key to the field of research and teaching English as a second language. Although many researchers and professionals have tried to define fluency, it still has

no fixed definition. There are several factors that affect individual speakers, among which linguistic proficiency is the most significant. Furthermore, language learners in ESL/EFL classes must be aware of psychological and language environmental factors. As students acquire knowledge and skills in English, they can overcome obstacles to oral fluency.

## 2. Pronunciation Software

### Introduction

English is a widely spoken native language in the world; in addition, a growing number of speakers have some familiarity with English as their second or third language. In the future, English-as-a-second-language speakers will surpass the number of native speakers (Davis, 2004).

↙ The number of non-native speakers of English is increasing as the social and economic demands for speaking English increase. However, some non-native speakers of English have problems communicating with native-English speakers because of pronunciation difficulties. ↘ For this reason, non-native speakers of English should focus on the

core aspects of pronunciation that are essential for English international communication (Jenkins, 1998).

In the following sections, three topics will be discussed: (1) pronunciation, including the difficulty in teaching it; (2) computer-aided-pronunciation (CAP), including the strengths and limitations of CAP; and (3) pronunciation software, including discussion of several well-known pronunciation software products used for instructional purposes.

#### Definitions of Pronunciation

Pronunciation has three definitions: First, pronunciation is the act of uttering with articulation and giving the proper sound and accent; utterance, the pronunciation of syllables of words; and the display of distinct or indistinct speech. Second, pronunciation is the mode of uttering words or sentences. Third, it is the art or manner of uttering a discourse publicly with propriety and gracefulness (Hyperdictionary.com, 2003).

In most English dictionaries, one can easily find the phonetic transcription of a word; despite this, however, it still may be difficult to produce the word properly. Therefore, having good pronunciation becomes a critical task for non-native speakers.

Good Pronunciation. (When communicating with other people, if what is being said is easily understood and pleasant to the ears of native speakers, it is considered good pronunciation. Finding an appropriate way to pronounce words is the foundation of pronunciation; making oneself easily understood is necessary in communication. This is a process that occurs in one's brain. The task of deciphering another's speech should be as easy as understanding one's native language when pronounced by a native speaker. Speech is not always pleasant to the ear even though it can be easily understood. However, if the pronunciation is difficult to understand, then it is also unpleasant.) For instance, when someone pronounces "t" instead of "th" (i.e., tank you for thank you), his or her pronunciation may still be easy to understand but unpleasant (Why should you study pronunciation?, n.d.).

The Levels of Pronunciation. There are three levels that correspond to correct English pronunciation by non-native speakers. At level one, native speakers often do not understand what non-native speakers want to say because of the mistakes in pronunciation. At level two, people understand what non-native speakers are saying, but it is unpleasant to the ears. At level three, non-native

speakers achieve the goal of being easily understood and their English is pleasant to the ear (What is good pronunciation?, n.d.).

However, there are still two more points to address. First, having good pronunciation does not mean having the perfect American or British accent. Because of geographic influences within each English-speaking country, different dialects exist featuring diverse pronunciation. Therefore, there is no "perfect" American or British accent. Although there is no perfect accent to achieve, one's accent must be close to the standards of an English-speaking nation to be understood (What is good pronunciation?, n.d.). When turning on the TV to watch news channels, people can find that although the reporters come from different countries, they all have intonations that are easy to understand. When one's pronunciation is close to the standard, one can usually communicate, using English that is pleasant to listen to. When speakers are far from the standard, they can have trouble communicating successfully.

### Challenges in Teaching Pronunciation

After a person passes the critical period of language development in childhood (Lenneberg, 1967), it becomes difficult to alter pronunciation patterns and associated

behaviors. Similarly, adolescent and adult language learners generally reach a point of "fossilization" as they learn a new language. This means that most adolescent and adult learners will not easily improve their productive and receptive competence of a new language system without explicit instruction (Pennington, 1999).

On the other hand, the teaching of pronunciation has been ignored for the past several decades in the ESL classrooms in the U.S. Due to the change in language education from less functional to more functional goals, pronunciation has become a skill that is expected to be "picked up" by the students indirectly from the available input, without any mediation or formal instruction (Morley, 1991). As the result, too few curricula at beginning or advanced levels include the teaching of pronunciation skills.

Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin (1996) provided a five-stage model for teaching pronunciation. The model generally moves from raising awareness of the aspect of pronunciation, to insight and focused listening, then to oral practice. For segmental and supra-segmental features, oral practice progresses from controlled practice in oral reading, to semi-structured practice in information gap



activities and dialogues, then to less-structured communicative practice. In other words, oral practice moves from a phonological form to a dual focus on form and meaning.

Teachers can apply this framework in various ways, but in ESL/EFL classrooms and teacher-training experiences, it is usually applied in two ways, depending on what aspect is central to a course. In classes devoted to pronunciation, teachers apply the framework by moving from controlled pronunciation practice to less-structured communication speaking practice, and then make a transition to the more communicative end of the pronunciation spectrum. Actual speaking practice is usually unrelated to pronunciation or ignored altogether (Anderson-Hsieh, 1992; Goh, 1993).

In courses devoted to speaking or oral communication, teachers apply the framework by moving in the opposite direction, starting with less-structured speaking practice and perhaps moving into pronunciation. In this case, however, teachers often address pronunciation unsystematically, applying it primarily as a corrective measure when errors are too prominent to be ignored (Jenkins, 1998). Either way, the students often fail to

get the full range of practice activities they need to improve speaking and pronunciation. Consequently, even when teachers want to teach pronunciation, they do not have enough technique to effectively weave it into listening and speaking exercises, or offer enough pronunciation correction without taking up so much time that the communicative goals of the course are neglected.

Existing textbooks offer two primary aspects for integrating pronunciation and speaking instruction. Although current pronunciation-based texts include communicative activities, more are organized around pronunciation features and are not suitable as primary texts in oral communication courses. A striking fact of many speaking-based or integrated-skills texts is the absence of explicit, specific focus on pronunciation (Morley, 1991). When pronunciation is included, it is usually attached to listening comprehension or oral exercises. More specifically, when speaking-oriented pronunciation instruction appears, it consists of carefully controlled oral reading or repetition.

The current situation closely resembles the situation described a decade ago, where one researcher found that, in oral communication textbooks, "activity centered on

speaking and listening is vastly more common... [than] pronunciation activity" (Murphy, 1991, p. 64). As a result, pronunciation instruction, oral reading, and repetition practices seem to be similar and be mixed within language education. The pronunciation training such as a focus on the International Phonetic Alphabet and phoneme blends within syllables gradually between ignored and has lost its place in language teaching.

### Computer-Aided Pronunciation

Because pronunciation is so important in teaching English, educators strive to acquire new resources to enhance the teaching of pronunciation. Therefore, researchers have created software for teaching of pronunciation. Computer-aided pronunciation (CAP) training allows learners diverse opportunities to improve their English-language competence as they pay attention to their phonology and acquire target-language pronunciation.

Most CAP systems run on a standard personal computer using special hardware and software. The hardware usually includes a microphone, a set of earphones, and a sound card. Software for graphics, animation, video, and audio effects may also be used to develop CAP pedagogy. Recorded

speech samples can be stimulated for analysis of the sample in both segmental and prosodic aspects.

CAP offers a solution to several practical restrictions. Without the limitation of place and time, the systems allow learners to access the programs and practice individually. Moreover, the systems provide rapid and accurate speech analysis in second-language learning to teach phonology and pronunciation.

Advantages of Computer-Aided Pronunciation. CAP has advantages that support language instruction. First, CAP quickly performs analysis and gives feedback to the user faster than can other human beings. Moreover, its answers are consistently accurate. Likewise, CAP is superior to human pronunciation trainers or educators because it is not limited in listening ability, judgments, or patience. In contrast, human pronunciation trainers or educators may be limited by various factors such as lack of experience, negative demeanor, and bias.

CPA provides reliable and effective feedback. This can easily be demonstrated by utilizing the computer's ability to store large quantity of information and present feedback in visual and audio forms. In view of this characteristic, the computer can individualize

pronunciation instruction in ways that educators cannot, based on mechanical analysis of individual problems, trials, and performance. Through CAP, learners can access particular samples of speech and phonologies from different dialects. These samples may offer a "perfect" voice similar to what the learners want to imitate. Further, the computer can analyze and track individual problems and help learners to revise their imperfect speech (Eskenazi, 1999).

< In addition, CAP can stimulate students' motivation and performance in pronunciation. By submitting their own speech as pronunciation input and having the computer compare this input to native-speaker norms, learners can understand and be aware of the key features of phonology in the target language and weaknesses in their pronunciation. This thereby enhances the learning productivity in phonology, allowing learners to achieve fluency and accuracy in utterance (Pennington, 1999). >

Limitations of Computer-Aided Pronunciation. In spite of the positive features, CAP still retains several potential limitations. One weakness is in pedagogy. Most pronunciation software lacks the basis of any particular teaching theory. Secondly, it is difficult to determine

what standard the software should use for pronunciation, so it is difficult to define the accuracy of the pronunciation. In addition, most software requires the learner to pre-record their voices. However, the pre-record option is not flexible. Thus, the language learners might be disappointed due to failure while they compare their record with the pre-set targets (Pennington, 1999).

CAP is also prone to the problem of excessive emphasis on computer-based work on pronunciation that leads to decontextualized mechanics of articulation. Most of the pronunciation software is deficient in curriculum or in application of the technology that links mechanical and meaningful dimensions of phonology (Pennington, 1989).

Although these software can provide students a learning and practices channel by playback their voices and diagrams' analysis, students still need to apply and perform correct pronunciation in their lives. Excessive use of this software will cause students merely to imitate the mechanics of articulation and disregard the need to adapt to the different pronunciation among people' speaking.)

## Pronunciation Software

Commercial programs designed for pronunciation are widely available on the market. These programs incorporate audio and visual features. All of the programs listed below give students the opportunity to record their voices, play back what they have said, and compare it with pre-recorded models. All offer some kind of pair and word practice, as well as sentence practice. However, the software generally runs from moderately priced to rather expensive. Individual learners might not have the desire to buy pronunciation software. The information below will point out some elements which may help to distinguish among the programs.

Accent Lab. Published by Accent Technologies Company, the software Accent Lab mainly offers pronunciation improvement for speakers of English as a second language. It applies voice recording and playback to analyze pronunciation and compare the speech with examples through waveform diagrams and formatted maps. Nevertheless, because the diagrams are difficult to judge and understand, users sometimes might misjudge their performance (<http://www.accentlab.com>, 2005).

American Speechsounds. Published by Speechcom, American Speechsounds has two versions: personal and professional. Both versions offer video clips of lip and tongue positions to help the students with pronunciation practice of sounds ranging from isolated phonemes to words, phrases, and sentences. Linking, stress, and intonation exercises are also included. A directory based on the student's first language helps the student to focus on sounds most likely to be problematic. Students can listen and record their voices for comparison with the model. The professional version of the program includes the International Phonetic Alphabet and can create new exercises according to the users' requests. Therefore, teachers can add their own materials. In addition, the program's design encourages self-evaluation. Therefore, in order to train students' pronunciation efficiently and procedurally, teachers need to set up a schedule for students' practice and supervision is needed when students work independently (<http://www.speechcom.com>, 2005).

Ellis Master Pronunciation 3.0. Ellis Software has a series of computer programs to help language learners. In the series, Ellis Master Pronunciation 3.0 is the software that emphasizes pronunciation. The computer program can be



used independently or is also compatible with other programs in this series.

This software covers learning levels from eight-year old to adult. It allows students to hear how words sound and to see how sounds are formed. Learners can hear words pronounced by male and female video models, with animated sequences showing articulation points of the tongue, teeth, and lips for each phoneme. Students can also record their voices for playback in comparison with the native speaker model. In this software, audio explanations are available in twenty-eight languages that may be randomly presented or selected by the learners' language background. This flexibility enables learners to focus on sounds that are problematic to them.

Ellis Master Pronunciation 3.0 focuses on a variety of supra-segmental skills such as rhythm, stress, and intonation. Each of these tutorials includes extensive practice opportunities to ensure students are familiar with these aspects of English pronunciation (<http://Ellis.com>, 2005).

PerfectPronunciation. The company Antimoon developed a computer program for learning English pronunciation, PerfectPronunciation. The price is moderate and it can

also be downloaded from the Internet. It contains five hundred exercises and 546 high-quality audio recordings that focus on how to pronounce properly the most frequently used English words. It clearly shows all the sounds in a word using phonetic transcription. Information about word stress (accent) is also included. The phonetic transcriptions cover two main accents: American English and British English.

In addition, learners can save each word practiced through SuperMemory technology. Therefore, the program can choose words to review based on the learner's self-assessment, and each lesson includes some previously-viewed words along with new words (<http://Antimoon.com>, 2005).

Pronunciation Power. Software published by Englishlearning.com features a set of computer programs including Pronunciation Power 1 & 2, as well as Pronunciation Power Idioms to help English learners gradually improve their pronunciations.

Pronunciation Power 1 & 2 identify the key elements that an individual needs to learn appropriate speech habits, and then assist users in practicing these important patterns. The program uses graphic side views of

human mouth movement to let the learners see exactly how all fifty-two sounds are produced. English is presented and is followed by speech analysis activities, lessons, and four different kinds of exercises: Sample Words, Comparative Words, Listening Discrimination, and Sentences. The focus is on pronouncing English clearly and differentiating between words with similar sounds. Learners assess their progress by comparing with the perfect pre-recorded sounds. Recording and playback facilitate the comparison. The software is flexible, allowing the users to select a particular sound on which they want to focus.

Additionally, the software claims to "cover the most serious pronunciation problems of most language groups." Moreover, it provides twelve native-language translations to help users understand their weaknesses by using their native languages. It aims to show a link between listening and speaking, and improve both skills. It explains to users how sounds are produced using speech instruments. The International Phonetic Alphabet is used to illustrate correlation between letters and sounds (<http://www.englishlearning.com>, 2005).

To compare features of these five pronunciation software programs, several aspects need to be discussed. In general, these five programs cover the usage slash learning levels from eight-year olds to adults. All have a self-assessment function. Second, they can apply voice recording and playback to analyze pronunciation and compare the models through waveforms. Furthermore, all of the software, except Accent Lab, offer video clips of lip and tongue positions to help the students with pronunciation practice of sounds. Linking, stress, and intonation exercises are also included. Four of the systems allow learners to hear how words sound and to see how sounds are formed. They support a directory based on the student's first language which helps students to focus on sounds that most likely to be problematic to them. The IPA is included as well.

These five computer programs all have unique strengths. Comparing the relative prices, Accent Lab is the most reasonable software. American Speechsound's professional version has authoring ability and teachers can apply customized materials. Ellis Master Pronunciation 3.0 can perform with other software in the Ellis series to help learners improve their skills more efficiently.

PerfectPronunciation displays two phonetic translations:

American English and British English for learners to choose from; its SuperMemory utility allows learners to review their weaknesses from previous self-assessment.

Pronunciation Power series and Ellis Master Pronunciation display most of the advantages of similar computer programs available in the market.

In summary, although only five pronunciation software programs have been reviewed, it is obvious that software designers and educators have addressed language learners' needs in English pronunciation. Furthermore, CAP systems reduce the students' mistakes and help them in self-learning and assessment.

#### Summary

74 Pronunciation is a key factor in assisting people to communicate more smoothly. Finding a comprehensible way to pronounce is the foundation of speaking. Although there is no perfect accent to achieve, people's accents should be clear, understandable, and close to the standards of nature English speakers. If speakers are far from these standards, they have difficult time with communication.

Unfortunately, the current curricula and teacher-training in teaching pronunciation cannot break

through the predicament of providing adequate pronunciation practice; therefore, CAP, a computer technique invented by researchers and educators, is used to solve the quandary and supplement the strategies in teaching pronunciation.

After overviewing this CAP software in the market, a number of strength and weaknesses have been identified. Hence, when educators and designers design new CAP software, they have to consider the limitations existing current software and improve the weaknesses in new ones. In addition, the form in which feedback is provided is very important. Feedback should be pertinent and easy to interpret. Consequently, if the teachers in language learning want to use CAP, they must be aware of the limitations of the programs. Moreover, teachers should adopt CAP as supplementary training and not as the main pedagogy in teaching pronunciation until these limitations are solved.

## Intonation

### Introduction

Learning how to speak a language is a very complex task; however, if the learner were aware of what is

involved, the learning process would become facilitative. It is difficult for learners to analyze how to pronounce their target language. Therefore, the teacher's job is to help learners divide the language into its components, such as sounds, syllables, stress, and intonation. Of these components, intonation acts as an important role in learning language.

◀ Intonation, the melody of speech, acts a fundamental role in communication because it not only formulates grammatically correct utterances, but also signals communicative interaction strategies, such as interrupting, asking questions, and changing topics. When the pitch of the voice is used to convey meaning, it helps people to pay attention to the speaker's meaning. Therefore, a language learner should be aware of the different meanings in intonation.

This segment will discuss the communicative intent in intonation. First, it will define the meaning of intonation and analyze the levels. Then, the functions of intonation will be covered. ◀ This segment will also conclude with a discussion of the difficulties in teaching intonation and provide some pedagogical suggestions. ▶

## The Definition of Intonation

Intonation has a range of definitions. Some linguists think intonation not only includes pitch, but also comprises stress and pause. They consider, specifically, "the tone pattern of speech, produced by varying vocal pitch." "Type and style of intonation are closely linked to patterns of rhythm and stress and cannot easily be described separately from them" (McArthur, 1996, p. 479). On the other hand, other researchers think intonation is restricted to the exposition of melody in speech. The descriptions below will adopt the following notion: intonation resembles speech melody.

## The Levels of Intonation

As Hart and Collier (1975) pointed out, there are three different levels at which intonation can be analyzed, each of which reflects a different degree of abstraction. First, acoustic level intonation can be seen as a series of fundamental frequency curves in time; furthermore, many of these acoustic phenomena are not perceived at all by the human ear or only selectively perceived.

Second, in the phonetic level, intonation can be viewed as a series of perceivable pitch events. However,



not even all the pitch events which are capable of being distinguished by the human ear are necessarily relevant in understanding the utterances of a given language.

In the third level, phonology of intonation analysis can be identified as potentially distinct pitch events and are grouped together into "meaningful" categories. Because people usually listen to speech in order to grasp meaning, many of these perceptible distinctions are easy to observe.

#### The Approach of Intonation

Languages take two main approaches to intonation. In the utterance approach, intonation means that the pitch contour of the utterance varies; however, the pitch is not used to distinguish words from each other. For instance, in English, it does not matter whether you say "flower" with a high pitch or low pitch. It still means "flower." However, in the tone languages, such as Mandarin, the pitch of individual vowels or syllables is used to contrast meaning (Fromkin & Rodman, 1997). For instance, the Mandarin word /ma/ has four different entries and these represent four different meanings (Wang, 1967).

Pitch movement	Word	Meaning
high level	ma	mother

high-rising	ma	hemp
low-falling-rising	ma	horse
high-falling	ma	scold

In addition, speakers use pitch to give words stress and to express emotion. There are two ways in which pitch is used: the speaker can emphasize a word by raising the pitch. Speakers vary pitch, rising or falling sharply to highlight the important portion they want to mention. The second way is that intonation is used to show expectations. Strong expectations are shown by low pitch, whereas lack of expectation is shown by high pitch. The best example can be observed in daily conversation (Chun, 2002).

On the other hand, most researchers think the syntactic approach influences how intonation affects the meaning of sentences. The syntactic approach involves the assumption that the intonation of an utterance depends in some ways on certain grammatical facts about the utterance, such as question intonation, declarative intonation, and sentence intonation (Lieberman, 1967).

#### The Attitude Function of Intonation

The attitude function of intonation was elaborated by Couper-Kuhlen; he gave a basic definition as follows:

It is an undisputed fact that intonation has an important role to play in the expression of emotion and attitudes. The linguist's task therefore is not so much to determine whether intonation expresses a speaker's inner states or not but rather how much of the expression is indeed linguistic. (1986, pp. 173-174)

The features of intonation that express emotions may be either universal or language-specific. Therefore, people must distinguish a structure of emotional state. The structure must be universal across a linguistic field which applies cognitive expression of attitude in communication (Chun, 2002).

Currently, there are many different approaches to the understanding the relationship of attitude and intonation. These approaches may be divided into several types. In the tonetic approach, O'Conner and Arnold (1961) illustrated that the "contribution that intonation makes is to express, in addition to and beyond the bare words and grammatical constructions used, the speaker's attitude to the situation in which he is placed" (p. 2).

Brown et al. (1983) suggested that there seems to be a small number of intonation patterns which are

conventionally related to a set of attitudes. For instance, when speakers end their speech by raising their tones, it means that the speakers wish to encourage their audience. Raising intonation patterns accompanied by other types of voice quality are associated with other different attitudes such as politeness. They proposed that the operation of voice quality seems to be a much better indicator of attitude than intonation alone.

On the other hand, Bolinger (1986) offered his thoughts about the connection among intonation, emotion, and gesture. In his theory of intonation, he stated,

Intonation configurations are matched by configurations of facial expressions and bodily gestures that the two operate much of the time in parallel, and that their similarities betoken similarities of function, points to the configuration approach as the most likely to succeed" (p. 337).

In his opinion, intonation is described by contours and gestures. The situation can be observed when people communicate. As people end their speaking, they use falling intonation to convey the notion of termination and put down their hand.

Therefore, intonation plays an important role in oral communication. Interpreting a variety of intonations, people can identify the speaker's meaning and formulate an appropriate response according to the attitudes conveyed

### The Information Foundation of Intonation

The theory of information structure in sentence and texts has emerged from the work of the Prague School of Linguists and Halliday. Halliday (1970) thought that "in English, information structure is expressed by intonation" (p. 162). Therefore, intonation usually plays an important role in translating explicitly what speakers typically do when they communicate, and tell their audience something they do not know. In doing so, they are imparting information and increasing the hearer's knowledge.

Unit of Information and Tone Unit. In order to effectively translate, people must decide not only what the content is, but also how the message should be sent. This involves how to separate a message into "chunks" and express it. Halliday (1976) pointed out chunking results from "the speaker's blocking out of the message into quanta of information or message block. Each of these quanta is a unit of information" (p. 202). Units of information may or may not match with grammatical clauses.

These chunks are divided by tonality or tone groups. The more information units there are, the more tone units there are.

Moreover, the chunks of information are realized by the assignment of prominence in the tone-unit. The portions of one message which are informative are realized by the tonic segment. The more the tone changes, the more information is expressed (Halliday, 1976). The demonstration can be proved in the instances below: (A) it expresses a fact, there is a man in the garden; (B) it emphasizes the subject's sex "there is a man" and the location "in the garden."

(A) There is a man in the garden.

(B) [There is a man] [in the garden].

The structure of the information unit in terms of focused and non-focused materials relates to the different types of information translation. It mainly divides into two segments: given vs. new information and contrast vs. new information.

Given vs. New Information. Brown (1983) discussed a study of intonation and information structure. He found that when a speaker introduces new or inferable information, it is typically pronounced by high pitch.

Moreover, how to identify the difference between given and new information depends on the speaker. Although the information is potentially known by the listener, the speaker still can use a high pitch to express this information. Chafe (1974) also asserted that identifying the intonation's given and new dichotomy in English is reflected in the use of low vs. high pitch individually. In addition, the use of high vs. low pitch to distinguish new and given information functions is usually separated by nouns and verbs.

Contrast vs. New Information. Halliday (1967) proposed new information as either "cumulative to or contrastive with what has preceded" (p. 211). Therefore, he pointed out that new information is contrastive or can be emphasized when items do not receive focus from the information. For instance, in the sentence, Mary was angry, if the verb is given sentence stress, it would be contrastive to emphasize the impression that implies Mary was very angry. Moreover, both contrastive and new information may show high pitch in the dialogues.

The Classroom Difficulty in Teaching Intonation in English as a Second Language/Foreign Language

There are several elements that influence instructors in teaching English intonation in ESL/EFL classes. First, the discourse functions of English prosody appear to be specific to the English language. However, most English learners who try to learn English do not understand English prosody. Therefore, when English learners try to learn English, their native language's prosody usually limits or interrupts their learning of English.

Second, this discourse about intonation is not appreciated by the instructors. Because intonation does not have a systemic rule to follow such as grammar, the teachers usually feel they have problems in teaching it. In addition, the teachers may lack accuracy in describing the features of phonology and they tend to focus on other portions in oral expression instead of intonation.

Third, interference from the learners may be a problem, especially if they are speakers of Asian languages. Unlike English, Asian languages have a tonal and rhythmic structure. Thus, English learners from Asia usually have difficulty learning English intonation



because they do not know how to translate intonation from their language.

Finally, the problem is related to materials. English prosody is not appropriately dealt with by most available pronunciation books in ESL/EFL classes. For a long time, intonation is ignored by oral expression. The teacher and material may emphasize pronunciation rather than teach intonation. When the intonation cannot be described and designed clearly in books, the teacher and students would escape the portions and instead emphasize pronunciation (Clennel, 1997).

Due to the reasons above, researchers and instructors should try to find strategies to help students learn intonation. Furthermore, the researchers must investigate a clear instructional method to assist teachers in improving their knowledge of phonology.



### Strategies in Teaching Intonation

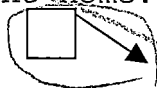
Many teachers find intonation is difficult to teach and they usually avoid it in their instruction. However, inappropriate intonation may result in a serious communication breakdown between native-English speakers and English learners. Therefore, the teachers still need to put intonation in their instruction. These teaching

strategies listed below may offer teachers more ideas about teaching intonation.

Intonation Arrows. When teachers try to teach intonation, they may feel it is difficult to display to students. Symbols can be applied to intonation. The teacher can use a simple, clear way to show intonation by drawing a little box in each stressed syllable, and use a small "intonation arrow" to show the direction of the intonation. If the intonation in a sentence starts high and then falls, he/she can draw an arrow from the top high to the bottom to express the intonation (Scrivener, 2004).

For instance:

He went home.



2) Read Aloud. The teacher can let students listen to a short dialogue while looking at the printed information. When students listen to the dialogue, the teacher can ask students to notice which syllables are prominent and which direction the intonation moves after these stresses. Then, the teacher discusses the details with them. Afterward, students read the dialogue in pairs, looking at their partner when speaking (May, 2001).

3) Imitation. The teacher displays a video scene of a TV program and asks the students to notice the intonation of the actors/actresses. Students have to concentrate on the emotions and the body language in the scene. Then the teacher lets them choose the script of the characters and asks them to imitate. Before students perform the scene, the teacher plays the video again so that the students can recite the story with their voice. This activity is very interesting and gives language learners an opportunity to compare the differences in intonation (Gibicsar, n.d.).

#### Summary

Q) Intonation is an important component of successful oral expression. It not only gives the language variety, but also emphasizes a person's forms of expression. Furthermore, inappropriate intonation may result in serious communication breakdowns between native-English speakers and language learners. Therefore, if the English learners do not apply intonation in their conversation, native-English speakers would be difficult to understand them.

Unfortunately, there are several influences on teaching intonation in ESL/EFL classrooms. These factors mainly can be divided two sections: students' personal

situations and teacher's resources. In the students' personal situations area, because of the different backgrounds and languages systems, students may be unfamiliar with English intonation and need time to understand and learn it. In teacher's resource area, due to lack of the current curricula, teachers' experiences, and appropriate teacher training, the teachers in ESL/EFL classes avoid teaching intonation.

Therefore, providing successful teaching strategies and training would be the best way to show teachers how to teach intonation. Furthermore, the educators and curriculum writers should redesign the curriculum to let teachers have a systemic resource to support their instructions in intonation. Only through these methods can students learn intonation more effectively in the classroom.

## Corrective Feedback

### Introduction

When learners study English in ESL/EFL classes, helping them improve their language skills becomes a serious topic for the teachers. Therefore, researchers and educators have begun to investigate the kinds of

strategies that will be of most help to English-language learners.

For decades now, research on the efficiency of the communicative approach for learning English as a second language reveals that only providing input cannot satisfy students' needs in English learning. More and more teachers have come to the conclusion that providing appropriate corrective linguistic content during communicative practice is of the greatest help to students in learning English. Therefore, corrective feedback is considered to ease ESL development because it can provide learners opportunities to notice their errors through negotiation of meaning.

Corrective feedback will be discussed from several standpoints. First, the section will explore the role of corrective feedback in ESL/EFL classes. Then, the influence of corrective feedback in the learners' interlanguage systems will be discussed.

#### The Approach of Corrective Feedback

The issue of revising or editing in the classroom is a serious topic in teaching ESL/EFL classes. It is difficult to determine which strategies would help students progress in their goals and objectives of

language learning. Therefore, most researchers borrowed the framing questions used by Hendrickson (1978) and tried to investigate the issue of error treatment in the classrooms.

Recent research by Lyster and Ranta on an immersion program in Canada may help to provide some practical advice for immersion teachers. Lyster and Ranta (1997) studied different types of error feedback. They especially emphasized what kind of corrective feedback helps students produce self-repair. Therefore, this research can assist learners effectively to develop English proficiency through self-monitoring and feedback from their teachers or peers.

Types of Corrective Feedback. The six different types of feedback that Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified are used to categorize teachers' feedback in current language teaching.

First, explicit correction refers to the overt provision of the correct form. As the teachers provide the correct form, they clarify that what the students have said as incorrect.

Second, recasts involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error.

They are generally implicit in that they are not introduced by phrase such as "You mean," "Use the word," and "You should say." Recast also includes translations in response to a student's use. Teachers would not indicate nor point out that the student made an error, but merely give the correct form.

Third, clarification requests point out that either student's utterances has been misunderstood by the teacher or the utterance is misunderstood in some way, and a repetition or reformulation is required. Unlike explicit correction or recast, clarification requests refer to difficulties in comprehension.

Metalinguistic feedback contains comments, information, or questions related to the proper pronunciation of the student's utterance, without unambiguously providing the correct form. It notes the nature of error but attempts to elicit the information from the students. Therefore, students can analyze their utterance linguistically through this feedback.

Elicitation refers to the techniques that teachers use directly to elicit the correct form from the students. The technique mainly is divided three ways:

(1) Strategically pausing to allow students to fill the

block, (2) using questions to elicit correct forms, and (3) asking students to reformulate their utterance. In each technique, the teachers would not provide the correct form to the students. Lastly, repetition consists of teachers repeating the students' utterances (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Uptake Types. The definition of uptake for the current corrective feedback study was modified from Lyster and Ranta's definition. Uptake is "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intent to draw attention to some aspect of the student's intent utterance" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 49). According to the definition, Lyster and Ranta separated uptake into two aspects: repair and need-repair. Repair refers to repairing the error that the student's make when corrected by the teacher in an English lesson. On the contrary, need-repair displays the condition that students do not produce self-revision after corrected by the teacher.

Lyster and Ranta distinguished three kinds of repair in this study: repetition, self-repair, and peer-repair. In the repetition portion, students repeat the correct form from the teacher's feedback. Self-repair is similar



to self-correction. It is produced by the students who made the initial error in reaction to the teacher's feedback. However, the teachers did not provide the correct form. Peer-repair refers to peer-correction provided by a student who does not make the initial error. The nature of this uptake type is to restructure language forms among the peers.

The other uptake is need-repair that directs the learner response to the corrective feedback; nevertheless, the learner's original mistaken utterance does not need to be repaired. There are five types of need-repair that will be discussed: acknowledge, same error, different error, off target, and partial error. Acknowledge generally refers to a simple reply "yes" or "no" on the part of the student in response to the teacher's feedback or metalinguistic feedback. "Same error" touches upon the fact that the learners have already received corrective feedback; nonetheless, they repeat the same error in their turn. "Different error" illustrates the situation that the learners neither correct nor repeat the error after feedback, but make a different error. "Off target" refers to uptake in which the learners respond to teachers' feedback, but do not correct the right phrase in the

feedback. "Partial repair" refers to uptake that includes a correction of only the part of the initial error (Suzuki, 2004).

The Results of Corrective Feedback. Lyster and Ranta's study produced interesting results in terms of feedback. They found that the teachers mainly provided corrective feedback using recast and elicitation. Repetition exhibited the lowest percentage of feedback because teachers always repeated with other types of feedback. However, if the teachers wanted students to generate repair by themselves, recast and elicitation were not used because the correct forms were already provided by teachers (Tedick & De Gortari, 1998).

According to the result above, Lyster and Ranta (1997) thought corrective feedback could be applied in ESL/EFL classes successfully. They also considered that student-generated repairs were very important elements in language learning because through this learning process students could get corrective feedback or cues from their teachers. Moreover, this interaction would help students reformulate their incorrect language.

## Corrective Feedback in Language Acquisition

Early studies on corrective feedback in language acquisition called into doubt its existence, use, and usability because most researchers thought that teachers' corrective feedback was often unnoticed by students (Brock, Crookes, Day, & Long, 1986). However, Pinker (1989) asserted that corrective feedback exists, is usable, and is necessary in the contribution of language acquisition. Because of this study, feedback now is not only provided and incorporated into the learners' output, but also supports interlanguage production.

Corrective Feedback and Learners' Noticing. "Noticing has been considered a means whereby learners take control over the information received" (Kim, 2004, p. 6). The process known as noticing the gap has students compare what they have heard in the input and what they actually produce on their current interlanguage system (Schmidt & Frota, 1986). Noticing the gap has been considered an essential step of second-language acquisition. Noticing the differences between input and current interlanguage learning can promote interlanguage reconstruction by omitting the process of comparison and integration (Ellis, 1991).

Therefore, appropriate corrective feedback can advance the process of noticing the gap. Explicit corrective feedback can help learners to notice the gap directly and pay attention to the incorrect forms they may have made. It also assists learners to reformulate their initial utterances and leads them to notice the gap between IL and TL. In addition, implicit corrective feedback offers both the correct forms and incorrect form of a sentence for the learner and helps learners to detect the differences between their IL and TL.

Disharmonious Reflection between Teachers and Students. Corder (1967) suggested that teachers and researchers should adapt themselves to learners' needs rather than impose their perceptions of how, when, and what learners should know. Hence, if teachers and researchers could not detect learners' internal language process, feedback that relies on the teachers' understanding of the learners' errors may not play a facilitative role in IL development.


Because the potential mismatch between teachers and students influences second-language acquisition greatly, specific methods that can provide appropriate interactions become very important. The potential mismatch between

students and teachers can take place when a teacher explains the mistakes students have made while they tried to learn English. For instance, the teacher presents a grammar rule in the class; however, students may already know the rule. They just want the teacher to target the mistakes they make when they use the rule. Therefore, Han (2002) pointed out three central requirements to eliminate these mismatches. First, learners' errors should be understood as a natural product of learning. Second, teachers should have knowledge of their students such as their learning background, strategies, and psychological influence. Third, teachers should not expect that feedback will result in immediate connection. They should understand that know learning needs time to be absorbed.

On the other hand, students' persistent errors in their native language may hinder their learning in the target language (Selinker, 1972). Teachers normally think they should correct the learners' error according to the formal linguistic structure in the target language. However, most students--especially in EFL classes where their native language does not resemble the target language--have problems connecting the native language to

the target language. Therefore, ineffective feedback persists between teachers and students.

By keeping track of learners' linguistic behaviors and making an effort to understand the errors, teachers can focus on eliminating ineffective feedback. In addition, teachers should keep in mind that providing feedback successfully could change student's IL knowledge and linguistic behavior in the target language.

 Self-generated Repair vs. Recasts. There are two main types of corrective feedback used in second-language acquisition in ESL/EFL classes: self-generated repair and recasts. Self-repair offers two functions in language learning. First, it assists learners in modifying their use of unfamiliar linguistic forms and allows learners to face errors that may lead to revisions for the target language. Second, corrective feedback that uses self-generated repair provides opportunity for learners to "automatize the retrieval of target language knowledge that already exists in some form" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Self-generated repairs also put an emphasis on the role of corrective feedback which increases learners' linguistic control over existing knowledge (Lyster, 1998).

Recasts provide the correct form immediately after learners make errors. Recasts allow learners to focus their attention to review current forms and acquire new forms. The implicitness and unobtrusiveness of recasts may allow learners to focus on meaning, while still dealing with linguistic problems. Recasts convey needed information "when the learner already has prior comprehension of at least part of the message" (Lyster, 1998, p. 57). Learners may plan to attend to the utterances provided by the teacher, and in turn to notice any new linguistic information during instruction or interpersonal interactions. Therefore, recasts are the most beneficial and appropriate feedback type, as they provide not only passive feedback, but also the correct language structure (Lyster, 1997).

Although self-generated repair and recasts each have respective advantages, there is still a debate as to the most effective corrective feedback. However, it seems unnecessary to debate which types of corrective feedback are more effective in language learning. (The two types of feedback provide different ways to facilitate language development and acquisition. Recasts may enable learners to elicit repetitions, and assist the learners in the

target language. Self-generated repair may provide clues so learners can modify their own ill-formed utterances. This will provide learners with opportunities to improve target-language knowledge. Hence, based on the understanding of what learners need, teachers must adjust their feedback according to students' different levels (Kim, 2004).

#### Current Performance in English as a Second Language/Foreign Language Classes

Current ESL/EFL classes normally use a range of different corrective feedback to assist students to progress in their target language. However, most teachers still rely mainly on correction with metalinguistic feedback and elicitations. This kind of corrective feedback often results in direct revision and seems to be typical for analytic foreign-language instruction; as opposed to recasts, which are believed to be more present in the context of natural foreign-language learning. Therefore, teachers and students normally think the more analytic and form-focused the activity happened, the more initiations to self-correction will lead to direct revision. Although providing metalinguistic feedback and



elicitation assist learners in their language learning in the beginning, they cannot produce long-term effects.

Therefore, most recent researchers have changed their study to recasts and emphasized the role of performance in language learning. They think that recasts can decrease students' ambiguity. If the learner's developmental level is appropriate for instruction, recasts will eventually be effective for learners, despite the absence of an immediate response. In addition, recasts emphasize the importance of interaction between teachers and students. For that reason, interaction becomes very important when language students are engaged in language learning.

Furthermore, interaction provides positive effects on the restructuring of learners' interlanguage system. Interaction enhancement plus explicit grammar instruction was more effective than interaction enhancement plus meaning-based debriefing (Lyster, 1997). For instance, when the teacher interacts with students, the teacher can both revise learners' grammar instruction and clarify the content meaning. However, the students will have experienced enhanced perception during revision and this perception will remind them to avoid the mistakes again. Moreover, the learning of complex rules such as those in

the English article system can be facilitated by explicit instruction if it is provided with instruction enhancement involving a number of examples and implicit feedback (Lyster, 1998).

Due to the reasons above, recasts are used in order for students to notice the nature of the errors. Nevertheless, negotiation or combinations of recasts and negotiation are utilized mostly for phonological errors.

#### Suggestions for Corrective Feedback in Teaching

In sum, the research in corrective feedback still needs to go more into depth in finding how best to acquire a second language. However, it still provides some reference points for ESL/EFL teachers.

First, the teachers need to consider the context. Before teachers plan systematic error correction practices for their classrooms, they need to consider the appropriate level that the students are at in their language learning. Students in beginning levels need to be encouraged to acquire language through vocabulary development. Therefore, error-correction methods involving reflection on language structure or vocabulary will enhance students' language acquisition. On contrary, intermediate-level students and L2 proficient learners can

benefit from corrective feedback that elicits self-generated repair.

Second, teachers need to practice a variety of feedback techniques with their students. One kind of feedback cannot satisfy every learner's need. Individual learners may need several error correction techniques to help them acquire language. Therefore, if teachers can understand a variety of techniques and apply them to help learners, learners would identify their linguistic errors and accelerate their learning.

Finally, students need to learn self-correction. Every learner has deficits in language learning and teachers do not always observe these deficits. Thus, it is important to train learners in self-correction. Nevertheless, teachers must give appropriate time to let students process linguistic information and produce feedback, or students will lose the motivation to correct their own language. Sometimes, teachers also need to provide the proper cues for students on different levels that will enable them to self-repair. This would not only assist students in understanding their weaknesses in English, but also help them to remember their English language acquisition (Tedick & De Gortari, 1998).

## Summary

◀ An important task for teachers is to help students improve their language learning in an ESL/EFL classroom. Therefore, corrective feedback provides a practical strategy. It can assist learners effectively to develop English learning by incorporating corrective feedback and uptake in their language use.)

There are some types of feedback teachers can use to correct students' errors: (explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, and elicitation.) According to how students respond, teachers can revise their instruction. Students can reformulate their interlanguage through teacher-student interactions. Moreover, corrective feedback not only includes the learners' output, but also supports interlanguage production. It assists students to notice the gap between interlanguage and the target language and helps them resolve conflicts between them.

Although researchers in corrective feedback still seek ways to help students improve their language learning, some suggestions has been proposed for ESL/EFL classrooms that motivate students to accelerate their language learning.

## Nonverbal Communication

### Introduction

When people speak, their oral expression is accompanied by movements of the body, such as eye contact, facial expressions, and posture. This nonverbal communication usually indirectly influences people's oral communication.

People can communicate more effectively if they know how to use nonverbal communication appropriately while speaking. These movements also impact teaching. Teachers' roles are not only about what they teach but also about how they teach. By using effective nonverbal communication, instructors can teach more efficiently.

This section focuses on nonverbal communication and its influences. First, nonverbal communication will be defined and discussed. Then, types of nonverbal communication will be considered. Finally, there will be a discussion about how nonverbal communication applies in ESL/EFL classes.

### The Definition of Nonverbal Communication

Before discussing the components of nonverbal communication, it is important to define communication first. According to the research in this field,

communication is any act by which one person gives or receives information from another person. Communication involving conventional or unconventional signals can take linguistic or nonlinguistic forms, and occurs through spoken or other modes (Scherba de Valenzuela, 1992, p. 2).

If this is the definition of communication, then what is nonverbal communication? In brief, nonverbal communication differs from communication. The majority of the information sent and received is encoded and decoded in nonverbal channels.

Additionally, the word nonverbal is a subject that has a variety of explanations. Ray Birdwhistell, an investigator in nonverbal communication, pointed out that studying nonverbal communication is similar to studying nonverbal physiology (as cited in Knapp, 1978, p. 3). It is difficult to analyze people's interactions and separate verbal behavior from nonverbal behavior. Therefore, now some scholars focusing on nonverbal studies refuse to divide the verbal segment of communication from nonverbal communication.

"A source of confusion in the definition of nonverbal communication is the signal produced (nonverbal) and the internal code for interpreting the signal (verbal)" (Knapp,

1980, p. 3). In general, when people conduct nonverbal behavior, they also translate the meaning at the same time. Therefore, nonverbal behavior is an action that accompanies verbal communication and helps to explain the ambiguous portions that happen during the interaction.

#### Classification of Nonverbal Communication

★ For the purposes of study and analysis, nonverbal communication usually is divided into categories such as body motion, physical characteristics, touching behavior, and paralanguage.

Body Motion. Body behavior typically includes gestures, body and hand movements, facial expression, eye behavior, and posture. Some of the behaviors are very specific; some are very general. Some are intended to communicate; some are not intentional. In order to classify the nonverbal behaviors, Ekman and Friesen (1969) offer a system of classification. The system includes emblems, illustrators, regulators, and adapters.

Physical Characteristics. These channels provide the meaning that is transmitted by physical characteristics of the body such as height, skin color, body odor, hair, and "properties" such as jewelry, glasses, and clothes. The meanings associated with physical characteristics have

changed dramatically, especially with regard to what traits are associated with attractiveness. Clothing and other artifacts are especially powerful mediums and convey a great deal of detailed information about a one's personality, values, and lifestyle.

Touching Behavior. Some researchers consider touching behavior as an important element in children's early development. Touching behavior helps children develop a sense of security and stimulates their mental growth. Subcategories of touching behavior may include stroking, hitting, holding, and guiding others' movements.

Paralanguage. Paralanguage deals with how something is said and not said. It covers the range of nonverbal vocal hints in common speech behavior. Paralanguage includes voice quality and vocalization. Voice quality contains rhythm, tempo, articulation control, and resonance when people speak. On the other hand, vocalization indicates the sounds made by the vibration of vocal folds modified by the resonance of the vocal tract.

#### Roles of Nonverbal Communication in Communication Process

★ Nonverbal communication should be treated as equal to verbal communication. Argyle (1969) stated that some of



the most important findings in the field of social interaction is that verbal interaction needs the support of nonverbal communication. (He has also identified the four main uses of nonverbal behavior in communication: expressing emotion, conveying interpersonal attitudes, presenting one's personality, and accompanying speech (1975).) None of these uses can be applied independently. Nonverbal signals can have multiple meanings and usages during verbal communication. Nonverbal behavior can repeat, contradict, substitute, complement, accent, and regulate verbal communication (Ekman, 1965).

Nonverbal behaviors can repeat what has been said verbally. For instance, when people explain the directions, they use gesture to point out. Nonverbal behaviors can also contradict verbal behavior. A classic case is when a person lacks confidence when he speaks in public. His trembling hands and knees, and sweat on the brow, contradict the message "I am not nervous." This illustrates why people trust nonverbal signals more than verbal signals when receiving contradictory messages. Nonverbal behavior sometimes substitutes for verbal messages. When people are shocked by something, their

facial expressions usually have more descriptive power than verbal narrations.

Furthermore, nonverbal communication supports, modifies, or elaborates verbal communication. Nonverbal behaviors may accent portions of a verbal message and control interactive situations when people speak. For instance, an employee may show an argumentative attitude when he meets his supervisor (control). He may use hand gestures to assist his reasoning (emphasis), and then adjust his manner according to the content (control).

Based on these use of nonverbal behavior in communication, verbal and nonverbal communication work together in many ways. They support each other and should be treated as one indivisible unit.

#### The Categories of Nonverbal Communication

The number of different ways in which people communicate with others is unlimited. Typical content performances people perceive during interaction include eye behavior, facial expression, body posture, and attitudes. These soundless signals do not only act as a mode of transmission, but also as a half-guiding communicative process.

Eye Behavior. Gaze encounter or eye contact is the unique nonverbal phenomenon observed in the social, physiological, and psychological fields. Eye behaviors can be divided into two categories. Gaze refers to an individual's looking behavior. Mutual gaze is the result when two participants interact and look at each other's face during communication (Argyle & Cook, 1976). Heron (1970) pointed out the significance of gaze, as "the most fundamental primary mode of interpersonal encounter" (p. 244). Interpersonal encounter is the interaction between two pairs of eyes and what is mediated by the interaction. The elements involving gazing patterns vary mainly according to the background and personalities of the participants, the topics, the other person's gazing patterns, and objects of mutual interest in the environment.

Kendon (1967) identified four functions of gazing. (1) Cognition: participants tend to look away when having difficulty encoding; (2) Monitoring: speakers may look at their targets to check their participant's attentions, reactions, and feedback; (3) Regulation: replies may be demanded or concealed by looking while communication is taking place, and provides turn-taking signals; and

(4) Expression: the degree of complexity of stimulation may be signaled through looking.

These four functions of gazing usually signify that the other person is paying attention. Gazing plays a role of expressing emotion. The area around the eyes usually provides abundant information related to emotion. Eye contact illustrates the nature of the relationship between two participants (Knapp, 1980).

Gazing and mutual gazing may suffer under certain circumstances. A study by Kleck and Nuessle (1968) concluded that most of interpersonal interaction is associated with gaze and the avoidance of gaze. Moreover, the two characteristics that seem to influence encoding and decoding are anxiety and dominance. Observers find anxiety causes too little gazing and dominance causes too much gazing. Gazing may be a powerful tool to establish dominance and maintain it when someone wants to challenge another one's authority. Interestingly, people that come from different cultural backgrounds have different eye contact behavior. The differences may be in the duration of the gaze or the direction where people look at while speaking. For instance, most Asian women do not engage in eye contact with men when they interact. They usually look

down while speaking with men. Some people increase the distance unconsciously while they increase their gazing during communication.

Facial Expression. The face is rich in expressions. It is the primary means of communicating emotions. It reflects interpersonal attitudes, personalities, and provides feedback to others. The face is also used to ease and restrain the responses in communication. Facial expressions in interactions use three methods: open and closed communication channels, complementing others' behavior, and replacing speech (Knapp, 1980).

Smile and wink are important signals to open communication channels and express good intentions. When people want to speak, they sometimes open their mouth and take a breath to show that they are ready to talk. Facial expressions can also complement other behaviors such as body motions or gestures. People might wink when they want to emphasize a cue while speaking.

The face is capable of making distinct movements and communicating many emotional states. Its primary expressions such as surprise, fear, anger, disgust, happiness, and sadness may influence people's interaction to a great extent (Gipson, 2001). These expressions may

help people understand the message, predict the moves that will follow, and in turn influence their responses.

Body Motion. Kinesics refers to posture, movements of the body, and how the body is used in a given context. The meaning of body motion can vary greatly depending on the circumstances in interpersonal communication. A system developed by Ekman and Friesen in 1969 helped people classify their body motion during communication. The categories include emblem, illustrator, regulator, and adapter.

Emblems are direct verbal translations or dictionary definitions and usually have cultural features. Some emblems are common to the human race and seem to be used by most cultures, such as the action that represents eating which entails bring the hand up to the mouth.

An illustrator is a nonverbal act that assists or illustrates a verbal message. An example of an illustrator is a movement that accents or emphasizes the meaning of verbal statements. It usually appears in face to face communication. When people have a problem describing or explaining something, they use their kinesics behaviors to help them illustrate. Therefore, an illustrator is always

applied in instructions and learned from other people (Ekman & Friesen, 1969).

Regulator and adapter tend to maintain and adapt communication. In a regulator segment, nonverbal acts maintain and control the alternation of speaking and listening between two or more participants. Regulators also play a significant role in starting and ending conversations. Most nonverbal behaviors associated with turn-taking are regulators (Wiemann & Knapp, 1975). Turn-taking shows other participants the intention to join the conversation, maintain the communicative procedures, give up or finish a speaking turn, or let other participants continue; these determine the key points in the conversation. Adapters are behavioral adaptations people make during special conditions so their body motions may heighten other participants' sensitivity.

Attitudes. Most nonverbal communication involves interpersonal attitudes. These mental expressions also play an important role in communication. Mehrabian's research (1972) demonstrates that assisting a person to produce something is the key point out the desire to communicate with that individual. Friendly people usually show a shift in posture toward the other person, a smile,

and direct contact. In contrast, an inimical attitude would prevent someone from interacting with other people. Cold people usually look around the room, slump, have drummed fingers, and do not smile (Reece & Whitman, 1962).

## 9 The Applications of Nonverbal Communication in Teaching

The classroom contain a wealth of nonverbal behavior which has not been discovered by scientific research. Acceptance and understanding of ideas and feelings on the part of both teachers and students all involve nonverbal communication. Consider the cues that are represented in classroom nonverbal communication: a student that avoids the teacher's eye contact when he/she does not know how to answer a question.

This situation especially can be found in the beginning level of ESL/EFL classes. When students do not understand English, they might have problems being engaged in the lesson; when teachers ask questions or have activities during the lesson, some students may not know what to do and will get easily distracted. It probably means that students have problems following the instruction. When such condition occurs, teachers should simplify their instruction and teaching methods so that



the students can learn more efficiently. Hence, teachers should notice the nonverbal signals of the students and use nonverbal behaviors appropriately to help them learn.

Nonverbal communication is also a bridge connecting the students and the teachers. In most Asian countries, teachers are authority figures who cannot be challenged. Consequently, an invisible wall exists between teachers and students. However, this situation does not improve students' learning ability. Nonverbal signs such as thumbs up, smiling, or nodding will reduce the distance between the teachers and students and increase students' confidence indirectly. If they have enough confidence, they would be glad to learn. In addition, the students will be more comfortable in asking questions when they have a problem in their studies. They will feel that their teachers are friendly and willing to assist them. By observing the interaction between their students and themselves, teachers can assess their teaching conditions effectively and make adjustments accordingly.

Therefore, (nonverbal behaviors are an essential component in the teaching procedure.) Teachers who make eye contact open the communication between the students and convey interest in their instruction. Active teaching

styles can allure students' attention, make the material more interesting, and assist students' learning. Teachers' head nodding indicates that they are listening to the students, which provides support, and improves the students' confidence. Appropriate body motions attract students' attention, helping students to feel their teacher is approachable, receptive, and friendly (Ritts & Stein, n.d.).

#### Summary

Nonverbal behaviors such as eye contact, facial expression, and postures influence people's oral communication. Therefore, people can communicate more effectively if they know how to use nonverbal communication appropriately. Nonverbal communication also influences teaching. Through nonverbal communication, teachers can conduct their lesson more effectively in the classroom.

Nonverbal communication differs from communication in that the whole information is translated by nonverbal channels. It is divided for the purpose of study and analysis into several categories such as body motion, physical characteristics, touching behavior, and

paralanguage. Silent behaviors aid people to carry out interpersonal communication more smoothly.

Nonverbal behaviors are an essential component of communication in teaching. Teacher-student interactions need nonverbal communication to establish a connection of knowledge and understanding of curriculum. These soundless behaviors also help teachers monitor students' learning and indirectly raise their confidence in the classroom.

## CHAPTER THREE

### THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework in this chapter is applied to the conceptual research in Chapter Two. These concepts include pronunciation software, intonation, corrective feedback, nonverbal communication, and oral fluency. Under this framework, students are expected to overcome their fear of speaking in public and improve their oral expression. Moreover, when students participate in class activities, teachers give appropriate feedback to guide students to improve their English-language efficiency.

The goal of learning English is to attain communicative competence. The concepts researched in Chapter Two can be integrated into a model to promote ESL/EFL oral expression (see Figure 1).

#### Review of Key Theoretical Concepts

Pronunciation is the gateway for students starting to learn a language. Through pronunciation training, students can build a stable phonetic structure in speaking a language. However, when the training does not provide enough support for students' learning, they will be limited in their language acquisition. Therefore, how to

teach students pronunciation becomes a serious challenge for ESL/EFL teachers. Luckily, the computer-assisted learning programs can address this predicament. Such software provides an environment for students to practice pronunciation.

In addition, intonation plays an important role in oral communication. It serves as a channel to translate people's meaning and mental reactions into spoken language to promote interpersonal understanding. Unsuitable intonation may result in a misunderstanding between native-English speakers and second-language learners. Therefore, if English learners do not use correct intonation in their conversations, native-English speakers would find it difficult to understand them. Therefore, teaching intonation is also very important in an ESL/EFL classroom. Teachers can use some class activities such as conversation practice, group discussion, and required presentations to help students speak English smoothly.

At the same time, when students learn English, appropriate feedback will influence their learning results. Corrective feedback assists students to develop their learning and language use. According to the students' responses, feedback such as explicit correction,

recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, and elicitation are applied by the teacher to address students' needs. Moreover, corrective feedback helps students notice the gaps between their interlanguage and the target language and assist them to overcome them.

Nonverbal communication such as eye contact, facial expression, and posture also influences people's oral communication. Appropriate nonverbal behavior can shorten interpersonal distance and enhance oral communication. Certainly, nonverbal behavior can be used in teaching as well. When teachers establish these "behavioral interactions" with students successfully, it not only helps students improve their understanding in curriculum, but also assists teachers in monitoring students' learning and raising their confidence in their language acquisition.

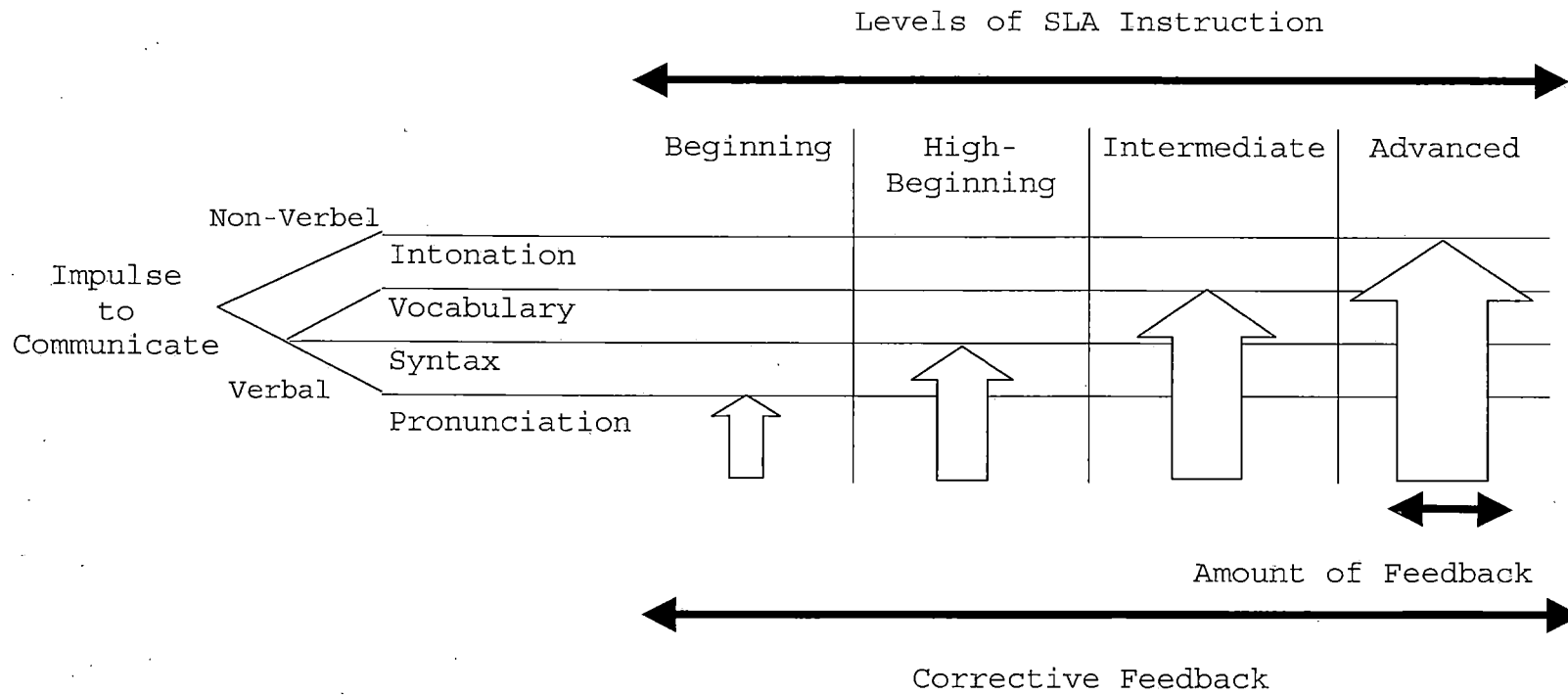
"Oral fluency is the ultimate goal for language learners. It is the key to mastering interpersonal interaction. Therefore, in order to achieve this goal, language learners must notice their weaknesses and revise them.

## The Model of Different Oral Fluency Feedback

Chapter Two has presented several factors that influence oral expression. The model of differentiated oral fluency feedback will help students understand that improving speaking is a gradation with different feedback that matches the students' level of language proficiency.

The model will be discussed through four aspects: first, the levels of second-language acquisition instruction will be discussed. The model illustrates the process of oral proficiency at different levels. Then, according to the different levels, it points out diversified corrective feedback. Finally, it describes the application of computer software in second-language acquisition. By following the model, teachers can help students improve their English acquisition in speaking and achieve the goal of oral fluency.

The model begins as students experience the impulse to communicate. This may take two forms: verbal and nonverbal. Students must learn to pronounce words, then combine basic words to form sentences (syntax). This gradually involves learning more word vocabulary and finally mastering the art of using smooth sentence (intonation). As a parallel process, nonverbal behavior



\* Use of computer for oral fluency changes according to instructional levels and changing emphasis fluency vs. accuracy

Figure 1. Theoretical Framework to Improve Oral Expression in English by Differentiated Corrective Feedback



support the communication of meaning is a gradually more culturally appropriate manner.

### Levels of Second-Language Acquisition

In the framework, in order to illustrate the level of second-language acquisition instruction, English learners are divided into four stages: beginning level, high beginning level, intermediate level, and advanced level. According to students' language abilities, their level of instruction in English varies. In general, students will be promoted to the next higher level through continuous oral practice and corrective feedback.

### Process of Oral Proficiency in Different Levels

At the beginning level, the students may know the alphabet and some basic vocabulary; nevertheless, they have little ability to communicate in English. Therefore, the teachers at this level should development basic pronunciation and begin to develop simple sentences in English. Corrective feedback is done indirectly and only on speech that is unintelligible.

At the high-beginning level, students have some basic communication skills in English; however, they may be afraid to speak English. Teachers usually set up a variety of communication activities to overcome students' fear of

speaking in public. Pronunciation and intonation training and group discussions can enhance the development of their conversation skills.

Students at the intermediate level generally have mastered enough vocabulary and pronunciation skills to afford a basic speaking fluency. They can communicate with native-English speakers in their daily lives. Therefore, the activities in class emphasize on assisting students to develop greater fluency in speaking English. In addition, the teacher may teach students how to use sentence intonation to speak smoothly and effectively.

At the advanced level, students mainly focus on strengthening and improving their oral skills in using correct pronunciation and enhancing the ability to communicate with native-English speakers. When they communicate with native-English speakers, they can apply nonverbal behavior to emphasize their content. Thus, communicative competence is built step by step by connecting pedagogy to increasingly complex levels of speaking skill, from pronunciation to intonation and nonverbal elements.

## Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback is an important aspect of learning English. Through teacher-student interactions, students can receive differentiated corrective feedback from their teachers. Moreover, this interaction helps students reformulate their incorrect language. Therefore, corrective feedback assists students to improve their second-language acquisition.

According to the different levels of second-language acquisition, there are several types of corrective feedback that can be applied such as explicit correction, repeating, recasting, and elicitation. When students are at beginning levels, they may have problems pronouncing correct sounds or their meaning may be misunderstood. The teacher can use repeat and explicit correction to help the students correct their pronunciation and make their content clear.

Students at the intermediate level already have a fundamental ability to communicate with people. Thus, the teachers may apply recasting to reformulate students' utterance instead of providing clear corrective feedback. They use implicit ways to imply students' mistakes during this feedback. Consequently, this method will avoid

reducing students' confidence in speaking and achieve corrective purposes without negative effects on fluency.

Elicitation provides students with advanced speaking skills an appropriate reformulation. Because the students at this level already have some ability to self-revise, they often need teachers just to point out their mistakes in oral expression. Therefore, the teachers can apply specific techniques to elicit correct feedback from the students. The technique includes the following:

(1) strategically pausing to let students to supply the correct form, (2) using questions to elicit correct answers, and (3) asking students to reformulate their utterance (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Through these techniques, students can obtain corrective feedback and then achieve the goal of oral fluency.

On the other hand, self-repair and peer repair could be applied in these levels to help students understand their weaknesses. Self-repair can permit students to revise their own errors through assessment rubrics. Peer-repair provides an opportunity to restructure oral expression among peers.

## The Application of Computer Software

Because the time is limited in class, the teachers in ESL/EFL class usually revise students' oral expression only when students participate in class activities. However, an opportunity for this assistance is limited in class. If students want to improve their pronunciation and intonation independently, it would be a very difficult task for them. Fortunately, relying on the use of computers, students can use pronunciation software to practice outside class. According to their particular needs, students at different levels can apply software to improve their speaking, and thus achieve their particular goals in oral expression.

In sum, the aim of such instruction is to assist students in developing communicative competence. Corrective feedback in each level of the frame is necessary and promotes students to improve their oral expression. Only following the framework and continues practice can people achieve the purpose of oral fluency.

CHAPTER FOUR  
CURRICULUM DESIGN

The Theoretical Theme of the Instructional Unit

The curriculum unit presented in the Appendix incorporates the key concepts explained in Chapter Two and integrated theoretically in Chapter Three. The topics in the lesson plans address important strategies in oral fluency, pronunciation software, intonation, nonverbal communication, and corrective feedback. In the five lesson plans, the instructional unit plan presents Food Topics. The students learn how to speak and communicate by using English through pronunciation practice, group discussion, role-play, and oral presentation. These activities are to help students develop oral comprehension by applying appropriate strategies.

The instructional unit is designed for the high-beginning level students in ESL/EFL. These concepts included in the Appendix A are not only taught explicitly but also implicitly. Most students in the high-beginning level usually already have basic English communication skills; however, they are often afraid of speaking English. Therefore, in these lesson plans, students are

asked to participate in groups and interact with other classmates. The topics in these lessons are usually discussed in daily life, and students will feel somewhat familiar with them. The goal of the discussions is to help students increase their self-confidence when they speak in public. With the assistance from the teacher, they will be able to develop confidence and oral ability to participate in interpersonal communication and other related activities.

#### Sequence of the Unit Plan

For explicit demonstration of the model in Chapter Three, five lesson plans are presented based upon the model. Each lesson comprises the characteristics of the model: practice the pronunciation and intonation through negotiated turn-taking, apply corrective feedback in presentation, and role play to achieve the goal of oral fluency.

As students participate in these lessons, the teacher gives them appropriate opportunities to voice their thoughts. In this curriculum design, students join oral training actively instead of remaining silent and simply

listening. Additionally, practice will help them to overcome their reticence.

In Lesson One, "Let's Go to the Supermarket," students recognize many kinds of American food in the supermarket and review the alphabet through class activity. The activity will help students remember the alphabet. Moreover, students learn some expressive sentences and practice conversation. This lesson hopes to improve students' pronunciation and intonation in English. Also, students are reminded of the importance of pronunciation through corrective feedback.

Next, according to the food pyramid, students learn how to choose the best food to become healthier in Lesson Two. They think about what kinds of food they eat every day and discuss with their partners how to improve their dietary habits. Students will practice making complete sentences to express their thoughts about nutrition. In the end of the lesson, the teacher gives students a quiz to evaluate students' comprehension in nutrition.

When people learn a language, their learning goal is to apply this study in their lives. "How to Order Food" and "How to Give Tip" would help students apply their learning in their daily lives. In the lessons, they use



reduced forms and stressed words to improve their oral fluency. Through the conversation practice and role-play, students will learn how to express their thoughts and respect one other's ideas when they experience some cultural differences. Besides, the teacher uses self-evaluation to help students self-assess their weaknesses in oral expression.

Different countries have different food traditions. In Lesson Five, "What Is Your Favorite Holiday?" students will learn special food traditions in different countries. Students use the Internet to search a nationality's food tradition, and then they present this research to their classmates. In the lesson, students can interact and learn different countries' customs through the presentation and apply nonverbal behavior to advance their oral fluency. In the peer-evaluation section, students check their partner's handwriting and remember some basic rules in writing; in the teacher assessment segment, the teacher evaluates students' oral expression such as presentation, intonation, and content organization and provides appropriate feedback to students. The table below presents a schema for incorporating the key concepts from the theoretical model in each lesson.

Table 1. Incorporation of Key Concepts into Instructional Unit

<u>Practice</u> \ <u>Lesson</u>	<u>Lesson One</u>	<u>Lesson Two</u>	<u>Lesson Three</u>	<u>Lesson Four</u>	<u>Lesson Five</u>
Pronunciation Software	√				
Intonation	√		√	√	
Corrective Feedback	√	√	√	√	√
Nonverbal Communication			√	√	√
Oral Fluency	√	√	√	√	√

In summary, methods of EFL teaching and curriculum design should be regularly updated to be reflective of current research. The model introduced in Chapter Three integrates the various components of building successful oral foreign-language proficiency. This curriculum unit is based on the model and integrates the key concepts that were discussed in Chapter Two.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### ASSESSMENT

#### Formative and Summative Assessment

Assessment is a complex task because it should include all activities that teachers and students undertake in order to provide evaluative data that can improve teaching and learning. Assessment may involve instructional content, teacher observation, students' participation (classroom discussion), and analysis of students' homework and tests. Therefore, teachers and administrators try to seek valid and reliable assessment methods that can be used to evaluate students' progress effectively.

Assessments may be divided two parts: formative and summative. The goal of formative assessment is to provide information to both the instructor and students concerning students' understanding of course material so the adjustment to instruction can be timely and specific. Summative assessment is primarily utilized to determine students' learning outcome through a final evaluation. Following are some ways to think about the distinction further.

Formative assessment often happens at the beginning or during a lesson to monitor the immediate learning situation. The key to formative assessment is the role of feedback. Students' learning outcomes are observed or measured and their academic strengths and weaknesses are identified. Therefore, based on the assessment, the teacher can offer individual students appropriate feedback and assistance to address their particular learning needs. In addition, the assessment can improve curricular design and delivery. Teachers can improve their instruction accordingly (Park University, 2003).

Summative assessment is designed to measure students' understanding following a continued period of instruction with the focus on identifying the level of academic mastery. Therefore, summative assessments are outcome measures that emphasize students' achievement rather than discover their particular learning needs. Unlike formative assessment, summative assessment is often quantitative, using rating scales to assess learning achievement. Therefore, it supplies a means of evaluating instructional activities and data to determine achievement of departmental or curriculum performance standards (Park University, 2003).

## Oral Assessment Methods

Defining the domain of knowledge, skills, or attitudes to be measured is at the core of any assessment. Most people define oral communication narrowly. They think so-called "oral communication" means to speak in public; nevertheless, oral communication has a range of meanings. The most basic and important one is the focus on basic competencies needed for everyday life. The approach is especially important to ESL/EFL learners because they do not yet have enough language ability to communicate with mainstream elements of society.

Assessing oral-fluency skills may be divided into two aspects. In the observational approach, the student's behavior is observed and assessed correctly. In the structured approach, the student is asked to perform one or more specific oral-communication tasks. In both these approaches, students should try to use their oral skills to achieve the tasks the teacher designed.

The primary characteristic of the assessment is to evaluate the student's ability in achieving a specific communication purpose. Therefore, when the teacher designs the assessment, a variety of rating systems must be used. The rating system should capture the student's performance

on various aspects of communication, such as structure, speaking content, and oral expression. Moreover, the rating system should keep its objectively.

#### Assessment Used in the Instructional Unit

Many types of successful assessments capture the diverse range of learner achievement. There are several assessment methods listed below that may be used to help learners to maximize the effectiveness of their oral training. These methods also provide teachers extra information in preparing and designing their lessons to assist students' learning.

Class Participation. Activities such as conversation practice, group discussion, and role-play are valuable in a practical sense and improve students' speaking. When the teachers make assessments, they should focus on the competence of the students. However, students may be shy if the teacher asks them speak in public. Therefore, in the instructional unit, the teacher lets students self-assess or peer-assess how well they undertook the tasks and lets them reflect on how to improve their learning next time. In the process, students can act not only as learners but also as assistants to their partners.

Presentation. The presentation practice in Lesson Five helps students search for and organize information in particular fields. Students will organize their information and demonstrate their comprehension to the class in oral speech. However, presentations are hard to evaluate. Therefore, the teacher should set up clear assessment criteria that can span presentation processes and content. On the other hand, the assessment also uses peer cooperation to help students control the purpose of the presentation. When the teacher evaluates students' outcome, the focus should be on students' competence and comprehension. Moreover, the teacher takes note of the students' response after feedback is offered. When the teacher gives the feedback, it should relate directly and primarily to the assessment criteria. The feedback should be clear and positive.

In sum, the assessments should reflect students' learning process. It also means that a language teacher should apply a variety of assessment methods to judge students' learning situations. Oral practice should be built in lifelong skills instead of just reading and repeating sentences. The assessments must act the role

that let teachers to understand students' weaknesses and help them use their practice in authentic social contexts.

This project has demonstrated that ESL/EFL learners can improve their oral expression effectively through speaking instruction. These design-based programs will overcome their fear as they receive differentiated feedback to enhance their oral ability. The key elements of building fluent oral ability can be used to create an accelerated model for promoting ESL/EFL oral proficiency.



APPENDIX

INSTRUCTIONAL UNIT — FOOD AND DAILY LIVES

## List of Instruction Plans

Instruction Plan One: Let's Go to the Supermarket .....	104
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**Instruction Plan One**  
**Let's Go to the Supermarket**

Teaching Level: Adult--High beginning level

Time Frame: 1.5 hours

Content Objective

Students will recognize many kinds of American food in the supermarket.

Learning-Strategy Objective

Students will be able to understand intonation and apply it when they communicate.

Language Objective

Students will practice making complete sentences by using the words they have learned in class.

TESOL Standards

Goal 1: To use English to achieve academically in all content areas.

Standard 1: Students will use English to participate in social interaction.

Standard 2: Students will use English to obtain, process, construct, and provide topic matter information in spoken and written form.

Materials

Dictionary

Poster 1-1: The Alphabet

Focus Sheet 1-2: What Is Linking?

Focus Sheet 1-3: Expressive Sentences

Worksheet 1-4: Becoming Familiar with the Alphabet

Worksheet 1-5: Practicing Linked Sentences

Assessment 1-6: Conversation Practice: Let's Go to the Supermarket

Assessment 1-7: Peer Assessment Sheet

### Warm Up

The teacher asks students what kinds of food they can buy in the supermarket. When they go the supermarket, what kinds of question sentences would they use? Then the teacher asks students to imagine they are in the supermarket trying to buy something.

### Task Chain 1: Learn the Phonetic Alphabet and Practice

1. The teacher hangs Poster A-1 on the board and gathers the students around. The teacher lets students identify the pictures on the poster.
2. The teacher starts to practice every phonetic symbol with its representative word and encourages students to think of similar words with the same phonetic symbol.
3. After finishing the practice, the teacher reads the phonetic symbol and its representative word and asks students to repeat.
4. Then, the teacher asks students some phonetic symbols which are hard to pronounce and chooses someone to answer. If the student answers correctly, the teacher gives appropriate encouragement; if the student makes a mistake, the teacher corrects it and asks other students to repeat correctly.

### Task Chain 2: How to Apply the Phonetic Alphabet and Read Words

1. The teacher gives students Worksheet A-2 and paper cards and lets them finish it by using a dictionary.
2. The teacher collects these paper cards and puts them into a brown paper bag.
3. The teacher asks the students to group into threes, telling students they will have a small challenge and they can decide the sequence to answer it.
4. After students decide the sequence, the teacher shakes the brown bag and lets students pick one card and read it.
5. When one of the students reads it, the teacher must give appropriate encouragement and feedback.

### Task Chain 3: Understand and Produce Correct Intonation

1. The teacher gives students Focus Sheet A-3 and explains each item in order to help students understand.
2. The teacher passes out Worksheet A-4. Then, the teacher pairs students and lets them work together. They follow the handout and practice it.
3. When students practice, the teacher walks around the class to check their progress. If students do not know how to do the task, the teacher explains it.

### Task Chain 4: Conversation Practice

1. The teacher hands out Focus Sheet A-5 and leads them to read the sentences.
2. The teacher lets students reread these sentences together to reinforce the usage of intonation.
3. The teacher passes out Work Sheet A-6 and tells students that they are going to speak complete sentences with correct intonation.
4. While students practice, the teacher needs to check students' pronunciation and intonation and give appropriate feedback.

### Assessment

#### Formative Assessment:

1. The teacher walks around the classroom and checks that the students are on track as they interact during warm up and group discussion.
2. Through checking the answers made by students while they work on each task chain, the teacher can assess if the students can follow the lesson and absorb it.

Summative Assessment:

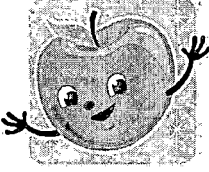
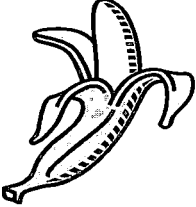
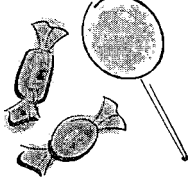


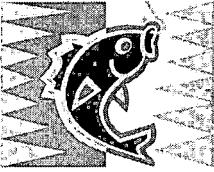
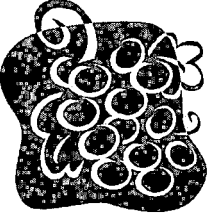
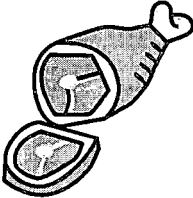

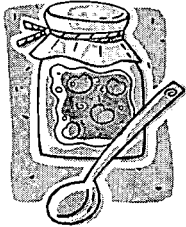
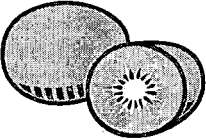
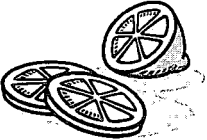

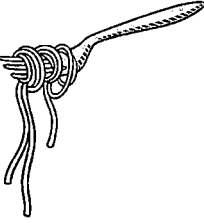

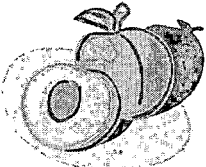
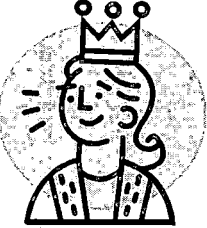

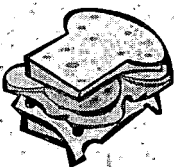

At the end of the lesson, the teacher gives students Peer Assessment Sheet 1-7 to evaluate both their oral expression and how much content they can apply in this lesson.




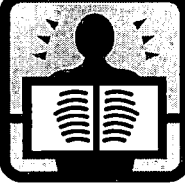




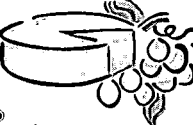





<u>Scores</u>	<u>Representative</u>
90-100	Excellent
75-70	Good Job
75	Need Improvement
60	Study Harder

Following Up

In order to assist students in practicing pronunciation more effectively and correctly, the teacher suggests that students buy one of the pronunciation software products: Accent Lab, American Speechsounds, Ellis Master Pronunciation 3.0, PerfectPronunciation, or Pronunciation Power.

Poster 1-1  
The Alphabet

Aa 	Bb 	Cc 	Dd 	Ee 
Ff 	Gg 	Hh 	Ii 	Jj 
Kk 	Ll 	Mm 	Nn 	Oo 
Pp 	Qq 	Rr 	Ss 	Tt 

<p>Uu</p> 	<p>Vv</p> 	<p>Ww</p> 	<p>Xx</p> 	<p>Yy</p> 
<p>Zz</p> 				
<p>ar</p> 	<p>ce</p> 	<p>ch</p> 	<p>oo</p> 	<p>ow</p> 
<p>sh</p> 	<p>th</p> 	<p>wh</p> 		



**Focus Sheet 1-2**  
**What is Linking?**

**What is linking?**

Linking is connecting sounds in speech. We can link a consonant sound from the end of one word to a vowel sound at the beginning of another word. This is called consonant-to-vowel linking.

For instance:

What is up? -----> Whatsup?

You can mark this kind of linked sound to help remember to connect them in speech.

For instance:

What's up?  
                   $\smile$

**Introduction to contracted sounds:**

Some words in English are contracted, or combined. You hear contractions all around you in normal connected English. You might see contractions written like this.

For instance:

There is ---> there's

The apostrophe shows missing sounds or syllables. Use linked sounds with contractions. In speaking, contractions are always acceptable.

For instance:

There's a restaurant across the street.  
                   $\smile$

Source: Reed & Michaud (2005).

**Focus Sheet 1-3**  
**Expressive Sentences**

The following expressions will be helpful when you shop at a supermarket and communicate with workers.

Say Hello to someone

Hello!

How are you?

How do you do?

What's up?

How's it going?

Look for Something/ Ask for Information

Do you know ...?

Where/ What is ...?

I would like to know ...

Would you tell me where/ What is ...?

Can you help me ...?

Could/ May I ask ...?

Ask to Repeat

Sorry! Can you say it again?

Excuse me!

Would you repeat that?

**Worksheet 1-4**  
**Becoming Familiar with the Alphabet**

Exercise 1:

After practicing the pronunciation of the alphabet, you may feel more familiar with its symbols. Therefore, can you use your dictionary and find two examples for every letter that use the same pronunciation? In addition, write these words on your paper cards.

**Work Sheet 1-5**  
**Practicing the Linked Sentences**

Exercises 1:

Work with your partner and try to practice the sentences below. Mark the sentences for consonant-to-vowel linking. Remember to link consonant and vowel sounds, not letters.

1. What's up?
2. What's the place?
3. What time is it?
4. Take care of yourself!
5. Please take off your shoes.
6. Time's up.

**Work Sheet 1-5 (Continued)**  
**Practicing Linked Sentences**

Exercise 2:

Match the language functions 1-8 to the response statements A-F. Mark the sentences below for linking. Then practice the dialogue with a partner. Use the following polite expressions:

I would like to have ..... I need to ..... I want to .....

For instance:

A: Hello, Can you help me?

B: Sure. What can I do for you?

A: I need to get some gas.

B: There's a gas station on the corner.

A: Thank you very much.

B: You are welcome.


- 
- |                            |  |
|----------------------------|--|
| 1. Buy vegetables          | A. There's a newsstand nearby the bakery.                |
| 2. Get a cup a coffee      | B. There're many kinds of vegetable you can choose from. |
| 3. Taste new food products | C. There's a big freezer near the vegetable zone.        |
| 4. Buy frozen foods        | D. There's a tasting booth near the freezer.             |
| 5. Want some soft drinks   | E. There's a coffee shop across from the cashier.        |
| 6. Look for some magazines | F. There are many soft drinks on the aisle 4.            |

Source: Reed & Michaud (2005)

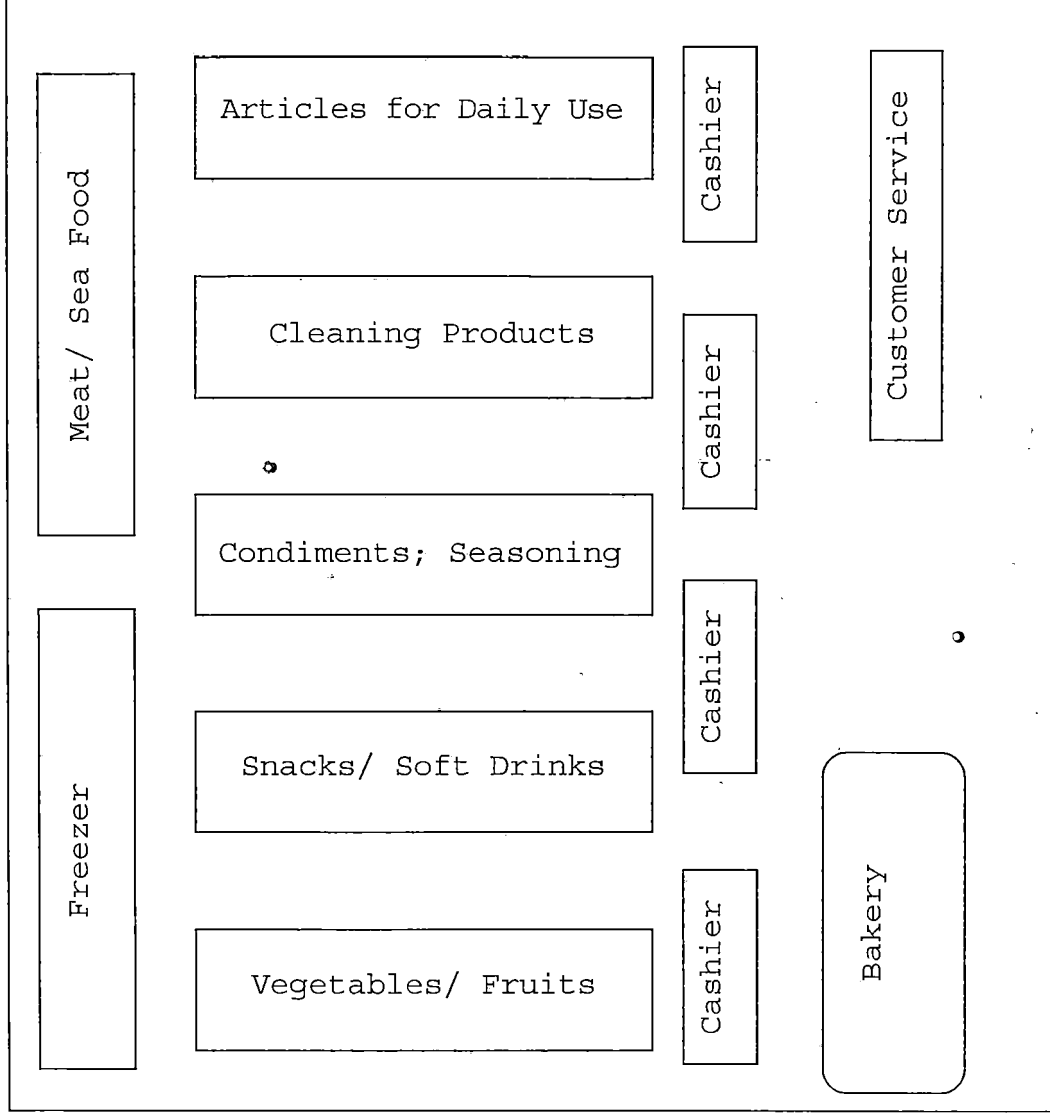
## Work Sheet 1-6

### Conversation Practice: Let's Go to the Supermarket

Take your shopping list below and try to buy some items in the supermarket. However, this is your first time here. Therefore, you need to ask someone's help to finish your shopping.

- 
- spinach
  - carrots
  - low-fat milk
  - ground pork
  - shrimp
  - newspaper
  - toast
  - 7-up
  - bottled water (12 pack)
  - Tide
  - Pantene shampoo

Work Sheet 1-6 (Continued)



**Assessment Sheet 1-7**  
**Peer Assessment Sheet**

Evaluate your partner's presentation.

Name:	Date:
Writer's Name:	
Content	Score/ Comment
Was every word pronounced correctly? (20 points)	
Did your partner speak in complete sentences? (20 points)	
Did every sentence sound clear? (20 points)	
Did sentences have proper intonation? (20 points)	
Did your partner join every activity? (20 points)	
Suggestions: <div style="text-align: right; margin-top: 20px;">Date:</div>	



## **Instruction Plan Two Food and Nutrition**

Teaching Level: Adult--High beginning level

Time Frame: 1.5 hours

### Content Objective

Students will learn that food choices affect how they feel and how their bodies develop.

### Learning-Strategy Objective

Students must be familiar with the food pyramid.

### Language Objective

Students will practice making complete sentences to express their thoughts about nutrition.

### TESOL Standards

Goal 1: To use English to achieve academically in all content areas.

Standard 1: Students will use English to participate in social interaction.

Standard 2: Students will use English to obtain, process, construct, and provide topic matter information in spoken and written form.

### Materials

Poster 2-1: Food and Nutrition

Focus Sheet 2-2: Food Pyramid

Worksheet 2-3: Talk It Over--What Is the Best Food?

Worksheet 2-4: Food Pyramid

Worksheet 2-5: Food Report

Worksheet 2-6: What Do You Eat Everyday?

Worksheet 2-7: Adjust Your Meals to Become Healthier

Assessment 2-8: Self-Assessment Sheet

### Warm Up

The teacher asks the students what kinds of food they like in their country and in America and discuss the nutritional contents in these foods.

Task Chain 1: Discuss Food and Nutrition

1. The teacher hangs Poster 2-1 on the board and gathers the students around.
2. The teacher lets students identify the pictures on the poster and lets them discuss the poster freely.
3. After the discussion, the teacher reads the questions listed on the poster to students and lets several volunteers tell the class their thoughts about the poster.

Task Chain 2: Talk it Over: What Is the Best Food?

1. The teacher lets students think about the best food they eat everyday and passes out Worksheet 2-3 to students. Students think about the questions on Worksheet 2-3 and try to write down their personal opinions.
2. The teacher pairs students and lets them work together. They follow the handout and discuss their thoughts with their partners.
3. When students practice, the teacher walks around the class to check their progress and provide appropriate help.

Task Chain 3: Food Pyramid

1. The teacher hands out Focus Sheet 2-2 and divides students into groups of threes.
2. The teacher teaches about the food pyramid and asks what kinds of foods are important in daily life.
3. The teacher discusses with class some suggestions of healthy foods they might want to eat.
4. The teacher gives students Worksheets 2-4 and 2-5 and lets them finish.

Task Chain 4: Adjust Your Meals to Become Healthier

1. The teacher gives students Worksheet 2-6 and lets students fill out the form.
2. The teacher hands out Worksheet 2-7. Students analyze their eating habits according to Focus Sheet 2-2 and finish self-assessment and self-suggestions on Worksheet 2-7.
3. The teacher divides students into groups of four and lets students discuss their diet improvement with their partners.

4. When students practice, the teacher walks around the class to check students' situations. If students do not know how to do the task, the teacher explains it again.

Assessment

Formative:

1. The teacher observes students' participation in class.
2. The teacher checks Worksheets 2-4, 2-5, 2-6, and 2-7 after group work.

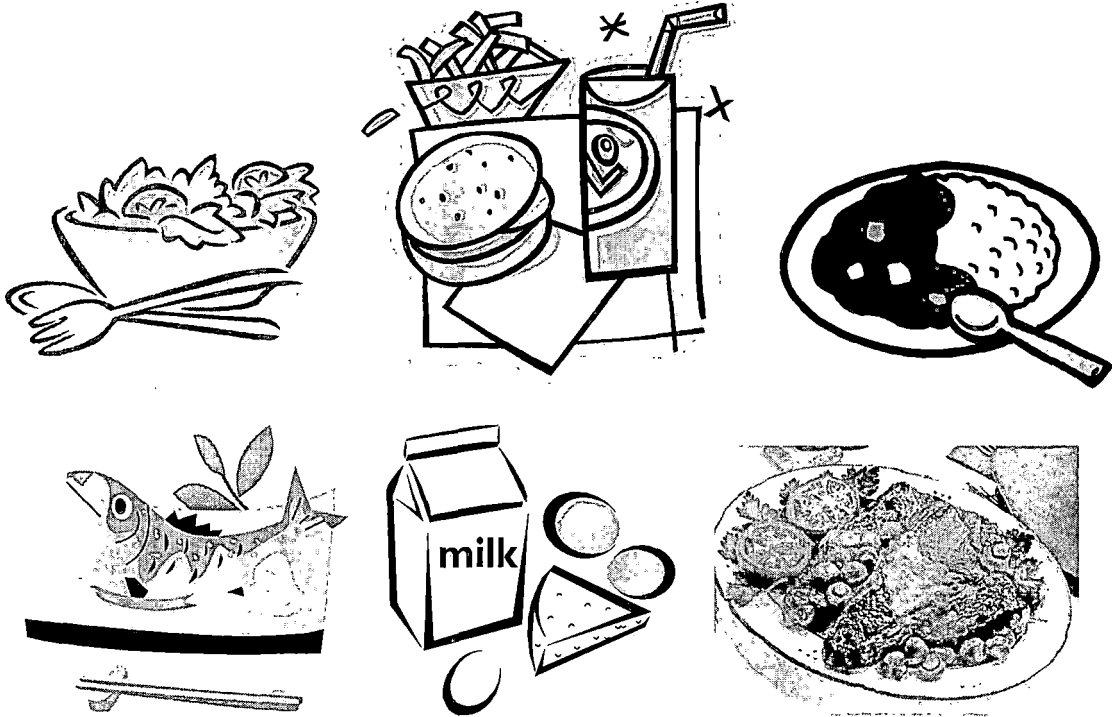
Summative:

At the end of the lesson, the teacher gives Assessment Sheet 2-8 to evaluate their comprehension of the content.

<u>Scores</u>	<u>Representative</u>
110-120	Excellent
100-110	Good Job
90	Needs Improvement
80	Study Harder

Poster 2-1  
Food and Nutrition

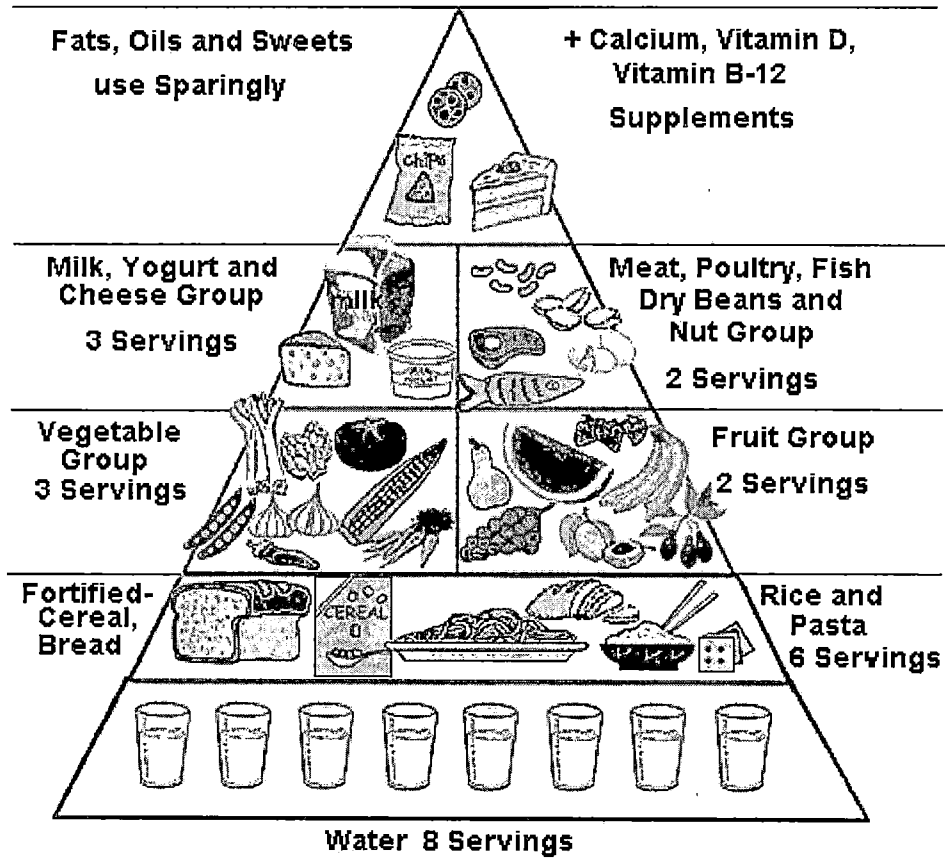
Conversation Practice:



1. Do you like to eat these foods? Which one? Why or why not?
2. Do you think these foods can provide appropriate nutrition for personal daily needs?
3. Why is nutrition so important in people's lives?

**Focus Sheet 2-2**  
**Food Guide Pyramid**

Look at the Food Guide Pyramid and think what kinds of food you eat today.



**A daily diet for seniors should include:**

- Eight glasses of water a day and plenty of fiber to help manage constipation
- Calcium, vitamin D, and B12 supplements should be discussed with your parent's doctor
- 2 servings of high protein foods like lean meat, poultry, fish, eggs, legumes, and nuts: 1 servings=2 or 3 ounces of cooked lean meat, fish, or poultry; 1/2 cups of cooked dry beans; 2 eggs; 4 tablespoons of peanut butter; or 2/3 cups of nuts
- 3 servings of vegetables: 1 servings= 1 cups of raw, leafy vegetables; 1/2 cups of other vegetables (cooked or chopped raw); or 3/4 cup vegetable juice
- 2 servings of fruit: 1 serving= 1 medium apple, banana, or orange; 1/2 cup of cooked, chopped, or canned fruit; or 3/4 cup of fruit juice
- 6 servings of grains: 1 serving= 1 slice of bread; 1 ounce of ready-to-eat cereal; or 1/2 cup of cooked cereal, rice, or pasta
- 8 servings of water

**Healthy snacks.**

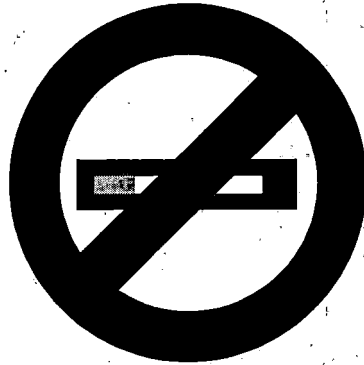
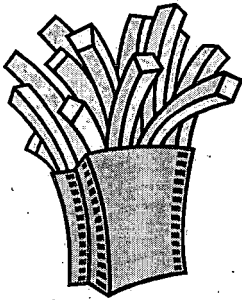
Baby carrots, fresh or dried fruits, unsalted nuts, and so on are good choices.

**Reference:**

www.ohsu.edu. (2003) All nutrition tips. Retrieved August 25, 2005, from [http://www.ohsu.edu/healthyaging/caregiving/tips\\_personal/nutrition\\_all\\_tips.html](http://www.ohsu.edu/healthyaging/caregiving/tips_personal/nutrition_all_tips.html)

Worksheet 2-3  
Talk It Over

With a partner, talk about the twelve items below.  
Are they good or bad for you? Why? Discuss your decisions  
with the class.



Example:

A: Are French fries good for you?

B: No. I don't think so.

A: Why not?

B: Because they have a lot of fat.

- |                 |                        |
|-----------------|------------------------|
| 1. soda         | 8. tofu                |
| 2. cigarettes   | 9. green tea           |
| 3. orange juice | 10. vegetable          |
| 4. cheeseburger | 11. beans              |
| 5. beer         | 12. ice cream          |
| 6. rice         | 13. skim (nonfat) milk |
| 7. wine         | 14. salad dressing     |

Source: Thrush, Blass, & Baldwin (2002).

**Worksheet 2-4**  
**Food Pyramid**

Use the form below to track what you know and learned about the food pyramid.

Food Pyramid		
What do I know?	What do I want to know?	What have I learned?

The most interesting thing I learned was:



Worksheet 2-5  
Food Report



Name \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

My favorite food is \_\_\_\_\_

Explain where your food is on the Food Pyramid.

---

---

---

Is this food considered healthy? Why or why not?

---

---

---

---

o

**Worksheet 2-6**  
**What Do You Eat Everyday?**

What do you eat everyday? Does it have enough nutrition for your daily needs? Fill out the form with as much detail as you can.

	<u>Mon</u>	<u>Tue</u>	<u>Wed</u>	<u>Thu</u>	<u>Fri</u>	<u>Weekend</u>
Breakfast						
Lunch		o				
Dinner						
Snacks						

o

**Worksheet 2-7**  
**Adjust Your Meals to Become Healthier**

Accord to the food pyramid (Focus Sheet 2-2) and Worksheet 2-4, do you think you get enough nutrition for your body?

Do you want to revise your daily eating? According the food pyramid, produce a good diet plan for yourself:

**Assessment 2-8**  
**Food and Nutrition**

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Now that you have studied the food pyramid, there are several questions for you to answer. Select the best answer for each question. Try to recall the lesson content and finish it. (Per question/ 10 points)

1. The best way to get all of the vitamins and minerals you need is to:
  - A. Follow the Food Guide Pyramid.
  - B. Take a vitamin and mineral supplement.
  
2. To lose weight, you may need to give up some foods that are "bad" for you.
  - A. True.
  - B. False.
  
3. Which groups of foods have the most fiber?
  - A. whole-wheat bread, bran flakes, brown rice.
  - B. white bread, corn flakes, white rice.
  
4. The nutrition facts label can help you:
  - A. compare nutrients in similar foods.
  - B. plan healthful meals and snacks.
  - C. both a and b.
  
5. An easy way to lower the amount of fat in your diet is to:
  - A. choose 1% milk instead of whole milk.
  - B. broil or roast meat.
  - C. both a and b.
  
6. Families who eat together have better nutrition and communication.
  - A. True.
  - B. False.

### **Instruction Plan Three** **How to Order Food**

Teaching Level: Adult--High beginning level

Time Frame: 2.5 hours

#### Content Objective

Students will know how to order food.

#### Learning Strategy Objective

Through instruction, students will know how to compare the long forms and reduced forms and stressed words in conversation.

#### Language Objective

Students will apply reduced form and stressed words and make complete sentences appropriately.

#### TESOL Standards

Goal 1: To use English to achieve academically in all content areas.

Standard 1: Students will use English to participate in social interaction.

Standard 2: Students will use English to obtain, process, construct, and provide topic matter information in spoken and written form.

#### Materials

Poster 3-1: Food

Focus Sheet 3-2: Listening to the Conversation

Focus Sheet 3-3: Comparing Long and Reduced Forms

Worksheet 3-4: Listening for Stressed Words

Worksheet 3-5: Find the Reductions

Worksheet 3-6: Role-Play: How to Order Food

Assessment Sheet 3-7: Self-assessment Rubric

#### Warm Up

The teacher asks the students what kinds of restaurants they like to go to. Discuss different diet customs in every country.

#### Task Chain 1: Discuss "Food" and Listening Practice

1. The teacher hangs Poster 3-1 on the board and gathers the students around. The teacher lets students identify the picture on the poster.

2. According to the poster, the teacher asks the students the questions listed on the poster and lets several volunteers tell the class about their thoughts.
3. The teacher lets students take a piece of paper and prepare to take notes. The teacher starts to read Focus Sheet 3-2 slowly.
4. The teacher gives students Worksheet 3-4 and lets them fill it out.
5. The teacher reads the passage (Focus Sheet 3-2) quickly and lets students finish the form.

Task Chain 2: Comparing Long and Reduced Forms

1. The teacher gives students Focus Sheet 3-3 and lets them try to read the sentences alone.
2. The teacher reads the sheet and explains to students why these sentences could be read using reduced forms.
3. The teacher guides the students in reading the sentences and lets them practice.
4. The teacher passes out Worksheet 3-5. Then, the teacher pairs students and lets students work together. They follow the handout and practice it.
5. When students practice, the teacher walks around the class to check their progress. If students do not know how to do the task, the teacher explains it.

Task Chain 3: To Learn How to Order Food and Role-Play with Group Members.

1. The teacher passes out Worksheet 3-6. In addition, the teacher asks students to form a group with two people.
2. Students communicate and compose a story, and write the dialogue on their notes.
3. While students write their stories, the teacher walks around the class to check their progress and provides appropriate help. Moreover, the teacher checks the dialogue before role-play.
4. Students have to finish the "role-play" in class. When the students perform, the teacher must notice and give appropriate encouragement and feedback.

Assessment

Formative:

1. The teacher observes students' participation in class.
2. The teacher checks Worksheets 3-4 and 3-5 after group work.
3. The teacher checks students' participation when role-play.

Summative:

The teacher lets students assess their role play and participative conditions in Assessment Sheet 3-7.

<u>Scores</u>	<u>Representative</u>
160-200	Excellent
140-160	Good Job
140	Need Improvement
100	Study Harder

Poster 3-1  
Food

Conversation Practice:.



1. What do these people do? Where are they?
2. Do you ever eat food in an American restaurant? Can you tell us which kinds of restaurant?
3. What kinds of food you would like in America and your country?



**Focus Sheet 3-2**  
**Listening to the Conversation**

Mary: What are you going to eat, David?

David: I am hungry! I want a double cheeseburger and a large order of fries.

Wendy: Wow! How many cheeseburgers do you eat every week? You had a couple at the picnic yesterday, did you not?

David: Yes. So what? I like cheeseburgers.

Mary: I think Wendy's worried about you.

David: Why? I am healthy.

Wendy: But cheeseburgers have a lot of fat.

Source: Thrush, Blass, & Baldwin (2002).

**Focus Sheet 3-3**  
**Comparing Long and Reduced Forms**

When you try to order food in a restaurant, some sentences would help you express yourself more smoothly and clearly. Now, you can find below and try to find the oral differences between the long form and the reduced form.

---

Long Form

1. What are you going to have?
2. I think I am going to have some chicken and rice.
3. We would like a couple of salads.
4. Isn't there a lot of fat in cheeseburgers?
5. They don't want to eat lots of fatty food.

Reduced Form

- What're ya gonna have?
- I think I am gonna have some chicken and rice.
- We'd like a coupla of salads.
- Isn't there a lotta of fat in cheeseburgers?
- They don't wanna eat Lotsa fatty food.

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Source: Reed & Michaud (2005)

**Worksheet 3-4**  
**Listening Practice**

1. Listen to the conversation and fill the blanks with words from the list.

cheeseburger	healthy	order	picnic
hungry	fries	eat	what
worried	like	have	fat

Mary: What are you going to \_\_\_\_\_, David?

David: I am \_\_\_\_\_! I want a double \_\_\_\_\_  
and a large \_\_\_\_\_ of \_\_\_\_\_.

Wendy: Wow! How many cheeseburgers do you \_\_\_\_\_  
every week? You had a couple at the \_\_\_\_\_  
yesterday, did you not?

David: Yes. So \_\_\_\_\_? I \_\_\_\_\_ cheeseburgers.

Mary: I think Wendy's \_\_\_\_\_ about you.

David: Why? I am \_\_\_\_\_.

Wendy: But cheeseburger have a lot of \_\_\_\_\_.

2. Read the conversation with a partner. Practice stressing words correctly.

Source: Thrush, Blass, & Baldwin (2002).

**Worksheet 3-5**  
**Find the Reductions**

Listen and circle the letter of each sentence you read by yourself and find the reduction.

1. A. What are you going to want?  
B. What're ya gonna want?
2. A. I think I am going to have some chicken and rice.  
B. I think I am gonna have some chicken and rice.
3. A. We would like a couple of salads.  
B. We'd like a coupla of salads.
4. A. Isn't there a lot of fat in cheeseburgers?  
B. Isn't there a lotta of fat in cheeseburgers?
5. A. They don't want to eat lots of fatty food.  
B. They don't wanna eat lotsa fatty food.

Source: Thrush, Blass, & Baldwin (2002).

**Worksheet 3-6**  
**Role-Play: How to Order Food**

Work in a group of three. Two students are customers, and one student is the waiter.

1. The customers order from the following menu. The waiter should ask about the appetizers, soup, salads, and salad dressing, entrees, deserts, and drink. Use the following polite expressions:  
I would like..... Could I have..... , please  
I will have.... Would you bring us.....
2. Perform your role-play for the class.

---

**APPETIZERS**

Oysters on the Half Shell  
- dozen 7.95- half dozen 4.95  
Nachos-4.25  
- with Guacamole 5.00

**SOUPS**

Soup of the Day 1.95  
French Onion Soup 2.50

**SALADS**

Spinach Salad 3.75  
Small Tossed Salad 2.95  
Dressing: French, Italian,  
Ranch

Dessert

Cheesecake 3.50

Chocolate Cake 3.95

Ice Cream 2.50

**ENTREES**

Hamburger 5.95

-with Cheese 6.50

Chile con Carne 7.25

Stuffed Green Peppers 9.50

**DESSERTS**

House Wine-glass 2.95-  
carafe 6.50

Coffee 1.25    Tea 1.25

Soft Drinks 1.25

Beer 2.0

We take Visa, MasterCard, and American Express.

5% tax added to all items.

Thank you for eating at MARY'S

**Assessment Sheet 3-7**  
**Self- Assessment Rubric**

Evaluate your role play.

Name:		
Activity:		
Date:		
	Point Value	Critique
Used appropriate vocabulary	/30 pts.	
Pronunciation is understandable	/40 pts.	
Spoke loudly enough	/50 pts.	
Spoke clearly	/50 pts.	
Showed organized thoughts	/50 pts.	
Used appropriate body language and intonation	/30 pts	
Total	/200 pts	

## **Instruction Plan Four Don't Forget the Tip**

Teaching Level: Adult--High beginning level

Time Frame: 1.5 hours

### Content Objective

Students will understand the custom of giving a tip in a restaurant.

### Learning Strategy Objective

Through the lesson content and role play, students will learn how to express their thoughts when they experience some cultural differences.

### Language Objective

Students will expand their oral skills by interacting and sharing their opinions with other classmates.

### TESOL Standards

Goal 1: To use English to achieve academically in all content areas.

Standard 1: Students will use English to participate in social interaction.

Standard 2: Students will use English to obtain, process, construct, and provide topic matter information in spoken and written form.

### Materials

Focus Sheet 4-1: How Did Tipping Get Started?

Focus Sheet 4-2: Tipping: The Difference between Gratitude and Expectation

Worksheet 4-3: Tipping

Worksheet 4-4: Discuss Questions about Tipping

Worksheet 4-5: Role-Play: I Do not Want to Give a Tip

Assessment 4-6: Self-Assessment Rubric

### Warm Up

The teacher asks students if they are used to giving a tip or not and in what kinds of situations they must give tips. Discuss the custom of giving a tip in a restaurant with students.

#### Task Chain 1: The Custom of Tipping

1. The teacher gives students Focus Sheet 4-1 and illustrates the custom of tipping with the students.
2. The teacher groups students into threes and lets them work together. They reread the article (Focus Sheet 4-1) and take notes according to the article.
3. The teacher passes out Worksheet 4-3. Students discuss and write their opinions in short paragraphs.
4. When students progress in their discussions, the teacher walks around and answers any question the students may have.

#### Task Chain 2: Discuss the Different Cultures in Tipping

1. The teacher groups students into fours and hands out Worksheet 4-4. The students read the questions and discuss them together.
2. The teacher asks one volunteer in every group to answer the questions based on questions 2 and 3 in Worksheet 4-4.
3. When the volunteer talks about their discussion results, the teacher asks other students to pay attention to the speaking content and give appropriate encouragement to the volunteers.

#### Task Chain 3: Role-Play: I Do Not Want to Give a Tip

1. The teacher gives Focus Sheet 4-2 to students and lets them read the story and take notes according to the author's opinions.
2. The teacher groups students into threes and lets them work together. According to Focus Sheet 4-2, they exchange their thoughts about tipping.
3. The teacher passes out Worksheet 4-5 and lets students discuss the situation that happened in the case. The students should finish it by performing a role-play.
4. When the students role-play, the teacher may take notes about students' pronunciation. After the performance, the teacher thanks students and give some suggestions for their pronunciation.



Assessment

Formative:

1. The teacher observes students' participation in class.
2. The teacher checks Worksheet 4-3 after group work.
3. The teacher checks students' participation when role-playing.

Summative:

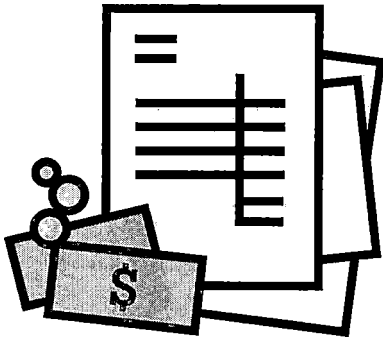
The teacher let students assess their role play and participative conditions using Assessment Sheet 4-6.

<u>Scores</u>	<u>Representative</u>
160-200	Excellent
140-160	Good Job
140	Needs Improvement
100	Study Harder

## Focus Sheet 4-1 How Did Tipping Get Started?

A tip, or gratuity, is a small amount of money given voluntarily as a token of appreciation for a service rendered. The word "tip" is also considered by many to be an acronym: T.I.P. - "To Insure Promptness" or "To Insure Prompt" service. But how did tipping get started in the first place? Why don't employers just pay their employees a regular wage and increase their prices to make up the difference? In some places, they do, but so many people (especially in the U.S.) are so accustomed to leaving a tip for good service that they end up leaving the servers money anyway.

There are several theories about where tipping came from. In these theories, two of them are common. (1) "Tip" or "gratuity" often was associated with "drink money," seeming to imply that the customer was buying the server a drink to have later as a way of saying thanks for the good service. (2) The word was used as a verb to mean "hand it over" or "to give." This follows suit with the stories of feudal lords throwing gold coins as "tips" to the peasants in the street to ensure their own safe passage.



Reference:

Howstuffworks. (n. d.). How did tipping get started?  
Retrieved August 25, 2005, from  
<http://people.howstuffworks.com/tipping1.htm>

## Focus Sheet 4-2

### Tipping: The Difference between Gratitude and Expectation

By Joan Chastiser, OSB

It was a good question. I have always had a thing about tipping. My parents taught me that tipping had something to do with good service. If you got "good service," you tipped. You left money beyond the total of the bill for the waiter herself because she had done more than simply take orders and deliver dishes to the table. It meant that you got more than what you had a right to expect. You tipped to acknowledge the nice smile. On the other hand, surly, slow, brusque service never got a tip. The lesson was very clear: to get tipped you had to be good at what you did and caring about the people you served. You didn't "expect" a tip; you earned a tip. Then, someplace along the line, the economic system took a turn and service with it. All of a sudden, tips ceased to be related to service and began to be related to a percentage of the bill. And the service personnel came to depend on it. Restaurant owners, in other words, had quit paying the service personnel a decent wage and expected the clientele to do it for them. They hired young people and worked them for next to nothing on the grounds that the tips they made were equal to a salary and that was enough for them. Tips became the mainstay of the business. Now customers pay for the meal and for the service. The owner provides the food and the facility only. Tipping had become an expectation, not a reward for work well done. Instead, tipping became a cover up for the payment of slave wages.

Now, I believe in tipping. I like being able to recognize good work, good service, special skill. But I do not like being forced to do it. It's not that I don't want good service personnel to be rewarded, but I don't like being put into a position where all I can do is "tip" the tip.

#### Reference:

Chastiser, J. (2003). Tipping: the difference between gratitude and expectation. Retrieved August 25, 2005, from: <http://www.nationalcatholicreporter.org/fwis/pc061003.htm>

**Worksheet 4-3**  
**Tipping**

Exercise 1:

In many countries around the world, tipping is an acceptable custom--expect customers are expected to leave some money for waiters. Different countries have different tipping customs. In some Asian countries, such as Japan, tipping is not done. However, in the United States, where tipping in restaurants is the norm, some people do not agree with the practice.

Tipping come from the word "to insure promptness," which is the supported purpose of tipping. Write your own opinion about tipping. Is tipping a good custom?

Exercise 2:

In small groups, discuss your answers above with your partners.

•

**Work Sheet 4-4**  
**Discuss Questions about Tipping**

With a partner or in small groups, discuss the answers to these questions about tipping.

1. In a restaurant, how much of a tip do you usually leave?
- 2. Does tipping really "insure promptness" as it was intended to do?
3. Have you ever deliberately not left a tip? Describe the circumstances.
4. Why do we tip the person who cuts our hair but not a doctor?
5. What kinds of professionals do we usually tip?



## Worksheet 4-5

### Role-Play: I Do Not Want to Give Tip

Work in groups of three. The student will act three different roles: customer, waiter, and restaurant owner. According to the situation below, perform the role-play for the class.

The situation will be...

The customer ate a meal in a famous restaurant. However, he/she thought the restaurant's food and service were poor. The waiter had a cold face. The food delivery was slow and impolite. The coffee was not refilled. Therefore, he/she did not want to pay any tip because of the poor service.

Nevertheless, when he/she left the restaurant, the waiter ran after him/her with his bill in hand. "You forgot the tip." How should the customer respond?



**Assessment Sheet 4-6**  
**Self- Assessment Rubric**

Evaluate your role play.

Name:		
Activity:		
Date:		
	Point Value	Critique
Used appropriate vocabulary	/30 pts.	
Pronunciation is understandable	/40 pts.	
Spoke loudly enough	/50 pts.	
Spoke clearly	50/ pts.	
Showed organized thoughts	/50 pts.	
Used appropriate body language and intonation	30/ pts.	
Total	/200 pts.	

**Instruction Plan Five**  
**What Is Your Favorite Holiday?**

Teaching Level: Adult--High beginning level

Time Frame: 3.5 hours

Content Objective

Students will learn different food traditions in different countries.

Learning Strategy Objective

Students will be able to use a graphic organizer (story sequence chart) to analyze each event in a story.

Language Objective

Students will be able to make a small presentation with appropriate stress, rhythm, and intonation.

TESOL Standards

Goal 1: To use English to achieve academically in all content areas.

Standard 1: Students will use English to participate in social interaction.

Standard 2: Students will use English to obtain, process, construct, and provide topic matter information in spoken and written form.

Materials

Computers

Focus Sheet 5-1: What Is Your Favorite Holiday?

Focus Sheet 5-2: Prepare a Successful Presentation

Focus Sheet 5-3: Presentation Skills--Body Language

Worksheet 5-4: My Favorite Holiday

Worksheet 5-5: Interview: Favorite Holiday

Worksheet 5-6: Search in the Internet: Food Tradition and Holiday

Work Sheet 5-7: Plan Your Presentation

Assessment Sheet 5-8: Partner-Assessment Rubric

Assessment Sheet 5-9: Evaluate for Presentation

Warm Up

The teacher encourages students to talk about their favorite holiday and picks out several students to share their ideas.



Task Chain 1: Think about a Special Holiday by Reading the Story "My Favorite Holiday"

1. The teacher gives students Focus Sheet 5-1 and leads students to read the story. After they finish it, the teacher asks students to think about what special holiday they like.
2. The teacher hands out Worksheet 5-2 and lets students answer the questions independently. When students are writing down their answers, the teacher walks around and helps them finish it.
3. The teacher encourages students to share their opinions with the class about their answers.

Task Chain 2: Finish the Interview and Write a Story by Using the Story Sequence Chart

1. The teacher pairs students and passes out Worksheet 5-3 to students.
2. The students start to interview their partners and finish the form. When students are interviewing, the teacher walks around and helps them finish it.
3. After the students finish the story sequence chart, the teacher asks students to write down a story according to the interview.
4. After students finish their writing, the teacher hands out Assessment Sheet 5-5 for peer evaluation.
5. In order to help students assess their peers, the teacher explains the rules to students. While students are doing their peer evaluation, the teacher walks around and checks students' understanding and progress.

Task Chain 3: Prepare Presentation

1. The teacher gives students Focus Sheet 5-2 and lets them try to read the sentences alone.
2. The teacher reads the sheet and illustrates successful elements in a presentation for the students. After the teacher finishes the explanation, the teacher asks students to reread Focus Sheet 5-2.
3. Then, the teacher gathers the class together. The teacher asks them what other elements will influence a presentation and let them discuss this.
4. The teacher asks several volunteers to tell the class why body language is important in a presentation.

5. After students finish their speaking, the teacher gives Focus Sheet 5-3 to students and let them read it.

#### Task Chain 4: Presentation

1. The teacher gives students Worksheet 5-6 and 5-7 and divides students into groups of threes.
2. The students are asked to log online and use the Internet to search food traditions in different countries. While students are doing their research, the teacher walks around and provides appropriate help.
3. After the students finish their research, the teacher asks students to do a small presentation according to the information they gathered.
4. When the students present, the teacher may take notes according to students' pronunciation and intonation and uses Assessment 5-8 to evaluate students' oral performance.
5. After finishing the performance, the teacher thanks students' for their presentation and give some suggestions to them.

#### Assessment

##### Formative:

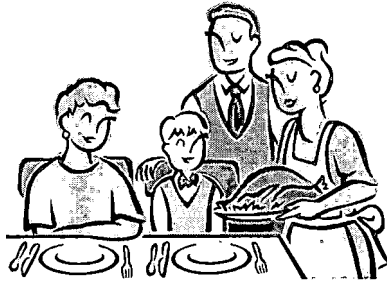
1. The teacher observes students' participation in class.
2. The teacher checks Worksheets 5-5, 5-6, and 5-7 after group work.
3. The teacher checks students' participation when presentation.

Summative:

At the end of the lesson, the teacher gives students Peer Assessment 5-8 and lets students assess their partner's performance.

<u>Scores</u>	<u>Representative</u>
40-50	Excellent
30-40	Good Job
20-30	Needs Improvement
0-20	Study Harder

Focus Sheet 5-1  
My Favorite Holiday



America has a lot of traditions. One of my favorite times is Thanksgiving. Everyone in the family gets together and eats an abundant meal. My parents always start to prepare the food on Thanksgiving Eve. The meal usually has a lot of food such as biscuits, beans, cranberry juice, mashed potatoes, pumpkin pie, and a delicious big turkey. My Aunt Susie comes to our house on Thanksgiving morning and helps my mother to cook. She always brings my favorite cake, flavorsome coconut sour cream cake. We usually eat our meal in the evening. My father cuts the turkey and shares with everyone. We drink cranberry juice. Everyone sits in the dining room and chats about the past events in the year. I really like Thanksgiving.

Christine Lee

## Focus Sheet 5-2 Prepare a Successful Presentation

### Submitting the Title and Abstract

Your presentation needs an attention getting, forceful title. If possible, incorporate the key benefit the audience will receive from attending. The abstract is a concise summary of the presented research. It should set the stage for your presentation and include the following:

1. What is the problem (relevance) of the research?
2. What was done to solve the problem?
3. What was the outcome? Abstracts should never have cited references.

### Oral Presentations

1. *Know your topic well.* What makes the information unique? Can it be presented in the allotted time? If you are presenting someone else's research, do you know what methods they used and have a full understanding of the relevance of the work?
2. *What are your reasons for making this presentation?* What is the take-home message that you want to convey?
3. *Who will be in your audience?* Adapt the style and content to fit the audience's needs and knowledge level. How much does the target audience already know about your subject? What are they expecting you to tell them?
4. *Plan for time constraints.* Talks should be planned for the allowable time limit, with a 3-5 minute question session at the end. A good rule of thumb is to allow for about 30 seconds per slide (10% Introduction, 10% Summary, 80% Methods and Results).



Reference:

ASLO.org. (2004). Preparing a successful presentation.  
Retrieved August 25, 2005, from  
<http://aslo.org/students/presentations.html>

**Focus Sheet 5-3**  
**Presentation Skills--Body Language**

**Presentation Skills: Body Language and Voice**

When presentation, people usually apply some body behavior to explain their content. Sometimes, these behaviors also help speakers cover anxiety and attract audience attentions.

**How do I stand?**

For a good relaxed deportment, carry yourself in an upright posture during your performance. Make sure there are no tense parts in your body. Stand with quiet leadership authority and appear at ease and relaxed at giving your presentation.

**Head**

An upright relaxed posture keeps your head steady and encourages eye contact with your audience. This encourages your audience to feel as if you are talking directly with each of them when you establish eye contact. Don't be nervous; be courageous and look them in the eye. You do have something of importance to say that could well change their lives, increase their profits or reduce their expenses and give them more time to live happier lives!

**Facial expression**

Keep an expressive, relaxed and pleasant face. This will create bonds with your audience.

**Hands**

Best to allow your hands to fall loosely at the sides of your body. If you need one hand to hold notes, it can be relaxed and hold the notes just above the waistline.

**Gesture**

Gestures assist, but do not substitute for the expression of ideas. Be sparing with gestures and note the following points:

- Arms and hands should move in a flowing and relaxed manner
- Time the gestures consistent with the ideas being expressed
- Support your hand gestures with head and body movement
- Don't be artificially repetitive with gestures

## Feet

A good basic position is to:

- Place one foot slightly in front of the other, the heel of the front foot near the instep of the other. Have the toes pointing outwards at a slight angle.
- Now move the feet apart until you are evenly balanced and you feel anchored to the floor. Do not lock your knees. Feel as if you have the power of a crouched cougar or that of a boxer, ready to move lightly and deliberately to add to your verbal impact of your message.



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## Reference:

Lien, R. (2005). Presentation skills: body language & voice Retrieved August 25, 2005, from [http://www.4hoteliers.com/4hots\\_fshw.php?mwi=745](http://www.4hoteliers.com/4hots_fshw.php?mwi=745)





**Worksheet 5-5**  
**Interview: Favorite Holiday**

Exercise One:

Interview your partner and complete the chart.

What was your favorite holiday as a child?	What did you eat?	What did you do?

Exercise Two:

According to the interview, write a story related to holiday and food tradition. Use Focus Sheet 5-1 as a model.

**Worksheet 5-6**

**Search in the Internet: Food Tradition and Holiday**

Search the Internet for "food traditions" and a nationality that interests you. Write down the information below and share with the class.

**Worksheet 5-7**  
**Plan Your Presentation**

You will make a presentation for your audience. The topic of this presentation is about diet and customs. You can introduce your country's special diet customs or you can compare the different diet customs or habits between America and your country. If you need more space to organize your speaking, you can use other sheets of paper.

These steps will help you plan your presentation:

1. What is the topic?
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
2. What is the abstract?
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
3. Outline your presentation content.



**Assessment 5-8  
Peer Evaluation Rubric**

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Writer's Name:

Checklist	Yes/No/ Comment
Does every sentence begin with a capital letter? (10 points)	
Does the writer use punctuation marks in the paper? (10 points)	
Does every sentence make sense? (10 points)	
Does every sentence have subject and verb? (10 points)	
Is there any misspelling? (10 points)	
Peer Review Recommendation:	
Date:	

**Assessment Sheet 5-9**  
**Evaluation for Presentation**

Name:				
Date:				
	<u>Excellent</u>	<u>Good</u>	<u>Average</u>	<u>Needs to improve</u>
Well Prepared				
Topic was interesting and appropriate				
Organization was clear and logical				
Information was complete and useful				
Pronunciation was understandable				
Body language and eye contact were appropriate				
Spoke with appropriate volume				
Appropriate body language when presenting				
Comments:				

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