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Strategy-based listening comprehension for junior high school students of English in Taiwan

Chi-Yu Yang

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STRATEGY-BASED LISTENING COMPREHENSION FOR JUNIOR HIGH

SCHOOL STUDENTS OF ENGLISH IN TAIWAN

_____

A Project

Presented to the

Faculty of

California State University,

. San Bernardino

_____

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

in

Education:

Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

_____

by

Yu-Chi Yang

September 2001

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Approved by:

Lynne Diaz-Rico, First Reader   8/6/01
                                        Date

Gary Negin, Second Reader

ABSTRACT

This project provides research on listening-process pedagogies for teachers and learning strategies that can assist learners' listening comprehension. Based on these perspectives, a theoretical model of strategy-based listening process instruction is offered for the purpose of promoting listening comprehension.

The goal of this project is to design an effective and appropriate way for Taiwanese students of English to improve their listening skills using learning strategies, and for teachers to reconsider the current pedagogy for listening comprehension under the educational system in Taiwan. This project investigates the concepts of comprehension and the listening process, the role of communicative competence, authentic materials, learning strategies, and computer-assisted instruction in listening. Moreover, the project includes an instruction unit based on several important American holidays, a curriculum designed to motivate students to learn English.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This project is dedicated to my family. Their encouragement and support have brought me the confidence and courage to confront all obstacles so that I can accomplish my study. Furthermore, I would like to thank many people who have contributed significantly to the success of this project.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

English has become the international language of the world.
More than seven hundred and fifty million people use English.
In Taiwan, English is the one foreign language that students
have to study beginning in junior high school. Proficiency in
English is an important and useful skill needed in order to look
for a good job or enter advanced schooling. Specifically,
companies need people who are good at English to expand overseas
markets, and schools need to cultivate lots of students with
excellent ability in English to further the development of
internationalization. A focus on communicative competence is
the current tendency for English education in Taiwan. Recently,
the Taiwanese government has devoted efforts to marketing Taiwan
as a "technology island." Under these circumstances, Taiwanese
people are required to communicate in English. Because about
eighty percent of the economy of Taiwan relies on import and
export trade, and English is a commonly used economic language
in the global economic system, it is an important language for
the Taiwanese.

Due to the importance and necessity of English in Taiwan,
English has become a required subject in elementary schools.
This means the foundation for English instruction will be laid
at an increasingly younger age.

English Instruction in Taiwan

Generally speaking, the purpose of learning English for
students in Taiwan is to pass senior high school, college, or
university entrance examinations. In order to help students
pass these examinations, teachers usually use tests to determine
the students' skills in reading and writing English rather than
speaking and listening.

Unfortunately, the current English curriculum just
emphasizes grammar structures, the reading and translation of
English language texts, and memorization of vocabulary.
Textbooks are too boring to arouse students' interest. In
addition, teachers usually do not provide opportunities for
students to speak, sometimes just expecting them to repeat the
teacher's pronunciation. There is little interaction between
teachers and students and there is little language output by
students. English is a pencil-and-paper-test subject. It is
"examination-oriented," instead of a tool of communication.
Most of the students are able to pass the examinations; however,
they may not be able to communicate well with foreign visitors.

This is also because Taiwanese students are afraid of making mistakes and shy to speak. Therefore, they lack initiative to improve their communicative ability. These students need a creative method to rebuild their confidence.

Good quality learning depends on the size of the class. During the past forty years in Taiwan, there have been about forty-five to fifty-five students in a high school classroom. Recently, however, the Taiwanese government has begun to lower the number of the students in the classroom. From Table 1., one can see that the number of the students in the classroom have fallen from fifty-five to thirty-eight. This means classes are indeed smaller than before. Even though the number of the students in the classroom is already lower than in the past, there are still oversized classes. Teachers cannot pay equal attention to every student, of course, and students do not have enough chances to express themselves freely and interactively.

Social Context of Learning

For many Asian countries, such as Taiwan, Japan, and Korea, English plays an important role in society. English provides a bridge for different languages and cultures to communicate. In Taiwan, there are a number of cram schools that offer many levels of curriculum. These cram schools often hire foreign teachers to enhance the quality of the teaching and learning

environment. Moreover, according to Taiwan's 1998/99 Country Locator Report, there are 31,043 Taiwanese students studying in the United States, enrolled in over 826 different universities. This means many Taiwanese students would like to pursue English language higher education and experience a different learning experience. And, in fact, people who have gone abroad for study usually obtain better jobs and salaries in Taiwan. Consequently, learning English is considered a requirement for most Taiwanese.

Target Teaching Level

Junior high school used to be a foundational and initial stage for learning English in Taiwan. Even now, for most junior high school students, English is a language that they have to learn from the very beginning. The reason why I chose junior high school students as my target level is that these students are especially pliant; they have few bad learning habits, and can learn without already having had too many awful experiences. Although they still have to take examinations, I am sure that I will have opportunities to provide extracurricular activities that supplement the textbook in order to incite their interest. It will be a challenge for me to teach these students under the current examination-oriented educational system, but I believe I can do well at this level.

Content of the Project

This project is focused on methods that can promote
students' listening comprehension. It consists of five
chapters. Chapter One, Introduction, describes the background
of English education in Taiwan. Chapter Two, Review of
Literature, explains five main concepts of the project:
comprehension and the listening process, and the role in
listening of communicative competence, authentic materials,
strategies for language learning and listening comprehension,
and technology and language learning. Chapter Three provides
a theoretical framework which is based on the combination of
the five main concepts of the project. Chapter Four, Design of
Curriculum, explains the connections of the instructional
lessons to the theoretical framework which is given in Chapter
Three. Chapter Five, Plan for Assessment, discusses purposes
and types of assessments, and assessing listening
comprehension.

Significance of the Project

For most Taiwanese students, learning a foreign language,
including culture, behavior, thinking, and feeling, is a big
challenge, especially in the skill of listening. This is
because learning English in the classroom is totally different

from acquiring the native language in the environment. Listening comprehension has been increased to achieve parity with other facts of language proficiency. However, due to the educational system in Taiwan, listening is less emphasized in junior high school. At this level, students need to memorize grammatical rules, vocabulary, and even sentence patterns because they have to pass tests.

This project offers several important concepts in order to help students to understand the process of listening comprehension. For example, learning strategies provide diverse ways to improve listening comprehension. Technology, like the computer, offers authentic materials and assessments for listening. Also, communicative approaches result in more interaction between teachers and students. The curriculum design, which includes these important concepts, offers an instructional unit with a goal to improve students' listening comprehension. Therefore, this project incorporates theoretical concepts, as an integrate part of listening instruction appropriate and effective.

School Year
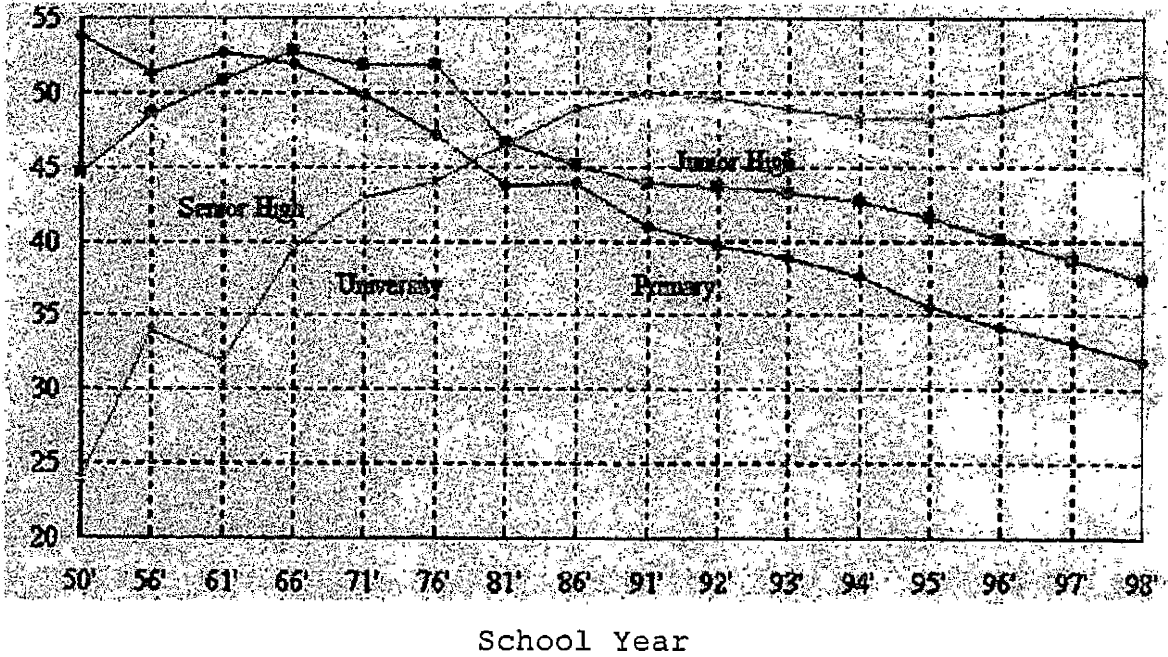
Figure 1. Average Number of Students Per Class By Level of Education in Taiwan

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Listening comprehension is now considered to be a necessary preliminary to oral proficiency, and is one of the most important and fundamental of the four skills in language learning; however, listening comprehension is often less emphasized in the language classroom than are other language skills. This is unfortunate, because listening ability is an important asset; in fact, language learners with good listening ability not only can develop their language facility and vocabulary, but also can expand their knowledge. This chapter documents investigation of ways and processes to improve ESL/EFL learners' listening comprehension by presenting research in comprehension and the listening process, the role of communicative competence in listening, authentic materials, learning strategies, and technology and language learning.

Comprehension and the

Listening Process

Human beings begin listening early in life; it is the skill humans spend the most time using. As Lundsteen (1978) points out, "We listen to a book a day; speak a book a week; read a book a month; and write a book a year" (p. 75). According to

statistics (Oxford, 1993), listening takes up 40%-50% of the

total time spent on communicating; speaking, 25%-30%; reading,

11%-16%; and writing, about 9 %. No wonder listening is really

important in language learning.

Lundsteen (1989)states, "…listening vocabulary is

typically the largest of the four vocabularies (listening,

speaking, reading, and writing)(p. 69). Figure 2.1 not only

illustrates that all vocabulary basically depends on listening,

but also shows that listening takes up a large part of human

communication.
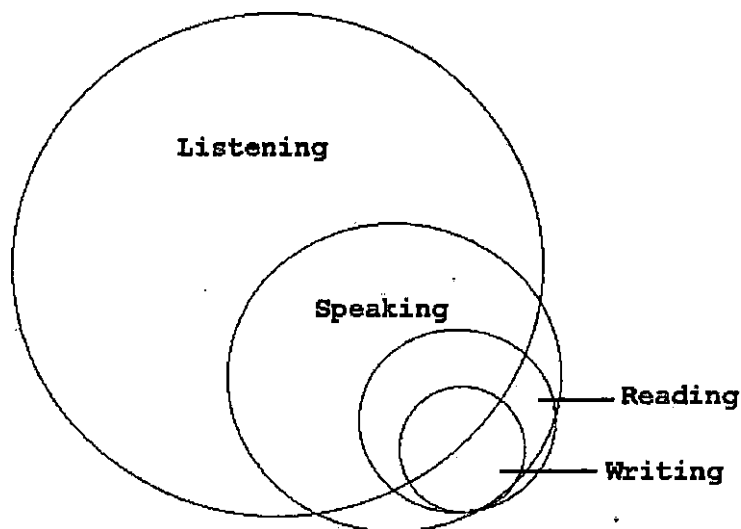
Figure 2.1. Four Overlapping Vocabularies Used in School
(Lundsteen, 1989)

What is Listening?

Listening has been defined as "…the process by which spoken

language is converted to meaning in the mind" (Lundsteen, 1979,

p. 1). Mendelsohn (1984) states that "listening is the ability to understand the spoken language of native speakers" (p. 64). Researchers in the field of listening agree that listening means not only just hearing or just paying attention, but also being part of an active process. In Lundsteen's (1989) definition, a person who is listening must be able to understand what is heard. This is because listening involves active attention for the purpose of gaining meaning (Landry, 1969).

Lundsteen (1979) describes two levels of listening skills. The first level represents general listening skills that distinguish listening from hearing, such as following directions, recalling details, paraphrasing, identifying main ideas, determining inferences, and understanding relationships. The second level is comprised of higher-order critical listening skills including judging statements from opinions, distinguishing fact from fiction, drawing conclusions, and evaluating fallacies.

Listening includes the ability to receive a message, process the information, and evaluate and integrate the meaning of the words. This ability comes to human beings first and foremost through listening, and in this sense, human beings' listening experiences offer the foundation for growth in the ability to speak, read, and write. As a result, listening is

not only the channel of language human beings use first and foremost, but also the means of development of skills in reading, speaking, and writing.

Listening is an Active, Interpretive, and Interactive Process

The listening process currently is gaining attention as a major area of interest in the literature on speech communication for native speakers of English. Listening comprehension is an active and conscious process in which the listener constructs meaning by using cues from contextual information and from existing knowledge, while relying upon multiple strategies resources to fulfill the task requirement. Traditionally, ESL/EFL teachers have viewed listening as a passive activity; listeners passively receive the message sent by speakers. However, Mendelsohn (1994) points out that listening is an activity in which language learners are active--fully as active as when speaking. This leads to the notion that one's mandate as a teacher of listening is to train the students how to be the most efficient and active listeners possible, through the use of a series of strategies.

Active listening integrates various levels of thinking ability. It requires that listeners receive information and focus on which information to attend to and which to ignore.

Active listeners need to be discriminating and use pertinent

information in order to make guesses. They use this

information, in conjunction with their own prior knowledge, to

assign meaning. They interpret, analyze, synthesize, and

evaluate information to attain alternate solutions (Rubin,

1990). Active listeners monitor their own listening

comprehension. The active listening process is a difficult task;

students have to be guided as to what they will be listening

for, when they can apply the information to which they are

listening, how to listen, and why they will be listening.

Mendelsohn (1994) states, "Listening, like reading, is an

interpretive process" (p. 14). Murphy (1985) characterizes the

interpretive nature of listening as follows: Listeners generate

internal texts which commonly differ from what they hear in

unexpected ways. It may be that reading depends completely on

listening, so much as that it appears to be a special extension

of it. This is because reading is normally superimposed on a

foundation of listening; the ability to listen seems to set

limits on the ability to read.

According to Lundsteen (1979), there are many specific

links between reading and listening, such as the act of receiving

(whether a speaker says, "see the ball," or a writer sends a

note to that effect, the receiver gets material to decode into

meaning), analogous features (the process of learning to read may include finding analogies among the components of listening and reading), vocabulary (there are classroom implications for links between reading and listening vocabularies; "book language" may be the only medium in which children meet the phrase "if I were" or "I presume"), and common skills of thinking and understanding (listening and reading make use of many of the same feeling, background experience, concepts, and thought strategies).

Brown (1994) notes that listening is not a one-way street. It is not merely the process of a unidirectional receiving of audible symbols. The first step of listening comprehension is the psychomotor process of receiving sound waves through the ear and transmitting nerve impulses to the brain. But that is just the beginning of what is clearly an interactive process as the brain acts on the impulses, bringing to bear a number of different cognitive and affective mechanisms.

Reinforcing this point, Mendelsohn (1994) points out the following:

Listening and speaking are very often intertwined, a point which should be borne in mind when designing listening comprehension course. Not only does interactional listening require training and practice, but second

13

language learners doing such listening have to be trained

and encouraged to use the social strategy of asking for

clarification from their interlocutors." (p. 14)

Mendelsohn (1994) explains that this kind of listening

process belongs more in a speaking course, as the main skills

that language learners need are the ability to maintain such

conversation, and the use of all appropriate sociolinguistic

signals so as to keep the channel of communication open. In this

way, listening enables the speaker to connect sounds to make

words and words to make sentences, which results in the

listeners' abilities to attain meaning.

Listening Comprehension: A Schema-Theoretic

Perspective

Rumelhart (1980) states that "schema theory is basically

a theory about knowledge, about how knowledge is represented,

and about how that representation facilitates the use of the

knowledge in particular ways. According to schema theories, all

knowledge is packaged into units. These units are the schemata"

(p. 34).

Schema theory is an important theoretical concomitant to

processing theory of comprehension. The term scheme was first

used by the psychologist Bartlett (1932), and it has had an

important influence on researchers in the fields of speech

14

processing and language comprehension ever since. Nunan (1999) describes as schema theory as "based on the notion that past experiences lead to the creation of mental frameworks that help us make sense of new experiences" (p. 201). Therefore, the use of listeners' background knowledge can keep make sense of particular information. The more is known about the theme, the more listeners can understand.

Anderson, Pichert, and Larry (1979) have identified two types of schemata essential to comprehension. The first is "textual schemata" or "knowledge of the discourse-level convention of text." This relates to the general format or outline followed by specific types of texts. For instance, Long (1989) gives the example of an operator-assisted long distance telephone call, in which the caller expects to be asked for specific types of information such as type of assistance required, name, and billing number. In short, textual schema theory postulates that an individual is aware of knowledge of text type, and structural organizations.

In addition to textual schemata, the second type of schemata is content schemata. Anderson Pichert, and Larry (1979) notes that content schemata are derived from the individual's life experiences: catching the train to work, checking out library books, purchasing license plates, or going to the dentist's

office. These are also called cultural schemata. Some
researchers have contended that content schemata are even more
important to the comprehension process than textual schemata.
Bowman (1981) cites the process of parachuting as an example:
"While all's fine, jumping is easy and I have fun playing with
different maneuvers. When the weather's bad, I just concentrate
on a simple, straight-forward fall" (p. 21). In other words,
context determines which schemata are most relevant at a given
time.

Visual and verbal emphasis cues are also important schema
activators. Pratt and Krane (1981) studied college students'
processing of ambiguous passages under reading and listening
conditions. They found that paralinguistic cues such as italic
print and vocal intonation influence readers' and listeners'
interpretation of ambiguous passages. Results indicate that
interpretation is dependent on subjects' background knowledge
of the passage theme, when paralinguistic cues seem to enhance
instantiation of available schema during comprehension and
recall. Consequently, Pratt and Krane give equal significance
to vocal emphasis as a pedagogical strategy for presenting new
material to students.

While acknowledging the value of activating schemata for
processing listening, Mendelsohn (1994) notes that there is

also a danger: the activation of a schema early in a listening passage may "strait-jacket" the mind of listeners, causing them to stick with an incorrect hypothesis, and as a result, an incorrect understanding of the whole text. In addition, Long (1989) points out that background knowledge schema "work well for routine events, but tend to break down in novel contexts" (p. 33). He also notes that most of the current knowledge about comprehension has been borrowed from other disciplines. Some danger of "lack of fit" always exists when applying borrowed theories to second language acquisition. However, given the scarcity of second language (L2) listening comprehension research, and the importance of schemata to the first language (L1) comprehension process, related L1 research linking listening to activation of subjects' background knowledge must be explored in L2 listening. That is, many of the connections among events do not have to be specified when speakers and listeners share the same cultural background, because they are already known and can be inferred. However, listening comprehension becomes difficult if the listener lacks a relevant cultural background.

Top-down and Bottom-up Processing

Derived from schema theory, the idea of the importance of information background knowledge has had great influence on

improving listening comprehension. Schema theory postulates

two types of processing. According to Nunan (1999), there are

the "bottom-up" processing view and the "top-down"

interpretation view. Mendelsohn (1994) states that "top-down"

processing is holistic and goes "from whole to part." Nunan

(1999) suggests that the listener actively constructs (or more

accurately, reconstructs) the original meaning of the speaker

using incoming sounds as clues. In this reconstruction process,

the listener uses prior knowledge of the context and situation

within which the listening takes place to make sense of what

he or she hears. Therefore, the top-down approach is a sensible

approach for native speakers.

As Nunan (1999) notes, the bottom-up processing model

assumes that listening is a processing of decoding the sounds

that one hears in a linear fashion, from the smallest meaningful

units (or phonemes) to complete texts. Based on this idea, he

points out phonemic units are linked and decoded together to

make words, words are linked together to shape phrases, phrases

are linked together to form sentences, and sentences are linked

together to structure complete meaningful articles. Thus,

Anderson and Lynch (1988) call the bottom-up processing the

"listener as tape-recorder" view of listening because it assumes

that the listener takes in and stores messages in much the same

way as a tape-recorder, sequentially, one sound, word, phrase, and utterance at a time. However, Nunan (1991) points out that research shows that this is not the way that listening works. If someone is asked to listen to a message and write down as much of the message as they can recall, one will generally find that they have remembered some bits of the message, they have forgotten other bits, and they have added in bits that were not in fact in the message at all. It seems that when messages are comprehended, the meanings are stored, but not the linguistic forms. The alternative to the listener-as-tape-recorder view accords a much more active role to listeners as they build an interpretation of a message by utilizing both bottom-up and top-down knowledge.

Listening is the channel of language human beings use first and most often, and it also helps to improve skills in reading, speaking, and writing. Active listening combines various levels of thinking ability to understand background knowledge and to improving listening comprehension. Moreover, in the process of learning listening comprehension, communicative competence also plays an important role. Because listening is not just a one-way communication, it is an interactive activity. Therefore, the role of communicative competence in listening will be discussed next.

The Role of Communicative

Competence in Listening

Language is for communication. Communicative competence

is the knowledge and use of the functions for which language

is suited. Therefore, the goal of language learning is that

language learners can communicate well through a second or

foreign language.

According to Schumann (1972), much literature in second

or foreign language education has emphasized the need to teach

language learners how to communicate in the target language.

At one time, a second or foreign language was taught or learned

as a formal system rather than for a communication purpose.

Eggers (1987) argues that "students who shine in grammar do not

necessarily sparkle in extended oral discourse" (p. 2).

Nowadays, language learners are considered successful if they

can communicate efficiently in their second or foreign language,

whereas two decades ago the accuracy of the language produced

would most likely be the major criterion upon which to base

judgment of a student's success.

In Taiwan, English teaching is taught at present by using

the grammar-translation method that focuses on grammatical

rules and structures. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is

a new English teaching design for Taiwanese learners because

many of its features highlight the importance of listening and
speaking English, aspects lacking in current English learning
designs in Taiwan.

What is Communicative Competence?

As Brown (1994) notes, communicative competence includes
knowledge and skills that enable people to communicate
interactively and functionally. Accordingly, communicative
competence is the aspect of language learners' competence that
enables them to "convey and interpret messages and to negotiate
meanings interpersonally within specific contexts" (Brown, 1994,
p. 227). This means whether the learner is a child or an adult,
to learn when, where, how, and why to use language appropriately
is an important component of successful communicative
competence.

Hymes (1972) was the first to use the term "communicative
competence." He indicated that the ability to speak completely
not only entails knowing the grammatical rules of a language,
but also knowing what to say, to whom, in what circumstances,
and how to say it.

From the perspective of language learning, Hymes (1972)
emphasizes the importance of communicative competence. He
states:

The importance of concern with the child is partly that
if offers a favorable vantage point for discovering the
adult system, and that it poses neatly one way in which
the ethnography of communication is a distinctive
enterprise, i.e., and enterprise concerned with the
abilities the child must acquire beyond those of producing
and interpreting grammatical sentences, in order to be a
competent member of its community, not only what may
possibly be said, but also what should and should
not be said. (Hymes, 1972, p. 26)

Childhood is a crucial period for development of
communicative competence. In acquiring full communicative
competence, children must learn to speak not only grammatically,
but also appropriately (Hymes, 1972). Hence, children are
taught a variety of socio-linguistic and social interactional
rules which govern appropriate language use. By the time
children reach the age of 4 or 5, they may have experienced
diverse speech settings: they go to preschool, to birthday
parties, to the restaurant, and to the doctor. They take part
in a variety of speech situations with people who differ in age,
sex, status, and familiarity, and whose speech will therefore
vary in a number of systematic ways (Anderson-Hsieh, 1990).

Children need to acquire communicative competence to deal with the situations they encounter.

In most languages, there are different communicative styles for use in different situations, such as those which vary according to the gender, age, and status of the people speaking. For example, adults speak in one way to young children, in another to older children, and in yet another to fellow adults (Ferguson 1975; Anderson, 1975); doctors address their patients in one way and consult physicians or friends in another (Shuy, 1976); and native speakers consistently modify their speech when addressing foreigners(Ferguson, 1975). As a result, language is used for different social purposes, such as communicating, negotiating, encouraging, commanding and even developing interpersonal relationships.

In accordance with Canale and Swain (1980), communicative competence minimally involves four areas of knowledge and skills. These are grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Grammatical competence reflects knowledge of the linguistic code itself and includes knowledge of vocabulary and rules of word formation, pronunciation, spelling and sentence formation. This type of competence emphasizes sentence-level grammar and knowledge necessary for speaking and writing. Among the four

components of communicative competence, grammatical competence plays a vital ongoing role in the development of a second language learner's communicative competence. This is because learners who have acquired the rules and norms leading speech acts, discourse features, and communication strategies will fail to communicate competently without grammar in all but the most limited conversational situations (Larsen-Freeman, 1980; Wolfson & Judd, 1983). Namely, grammatical competence is the basic frame for listening, speaking, reading and writing.

The focus of discourse competence is on how to combine grammatical forms and meaning in order to produce and comprehend cohesive and coherent discourse. This is a complex domain to characterize. Savignon (1983) points out, "discourse competence is the subject of interdisciplinary inquiry. The theory and analysis of discourse bring together many disciplines—for example, linguistics, literacy criticism, psychology, sociology, philosophy, anthropology, print, and broadcast media" (p. 38).

In contrast, the focus of sociolinguistic competence, like strategic competence, is more on functional aspects of communication. As Savignon (1983) has suggested, sociolinguistic competence "requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: The role of the

participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction" (p. 37). In the view of Swain (1984),"this competence includes the ability to produce and understand appropriate utterances" (p. 189). Therefore, second language learners need to know not only appropriate forms but also appropriate meanings of utterances to tailored to explicit social functions in specific situations.

Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995) note that "strategic competence involves the manipulation of language in order to meet communicative goals" (p. 15). According to Yule and Tarone (1990), "strategic competence relates to the acquisition of the ability to use L2 linguistic forms to perform communicative acts such as successfully identifying intended referents" (p. 159). They suggested that the most proper way to evaluate the outcome of the operation of strategic competence must be as "more successful" or "less successful" rather than "correct" or "incorrect." However, from Canale & Swain's (1980) point of view, strategic competence means "the verbal and nonverbal communicative strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to insufficient competence" (p. 30).

Cooley and Roach (1984) offer another definition of communicative competence. They define four components of

communicative competence as communication patterns, appropriateness, situation, and ability to use. Communication patterns represent the entire range of communication behavior from language structure to nonverbal behaviors such as turn-taking, which is a very highly skilled activity, in a sense that behaviors are coordinated with appropriate timing and responded to accurately by other interactants.

Appropriateness of speech is determined in the context of the culture a person represents. Rules for appropriate language use may vary from culture to culture; that is, every culture has its own rules that determine which communication patterns are acceptable for a specific situation. Hymes (1972) points out that these rules regulate norms for interaction and norms for interpretation.

The situational component is also perceived with regard to culture. This is because what is considered as a situation is determined by the rules of the culture and differs in every culture.

The final component of communicative competence is ability to use speech appropriately. This component of communicative competence includes individual factors that construct psychological frames. For instance, motivation, personality,

and understanding allow a community member to cope with and use cultural knowledge to accomplish correct communication acts.

Briefly, communicative competence is the knowledge of social rules and linguistic rules of language. Teachers will be able to enhance students' specific skills in grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence by building experiences into the curriculum that involve students in solving problems and exploring areas of interest. In so doing, students learn these skills and apply them to specific situations in order to have socially appropriate and cohesive conversations with others. Moreover, students have knowledge of repair strategies (verbal and nonverbal) to deal with potentially unfulfilling communication situations and to make communication more successful.

What is the Communicative Approach and How is It Different from a Traditional Approach?

Tschirner (1996) states that the aim of the communicative approach is to create a "shift in emphasis from language knowledge to language use" (p. 1). The communicative approach is a teaching method which focuses on communication skills in foreign or second language teaching. Paulston (1974) notes that the communicative approach includes grammar lessons using authentic language, role-play, and practice in interacting in

real life situations. According to this approach,

communicative competence is trained by doing, and cannot be

taught in lectures. Classrooms should provide opportunities

for students to practice communicative skills in a diversity

of real-world settings.

Pennington and Richards (1986) state that "pronunciation,

traditionally viewed as a component of linguistic rather than

communicative competence or as an aspect of accuracy rather than

conversational fluency, has come to be regarded as of limited

importance in a communicatively oriented curriculum" (p. 207).

That is, the communicative approach focuses more on fluency than

accuracy, and on meaning as opposed to form. In order to put

the communicative approach effectively into practice, it is

important that second language learners have a basic

knowledge of the lexical and grammatical forms of the language.

This is because linguistic competence structures are the bases

for effective communication.

According to Larsen-Freeman (1986), "the most obvious

characteristic of the communicative approach is that almost

everything that is done is done with a communicative intent"

(p. 132). For instance, second language learners use language

a great deal via communicative activities, such as games, role

playing, and problem-solving tasks. In communication, the

speaker has a choice of what he/she will say and how he/she will say it. If the activity is firmly controlled so that second language learners can only say something in one way, the speaker has no choice in the exchange. Thus, it is not communicative.

The second characteristic of the communicative approach is the use of authentic materials. This is considered desirable in order to give second language learners an opportunity to build up communicative strategies for realizing language as native speakers use it.

Finally, activities in the communicative approach are usually carried out by second language learners in a small group. Having small numbers of students interact is recommended, in order to maximize the time allotted to each student for learning to communicate.

In a useful survey of communicative approaches, Quinn (1984) suggests that the communicative approach can be distinguished from the traditional approach to language pedagogy in a number of ways. These are set out in Table 2.1.

From the view of learning theory, traditional approaches tend to be teacher centered rather on student centered, as are communicative approaches. This means traditional approaches encourage one-way communication instead of two-way communication as do communicative approaches. From the

Table 2.1. The Differences Between Traditional Approaches and
Communicative Approaches (adapted from Quinn, 1984, pp. 61-64)

	Traditional Approaches	Communicative Approaches
Teacher/Student roles	Tends to be teacher centered.	Is student centered.
Focus in learning	Focus is on the language as a structured system of grammatical patterns.	Focus is on communication.
View of language	A language is seen as a unified entity with fixed grammatical patterns and a core of basic words.	The variety of language is accepted, and seen as determined by the character of particular communicative contexts.
Type of language used	Tends to be formal and bookish.	Genuine everyday language is emphasized.
Similarity/ dissimilarity to natural language learning	Reverses the natural language learning process by concentrating on the form of utterances rather than on the content.	Resembles the natural language learning process in that the content of the utterance is emphasized rather than the form.
What is regarded as a criterion of success	Aim is to have students produce formally correct sentences.	Aim is to have students communicate effectively.
How language items are selected	This is done on linguistic criteria alone.	This is done on the basis of what language items the learner needs to know to get things done.

Table 2.1. The Differences Between Traditional Approaches and
Communicative Approaches (adapted from Quinn, 1984, pp. 61-64)
(con't.)

	Traditional Approaches	Communicative Approaches
How language items are sequenced	This is determined on linguistic grounds.	This is determined on other grounds, with the emphasis on content, meaning and interest.
Degree of coverage	The aim is to cover the "whole picture" of language structure by systematic linear progression.	The aim is to cover, in any particular phase, only what the learner needs and sees as important.
Which language skills are emphasized	Reading and writing	Spoken interactions are regarded as at least important as reading and writing.
Attitude to errors	Incorrect utterances are seen as deviations from the norms of standard grammar.	Partially correct and incomplete utterances are seen as such rather than just "wrong."

prospective of language theory, communicative approaches

emphasize authentic, interactive, and meaningful materials.

Compared with the formal and grammatical of traditional

approaches, communicative approaches provide more flexibility

for students to learn.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and the Role

of a CLT Teacher

According to Nunan (1999), communicative language teaching

(CLT), without doubt, is the most pervasive change to teaching

practice over the last twenty years. When audiolingualism

declined in the United States in the 1960s, CLT provided a wider

perspective on language teaching. It considers communication

of meaning to be the central goal of language learning rather

than focusing on grammatical rules and linguistic structures.

As already indicated, Savignon (1983) has suggested that

a classroom model of communicative competence includes Canale

and Swain's (1980) four components, which are grammatical

competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence,

and strategic competence. She further proposed five components

of a communicative curriculum including language arts, language

for a purpose, personal second language (L2) use, theater arts,

and beyond the classroom (Savignon, 1997). These elements

together help support both theoretical and practical

foundations for CLT. However, Savignon (1997) did not depend

on these as the only authority of CLT. Specifically, she

concluded with reference to the four competences. She states:

Whatever the relative importance of the various components

at any given level of overall proficiency, one must keep

in mind the interactive nature of their relationships. The whole of communicative competence is always something other than the simple sum of its parts. (p. 50)

In addition, from Savignon's (1991) point of view, CLT thus can be seen to derive from a multidisciplinary perspective that includes, at least, linguistics, psychology, philosophy, sociology, and educational research. This method stresses that language learning occurs through using language communicatively, instead of through practicing skills. Larsen-Freeman (1986) states that the objective of CLT is to achieve communicative competence in language use, i.e., to be able to use appropriate language in a given social context. Consequently, CLT is an approach which involves many aspects in real-world settings.

Beyond Savignon's theory about CLT, there are other conceptualizations of communicative competence and CLT. For example, Brown (1994) proposed a definition of CLT to include the following issues: "classroom goals are focuses on all of the components of communicative competence"; "language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes"; "fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques"; and "students ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively" (p. 245).

Bachman (1990) charted a theoretical framework for communicative language ability which included strategic competence, language competence, knowledge structures, psychophysiological mechanisms, and context of situation. These perspectives provide possibilities for the realization of CLT in a L2 classroom.

The roles of a CLT teacher include acting as a counselor, needs analyst, and group process manager (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). As a counselor, the CLT teacher is expected to measure the speaker's intention and the listener's interpretation to provide appropriate feedback and keep the conversation going effectively. This means CLT teachers focus on the context and communicative intent of the language rather than the accuracy of syntax and grammar. As a needs analyst, the CLT teacher needs to assess and respond to learners' linguistic needs (i.e., learners' purposes for learning language). Finally, as a group process manager, the CLT teacher is required to organize the classroom as an appropriate setting for communicative activities and communication. Moreover, a CLT teacher should understand learners' needs and serve as a communication resource.

In a summary of the key concepts of CLT, Johnson (1981), concluded that "we may find a structurally-organized course

whose methodology practices important aspects of the
communicative skill and is thus more worthy of the title
'communicative'" (p. 11). CLT not only is an effective method
to improve the relationship between teachers and students, but
also provides more opportunities for students to participate
in activities in the classroom, especially in Taiwan.

Communicative competence is viewed an important process
in the learning of a foreign or second language. This is because
communicative competence can enhance learning outcomes.
Communicative approach adopts a student-centered, rather than
teacher-centered orientation and emphasizes communication.
This makes the class authentically interested instead of
grammatical in focus. Thus, the cultivation of communicative
competence can lead to the successful learning.

Authentic Materials

The concept that authentic materials should be used in the
ESL/EFL classroom has been increasingly acknowledged in recent
years. Authentic materials enable learners to study "real"
English in place of the English contrived by instructors.
Authentic materials are thought to motivate language learners
because they are derived from the ultimate goal of learners'
studies—to use English in the same way as native speakers.

Due to the overreliance on the grammar-translation method in English education, most Taiwanese English learners have little opportunity to learn English in an English language social context. What they do most in the classroom is to memorize words without paying attention to cultural or social context of the language. Learning a foreign language is similar to learning new ways of behaving, thinking, and feeling in that language. As Freeman and Freeman (1994) state, learning a foreign language is more than acquiring a new set of words, pronunciations, and other grammatical rules of the language. Therefore, for English learners to have communicative competence and linguistic knowledge in English, it is necessary that they learn from authentic materials which characterize the cultural and social realities of the language.

The term "authentic materials" has assumed a diverse meaning in the literature on listening and reading comprehension. According to Rogers and Medley (1988), authentic materials mean "language samples, either oral or write, that reflect a naturalness of form and an appropriateness of cultural and situational context that would be found in the language as used by native speakers" (p. 468).

Listening materials should be authentic. In spite of the fact that there has been controversy about what materials are

36

better for learning to listen, some studies support that the use of authentic materials in listening and in reading is a meaningful and powerful input to encourage students' production (Cook, 1991; Rumelhart, 1980; Long, 1989). Students have to practice listening to the speech that they will actually encounter in their daily lives so that they are able to understand and respond to what native speakers say. Authentic materials can be applied not only to one-way speech, but also to two-way communication.

What are Authentic Materials?

In Nunan's (1991) definition, authentic materials are materials that are not specifically created for the purpose of illustrating or teaching features of the language. Following this definition, newspaper articles, novels, TV, soap opera episodes, commercials, and so on are all authentic materials. Geddes and White (1978) distinguish between two types of authentic discourse: "unmodified authentic discourse, which refers to language that occurred originally as a genuine act of communication; and simulated authentic discourse, which refers to language produced for pedagogical purposes, but which exhibits features that have a high probability of occurrence in genuine acts of communication" (p. 137).

As Geddes and White (1978) have suggested, most teachers know that students have difficulties when encountering unmodified authentic speech. For instance, second language learners often experience anxiety when they hear native speakers in conversations, radio broadcasts, movies, or other natural contexts. Similarly second language learners normally attempt to focus their attention on specific single parts of the discourse. This is because they may not be able to successfully attend to everything they hear with equal intensity; students often give up, even when it would have been possible for them to get the point or understand some of the important details. Teachers can help students conquer these problems by using controlled and guided activities for listening such as clue searching (listening for cues to meaning, such as key words, syntactic features, actor/action/object, etc.), distinguishing registers (formal/informal style), recursive listening (multiple sequenced tasks), inferential listening (drawing inferences not presented overtly in the text), and summarizing (native language/target language). Therefore, using authentic materials is an effect way to promote students' listening interest. This will be covered extensively later in this section.

A good way to incorporate simulated authentic discourse into the classroom is through the use of semi-scripted materials (Geddes & White, 1978). A semi-script is a set of notes or a simple outline that is provided to native speakers for the purpose of creating a monologue or conversation that sounds authentic. The notes might include specific vocabulary or structures that should be involved in the speech sample, or simply indicate the general ideas to be mentioned or discussed. The discourse that is created from the semi-script can be recorded on audio or videotape for use in the ESL/EFL listening classroom (Hadley, 1993).

The following example (see Figure 2.2.) is the plan for a semi-script for a videotaped conversation in French. It is followed by the English translation of an actual unrehearsed dialogue that resulted.

This dialogue was transcribed from the sound track and is totally unedited, which gives it an authentic flavor. Simulated authentic exchanges like this provide useful activities for ESL/EFL classroom listening.

Other authentic listening materials that contribute to the acquisition of language are "teacher talk" or "caretaker speech" (Krashen, Terrell, Ehrman, & Herzog, 1984). This type of speech tends to contain a simplified code, characterized by slower rate,

The text: The phone conversation between a student and a landlord about an apartment listed in the classified advertising section of the paper.
The caller's task: 1. Make a telephone call to Madame Riviere (42.57.18.80 in Paris) to inquire about a want ad for a student room. 2. Ask for particulars: location, amenities, etc. 3. Make an appointment to see the apartment.
The landlady's facts: 1. Small apartment with a kitchenette and shower, not far from the metro station Saint-Maur. 2. Third floor, phone in the corridor. 3. Free to show apartment tomorrow afternoon, about 2:30.
Landlady: Hello? Student: Hello. Is this 42-57-18-80 in Paris? Landlady: Yes, certainly. Student: I'd like to speak to Madame Riviere. Landlady: Yes, this is she. Student: Madame Riviere, I'm calling in reference to the ad in the paper. Landlady: Oh, yes?

Figure 2.2. A Semi-scripted Conversation (Hadley, 1993, pp. 177-178)

Student: Uh, you have a student room, don't you?

Landlady: Yes, it's a student room, uh-huh.

Student: Could I have some information about it?

Landlady: Well, uh, it's a single room. You have a little kitchenette and a shower.

Student: Oh, is it far from Latin Quarter?

Landlady: Oh, a half hour by metro, or thereabout.

Student: Uh huh, which metro stop is it?

Landlady: The Saint-Maur stop.

Student: Oh, yes, I know where that is. Uh, is it on an upper floor?

Landlady: Yes, it is on the third floor.

Student: No elevator, of course.

Landlady: Oh, no.

Student: Oh, that's too bad. Is there a phone?

Landlady: Uh, not in the room. Uh, if you want to use the phone, then you'd use the one in the hallway.

Student: Oh, that's inconvenient...

Landlady: Oh, it's no trouble. It's right close to your room. It's not a bother and there aren't a lot of tenants.

Student: All right, so could I come to see the room?

Figure 2.2. A Semi-scripted Conversation (con't.) (Hadley, 1993, pp. 177-178)

Landlady: Yes, certainly, when you like.

Student: I'm usually free in the afternoon.

Landlady: Good, well, that'll be good because I'm not free in

the morning, and so…you were thinking of coming tomorrow?

Student: Yes, tomorrow afternoon, if that's OK.

Landlady: Good, because, wait…tomorrow, uh, I have someone

coming for lunch, so…about 2:30?

Student: Yes, about 2:30, that's good.

Landlady: Good, that's perfect. Could I have your name?

Student: Yes, it's Mademoiselle Francoise Coulont.

Landlady: Fine, Mademoiselle, well, I'll look for you tomorrow,

then.

Student: OK.

Landlady: Goodbye.

Student: Goodbye. I'll see you tomorrow.

Source: The Random House/University of Illinois Video Program

in French 1986, pp. 105-106.

Figure 2.2. A Semi-scripted Conversation (con't.) (Hadley, 1993,
pp. 177-178)

more frequent use of known vocabulary items, attempts to ensure

comprehension through restatements, and nonverbal aids to

understanding. Hadley (1993) notes, "teacher talk" can sound

42

fairly authentic because it is usually not planned or scripted.
To a certain extent, it flows naturally as the teacher expands
a given topic or theme and often includes interactive exchanges;
it has the flavor of a real conversation when not contrived or
overly structured. He also points out that "teacher talk"
might consist of the recounting of personal anecdotes that relate
to the instructors' own experiences in the target culture.
Native speakers can also provide comprehensible input,
especially if they are aware of the level of listening ability
of the students. Students might be asked to prepare questions
in advance of the visit and have some control over the
conversational themes.

"Teacher talk" can sound authentic because it provides a
natural speech that helps students to become accustomed to real
life. This natural speech, as Duzer (1997) states, "reflects
real discourse, including hesitations, rephrasing, and a
variety of accents" (p. 5). Authentic listening materials
should offer examples of the repairs, false starts, filled and
empty pause, etc., which characterize natural speech. With this
in mind, the teacher might wish to introduce pieces of authentic
listening at any early stage of learning, along with scripted
texts, and to help students become familiar with the real
cadences of the target language.

What are Authentic Listening Activities?

The need for, and usefulness of, authentic listening materials has become more and more apparent in the ESL/EFL listening classroom. According to Porter and Roberts (1981), there is much involved in authentic listening, particularly regarding the type of activities, the kind of process to which the listener submits the language he/she hears, and the physical results of these processes. They also point out, "as an illustration, consider the times when you are listening during the course of your normal day. Consider what is going on in your head as you listen (process) and how this is exhibited in external behavior (output)" (p. 39). As Porter and Roberts (1981) point out, if the learner is to achieve any degree of real proficiency in language use—as opposed to a rather abstract proficiency, which operates only under the strictly controlled—then he/she must be given the chance to listen in authentic ways. The following table (see Table 2.2.) contains some authentic listening activities samples from a normal day. This brief list of listening activities, processes, and outputs suggests that there is a wealth of ways of listening.

Table 2.2. Samples of Authentic Listening Activities (from Porter & Roberts, 1981, pp. 40)

Activity	Process	Output
Listening to the radio	1. Superficial listening with little awareness of content; "In one ear and out of the other" 2. Evaluating listening and scanning for topics of interest to self or companion; this involves matching topics against one's own and/or companion's interests, and making mental notes 3. Focused listening for specific information, e.g. about the day's weather	1. Zero 2. Summarizing and later retelling to companion 3. Selecting of appropriate activities for a day
Listening in face-to-face conversational interaction	1. Evaluation, mental commentary, and development of a line of thought 2. Listening for conversational signals indicating the possibility of starting one's own turn 3. Affective listening, e.g. not to what the speakers is saying but to how he/she is saying it	1. Oral response 2. Taking a turn at the appropriate moment 3. Response to affective signals

Table 2.2. Samples of Authentic Listening Activities (from
Porter & Roberts, 1981, pp. 40) (con't.)

Activity	Process	Output
Listening in face-to-face conversational interaction	4. Listening for feedback; the speaker monitors his/her own success in getting a message across	4. Appropriate repetition of utterance content
Listening to greeting	Confirming acceptance by other members of one's social group	Responding in kind
Listening to administrative requirements	Determining necessary action	Performing some physical activities
Listening to the telephone	Determining necessary action. But the absence of visual reinforcement places particular emphasis on listening for feedback	Making a consider oral response, telephone someone and impart information
Watching T.V., seeing a film at the cinema, etc.	Following plot – development, logical argument, etc., with reference to visible speakers	1. Laughing at the right moment 2. Later discuss the plot, acting 3. Retelling
Listening to recordings of songs	1. In one ear and out of the other. 2. Try to catch the words. 3. Picking up the chorus and tune	Singing along

Using Authentic Materials to Promote Students'
   Interest

        According to Rodrigues and White (1993), effective

language teaching should be based on helping students learn the

language that they need in order to function successfully in

everyday situations or in future settings. To this end,

involving students in learning and motivating them to learn are

very important elements to the success of language teaching.

By using authentic materials, students will be involved and

motivated to learn in that they can apply what they have learned

from the class to real life. Consequently, in the curriculum

design for the ESL/EFL listening classroom, the radio provides

a wide range of different types of material that can be

selectively exploited as part of a listening comprehension

program. The most obvious and commonly used are news broadcasts

(Zhu, 1984), but many others are potentially useful. Morrison

(1989) points out that there are some advantages and

disadvantages of using radio broadcasts. The advantages of

using radio broadcasts for authentic listening are as follows:

Although they provide authentic material designed for native

speakers, the topics are often of international relevance. They

provide an opportunity for the selection of content that is both

interesting and motivating for the student. They are "current,"

involving the use of English to communicate something "real" and not texts which have little relevance to the student at that particular time. They present many different possibilities for exploitation, and are therefore very flexible. On the other hand, there are some disadvantages to using radio broadcasts. Reception in some areas at particular times can be difficult. There is no teacher's guide, and preparation can be time-consuming. With the exception of discussion programmers, the language used tends to differ in some ways from typical conversational English, because it is often written language read aloud. Also, of course, radio broadcasts are non-interactional: the listener is not required to make any overt response (pp. 14-15).

Even though there are some disadvantages to using radio broadcasts, they are invaluable in teaching situations where there is limited or no access to native-speaker discourse. They are also useful for self-access study outside class time and provide an effective method to promote students' interests in listening comprehension.

Other than radio broadcasts, the Internet offers a number of free, authentic listening resources that are particularly appropriate as input for intermediate to advanced learners. Obtaining authentic listening materials from the Internet is

48

very popular in these years. Not only is it convenient, but it also certainly promotes students' interest. For example, at MTV Online (http://www.mtv.com/), students may listen to short audio files including excerpts from the recordings of performance artists. News sites on the Internet sponsored by radio stations, television networks, and newspaper and magazine publishers, including Voice of America's home page (http://www.voa.gov/), CNN Interactive (http://www.cnn.com) and USA Today (http://www.usatoday.com/) provide short videos, audio files, or photos accompanied by sound bites from speeches (Hanson-Smith, 1999). These resources may be adapted to use with other language activities such as note-taking or research. Thus, the importance of the choice of materials cannot be neglected because it has a great influence on both teachers' teaching methods and students' learning interest. If the materials are fitted for students, they may be more successful for language learning.

Strategies for Language Learning

and Listening Comprehension

The task of the language teacher is to teach learners how to listen by using strategies that will lead to better composition, instead of only giving learners an opportunity to

listen (Mendelsohn, 1995). Oxford (1990) points out that appropriate strategies that encourage independent learning should be developed in the classroom. If strategies can be learned, learners are able to keep on learning independently and effectively even when learners are not taking language courses. Rubin (1990) notes that "use of listening strategies can help students work with more difficult materials" (p. 315). Obviously, strategy has become one of the most important skills in both language learning and listening comprehension.

What are Language Learning Strategies?

Language learning strategies are specific actions or techniques that learners intentionally use to improve their processes in developing second language skills (Oxford, 1990). According to Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983), "a strategy is the idea of an agent about the best way to act in order to reach a goal" (p. 64). They continue, "a strategy is a global representation of the means of reaching a goal" (p. 65). Skehan (1989) focused on language learning strategies as one of the most important individual difference factors in second language acquisition. That is, learning strategies can have an effect on learners' success or failure.

Learning strategy use is a cognitive approach to teaching that helps learners gain knowledge of conscious processes and

techniques that facilitate the comprehension, acquisition, and retention of new skills and ideas. The use of learning strategies in second language is based on four main propositions (Chipman, Sigel & Glaser, 1985). The first proposition is that mentally active learners are better learners because of their ability to organize new information and consciously relate it to existing knowledge. The second proposition is that strategies can be taught, which provides students with sufficient practice enabling them to learn more effectively than students without experiences with learning strategies. The third proposition is that learning strategies transfer to new tasks when students become accustomed to using them with activities with which they were initially trained. The final proposition is that academic language learning is more effective with learning strategies when language learning among students of English as a second language is provided the same principles that govern reading and problem solving among native English speakers.

Whereas research evidence supports the first two propositions, the transfer of strategies to new learning requires extensive instructional support (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987). The final proposition is similar to strategies for learning content and is the effects of learning strategy

51

instruction on integrative language tasks among ESL learners. Studies in learning strategy applications indicate that students taught to use new strategies can become more effective learners. In an experimental study, second language learners were taught to use learning strategies for vocabulary, listening comprehension, and formal speaking tasks using academic content (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, & Kupper, 1985). The results showed that learning strategy instruction was most effective for the more integrative language tasks that involved the use of academic language skills to comprehend or create extended text.

In addition, Chamot (1990) states that learning strategies are important tools in teaching a foreign language for the following reasons: mentally active learners understand and remember the material better, proficient strategy users learn faster, learning strategies users are more motivated because they have control their own learning, strategies used in one language learning context can be applied in many other language learning contexts, effective strategies can be taught to non-strategy using students, and strategy-using students can even learn new strategies with the old. Therefore, strategies provide not only precise directions for language learners, but

also make their learning more effective than those learners who are not able to use strategies.

Types of Learning Strategies

Research and theory in second language learning indicates that good language learners use various learning strategies to aid them in gaining command over new language skills. According to Chamot and O'Malley (1990), learning strategies can be classified into three types. The first type of strategy is the metacognitive strategy, which involves "executive processes in planning for learning, monitoring one's comprehension and production, and evaluating how well one has achieved a learning objective" (Chamot & O'Malley, 1990, p. 197). This type of strategy includes advance organization, organizational planning, selective attention, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation. These definitions are listed in Table 2.3.

The second type of strategy is the cognitive strategy, in which "the learner interacts with the material to be learned by manipulating it mentally (as in marking mental images, or elaborating on previously acquired concepts or skills) or physically (as in grouping items to be learned in meaningful categories, or taking notes on important information to be remember)" (Chamot & O'Malley, 1990, p. 197). This type of strategy includes resourcing, grouping, note taking,

summarizing, deduction/induction, imagery, auditory

representation, elaboration, transfer, and inferencing. These

definitions are listed in Table 2.3.

The third type of strategy is the social-affective strategy,

in which "the learner either interacts with another person in

order to assist learning, as in cooperation or asking questions

for clarification, or use some kind of affective control to

assist a learning task" (Chamot & O'Malley, 1990, p. 197). This

type of strategy contains questioning for clarification,

cooperation, and self-talk. These definitions are listed in

Table 2.3.

Some of the strategies mentioned above can help in

developing motivation. For instance, self-evaluation is an

important element to increase motivation. This is because

students learn to attribute their level of achievement to their

own efforts instead of to an unchangeable innate ability.

Self-management strategy is a strategy that helps students to

set goals and arrange the situation so that they are aided to

learn. These strategies not only help students to learn or

evaluate themselves, but also provide teachers lots of choices

to select the strategies to teach.

Table 2.3. Learning Strategy Definitions (Chamot & O'Malley, 1990, pp. 198-199)

Strategy type	Learning strategies	Definition
Metacognitive strategies	Advance organization	Previewing the main ideas and concepts of the material to be learned, often by skimming the text for the organizing principle.
	Organizational planning	Planning the parts, sequence, main ideas, or language functions to be expressed orally or in writing.
	Selective attention	Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of input, often by scanning for key words, concepts, and/or linguistic markers.
	Self-monitoring	Checking one's comprehension during listening or reading or checking the accuracy and/or appropriateness of one's oral or written production while it is taking place.
	Self-evaluation	Judging how well one has accomplished a learning activity after it has been completed.

Table 2.3. Learning Strategy Definitions (Chaomt & O'Malley, 1990, pp. 198-199) (con't.)

Strategy type	Learning strategies	Definition
Metacognitive strategies	Self-management	Seeking or arranging the conditions that help one learn, such as finding opportunities for additional language or content input and practice.
Cognitive strategies	Resourcing	Using target language reference materials such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, or textbooks.
	Grouping	Classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their attributes.
	Note taking	Writing down key words and concepts in abbreviated verbal, graphic, or numerical form during a listening or reading activity.
	Summarizing	Making a mental, oral, or written summary of information gained through listening or reading.
	Deduction/ induction	Applying rules to understand or produce the second language or making up rules based on language analysis.

Table 2.3. Learning Strategy Definitions (Chamot & O'Malley, 1990, pp. 198-199) (con't.)

Strategy type	Learning strategies	Definition
Cognitive strategies	Imagery	Using visual images (either mental or actual) to understand and remember new information.
	Auditory representation	Playing back in one's mind the sound of a word, phrase, or longer language sequence.
	Elaboration	Relating new information to prior knowledge, relating different parts of new information to each other or making meaningful personal associations with the new information.
	Transfer	Using previous linguistic knowledge or prior skills to assist comprehension or production.
	Inferencing	Using information in an oral or written text to guess meanings, predict outcomes, or complete missing parts.
Social/affective strategies	Questioning for clarification	Eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanation, rephrasing, examples, or verification.

Table 2.3. Learning Strategy Definitions (Chamot & O'Malley, 1990, pp. 198-199) (con't.)

Strategy type	Learning strategies	Definition
Social/affective strategies	Cooperation	Working together with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check a learning task, model a language activity, or get feedback on oral or written performance.
	Self-talk	Reducing anxiety by using mental techniques that make one feel competence to do the learning task.

Teaching Learning Strategies

Teaching learning strategies is a very important part of teaching students how to listen (Chamot, 1995; Mendelsohn, 1994; 1995). Mendelsohn (1994) talks of a "strategy-based approach" to the teaching of listening. In this approach, strategy instruction becomes the core of the listening program and the organizing framework around which the course should be designed.

A listening-based strategy is a methodology that is rooted in general strategy instruction. The objective is to teach students how to listen. First of all, this is done by making

learners aware of how the language functions. Secondly, by making them aware of the strategies that they use—i.e., developing "metastrategic awareness." Finally, the task of the teacher becomes instruction of the learners in the use of additional strategies that will assist them in tackling the listening task (Mendelsohn, 1995).

As a matter of fact, this approach becomes the design around which the listening courses are based, each of the strategy-instruction units focusing on one or a cluster of associated strategies. These units should contain strategies in order to identify the major meaning of an utterance and strategies to determine setting, interpersonal relationships, topics, and mood (Mendelsohn, 1998).

Mendelsohn (1995) offers the following principles for the structure of a unit in a strategy-based listening course. Firstly, in order to attend to awareness and consciousness-raising, the teacher and students alike need to be aware of the power and value of strategies. Secondly, learners can use pre-listening activities. This component activates existing background knowledge. Third, learners can focus their listening. This component ensures that students know what they are going to be listening to and why—what it is that they should be listening for (one detail, the gist, etc.).

Buck (1995) calls this "communicative intent." Fourth,

teachers can provide guided activities. Fifth, learners can

practice with real data. Students, having been trained in

strategy use and convinced of its value, need a lot of practice

while listening to real authentic data. Care must be taken not

to fall into the trap of becoming so engrossed in the strategy

instruction—that is, learning how to listen—that actual

practice in listening is neglected. Finally, students need to

use what has been comprehended. This component involves making

use of what has been heard: using notes from a talk, filling

in a form, etc. (p. 139-140).

Effective teacher strategies in teaching listening, as

well as teaching learners to form their own strategies, are

effective methods for not only teaching listening skills, but

also comprehension. Learners can use strategies which work

effectively for themselves, and as a result, develop good

listening and comprehension skills.

Another effective method of teaching listening

strategies is through direct instruction (Wilt, 1950; Stauffer,

1969; Stanchfield, 1991). Direct instruction has been defined

as active teaching where "the teacher sets and articulates the

learning goals, actively assesses student progress, and

frequently makes class presentations" (Blanton, Moorman & Wood,

1986, p. 300). The teacher is viewed as a facilitator, guiding the students through the processes of generating background knowledge, setting purposes, and generating questions.

There are many models of direct instruction. Stauffer's (1969) Directed Reading-Thinking Activity (DR-TA) provides the necessary concept building activities and purpose-setting statements, guided instructions, and extension activities. According to Spiegel (1991), the DR-TA not only provides structure, but also allows for adaptability and flexibility depending on the strategy being taught and focus of the instruction whether it is reading or listening.

As indicated above, the DR-TA is readily adaptable to other fields, such as listening. Strickland and Morrow (1989) sketch the Directed Listening-Thinking Activity (DL-TA) based on Stauffer's model. The first step in the DL-TA is preparing the students for listening. This involves activating the students' background knowledge through questions, discussion, and predictions. As Baumann and Schmitt (1986) note that comprehension is facilitated if students use what they already know about a topic. This step offers students opportunity to make predictions about motivations and formulate questions that need to be answered during the course of the listening.

The second step in the DL-TA is guided listening. The listening segments should be short, and students should be given opportunity to discuss their predictions. Researchers in the field of reading and listening encourage the use of metacognition when it relates to reading or listening comprehension. Students need to "think out loud" to better understand comprehension in the critical thinking processes. They also benefit from listening to other students explain how they developed their predictions and why or why not they were confirmed (Harp, 1988). This metacognition process keeps students actively involved in the listening, develops listening comprehension, and strengthens the development communicative competence.

The final step in the DL-TA is the discussion which follows the listening activity, guided by the purpose for the listening. The use of open-ended questions continues the process of critical thinking. The students earlier identified their predictions, gathered information, and confirmed or altered their predictions (Haggard, 1988). The process of creating questions for the total selection allows students to draw final conclusions.

In order to ensure that the strategy was successfully taught and initial transfer into other activities and curricular field,

meaningful extension activities need to follow the listening

lesson. Follow-up activities have to extend into other field

the students' responses to the text and the strategies used.

These activities determine whether students will be able to use

the strategy with a different subject or in a different setting.

Extension activities need to be meaningful additions to the

listening experience in an alternate setting (Haggard, 1988).

As Spiegel (1991) states these activities also assess whether

the strategy was successfully taught; if it was not successfully

taught, transfer will not occur.

Another model of direct listening instruction is the

Structured Listening Activity (SLA)(Choate & Rakes, 1987). The

SLA can be applied to teach concepts and comprehension

skills and to expand learners' experiences and vocabulary

(Tierney, Readance, & Dishner, 1990). In the SLA model, a lesson

can be taught by five task chains: concept-building, listening

purpose, reading aloud, questioning, and recitation. Like the

LRTL, the SLA is skill-specific and teacher controlled and does

not promote the development of the learners' independent

comprehension abilities. Choate and Rackes (1987) acknowledge

that much research is needed to validate the use of the SLA model

as a method of improving listening and reading comprehension.

Direct instruction strategy is critical for listening comprehension to occur. In direct instruction, the teacher sets and articulates goals and is viewed as a facilitator who guides the process of generating background. Comprehension is facilitated when students use what they already know about the topic. Thinking out loud generates understanding of the comprehension processes. Children benefit from listening to other children explain how they formulate their predictions, and why or why not they are confirmed. Allowing children to make predictions based on prior knowledge is setting the stage for them to be successful.

Applying Strategies Selectively During the Listening
    Process

Willing (1987) states that "learning strategies for listening comprehension involve a series of mental procedures, processing, associating, and categorizing" (p. 7). Because the range of listening strategies is comparatively wide, many researchers have begun to investigate what kind of strategies can promote successful listening comprehension. For example, O'Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989) define listening comprehension relating to strategies:

    Listening comprehension is an active and conscious

    process in which the listener constructs meaning by using

cues from contextual information and from existing knowledge, while relying upon multiple strategic resources to fulfill the task requirements.(p. 434)

According to Willing (1987), strategies relating to listening comprehension are selectively attending, associating, recognizing patterns, analyzing, categorizing, and inferencing. Selectively attending requires focus on the main points instead of the whole context, resulting in a reduction of information overload. Associating refers to keeping items that share some features together. This process of associating relates directly to the notion of activating prior knowledge while listening. Recognizing patterns involves recognizing, matching and reproducing patterns in order to maintain control of the input. By recognizing patterns when listening, learners are able to guess meaning. Analyzing refers to extracting particular features from a given context. Learners can recognize a particular part of the pattern that can be moved or manipulated through categorizing or inferencing. Categorizing is based on analyzing. The extracted features are used to form concepts and groups. Inferencing refers to discovering a solution by deriving a form of what is already known. It involves comprehension of the meaning of the discourse and brings together different parts of new and prior

knowledge. It enables learners to understand what is inferred.

These strategies mentioned above offer ESL/EFL learners selection of the most effective ways to learn to listen to a foreign or second language. In addition, if these learning strategies can also be incorporated with authentic materials, it will be easier for learners to improve their listening comprehension.

Technology and Language Learning

The impact of technology on society and on individual lives has recently radically increased. The computer is "already part of everyday reality and will become increasingly so with the accelerating pace of current technological developments" (Brown & Palmer, 1988, p. 86). There are many advantages to using computers, such as to gather information, organize files, and communicate through the Internet and e-mail. These advantages need to be utilized in pedagogy. Dunkel (1991a) predicated that computer use in the second language curriculum would undoubtedly flourish in the 1990s when teachers develop computer skills and a greater understanding of the machine--when they discover uses of the medium they could not have envisioned in their early encounters with the computer. This prediction seems to have been accurate.

66

With the widespread use of computer, lots of software and hardware are designed for language teaching or learning. This means language learning is no longer limited in the classroom. Language learning methods have become much more diversified. What are Computer-based Instruction (CBI),
    Computer-assisted Instruction (CAI),
    Computer-managed Instruction (CMI), and
    Computer-assisted Language Learning (CALL)?

There are a variety of ways to use computers for English language teaching, such as computer-based instruction (CBI), computer-assisted instruction (CAI), computer-managed instruction (CMI), and computer-assisted language learning (CALL). Each of these will be defined in turn.

CBI is a general term that refers to "the larger context of instruction that goes on around us every day at school, in industrial and commercial training, and in the workplace." (Gibbons & Fairweather, 1998, p. 18). There are several major forms of CBI activity in these areas, such as tutorial instruction, which frequently used during formal training for initial instruction on basic topics, simulation and modeling, which responses to the student provide the tool by which students can integrate skills and knowledge into a mature performance capability, learning coaching and job aiding, which are introduced for use early in formal learning, and they follow

67

the student into the work place, and <u>certification testing</u>, which is an opportunity to improve performance and safety and save money at the same time(Gibbons & Fairweather, 1998). CAI and CMI are two types of instruction under CBI.

CAI, as Borune (1990) suggests, refers to the use of the computer as a teaching tool to help teachers and students to complete instructional goals. According to Chapelle and Jamieson (1986), CAI has evolved three distinguishable instructional functions: individualization, record keeping, and answer judging. First of all, individualization refers to the fact that the computer enables students to work alone and at their own pace. It also allows the teacher to meet the needs of academically high-performing students by providing them with advanced materials. Secondly, record keeping is beneficial for providing the student or teacher with a profile of the students' mastery of material (Marty, 1982). Moreover, another benefit of record keeping is in the field of research. The final advantage of CAI is answer judging. This occurs after students answer a question posed by the computer; the computer informs them whether the answer is right or wrong. Moreover, if the answer is wrong, the program provides student with a meaningful explanation as to why the answer is wrong (Marty & Meyers, 1975).

CMI, according to Bozeman & Baumbach (1995), refers to using computer technology "to manage information about learner performance and learning resource options in order to prescribe and control individualized lessons" (p. 26). The teacher can use CMI either to organize students' data or evaluate students' performance and keep track of their progress. In so doing, the teacher can guide students to the appropriate learning source (Cotton & Wikelund, 1997).

CALL is a more specific term that concerns "the use of computer to assist in foreign or second language (L2) instructional activities" (Dunkel, 1991b, p. 28). CALL is CAI applied to second language learning and acquisition. CALL is used for a variety of pedagogical objectives by means of many different types of software such as micro worlds (Coleman, 1985; Papert, 1980); grammar checkers (Hull, Ball, Fox, Levin & McCutchen, 1987); pronunciation feedback systems (Anderson-Hseih, 1990); intelligent tutoring systems (Chanier, Pengelly, Twidale, & Self, 1992); word processing (Pennington, 1993); and software for computer-mediated communication (Kaye, 1992). These diverse approaches to CALL are predicated on different beliefs about teaching and learning (Higgins, 1995).

Wyatt (1987) defines CALL programs by describing their

general functions and contents as presented in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4. Functions and Contents of Computer-assisted Language
Learning (CALL) Program (from Wyatt, 1987, pp. 87-88)

Functions	Contents
Tutorials	Introduce new material (e.g., the Cyrillic alphabet in beginning Russian)
Drill-and-practice programs	Target mastery of material already presented (e.g., grammatical forms; vocabulary)
Games	Add elements of peer competition, scoring, and timing to a wide variety of practice activities
Holistic practice	Provides higher-level, conceptualized practice activities (e.g., cloze passages)
Modeling	Demonstrates how to perform a language task (e.g., how a good reader handles difficult sections of a reading passage)
Discovery	Provides situations in which linguistic generalizations can be made (e.g., inferring rules for generating comparative forms)
Simulations	Allow students to experiment with language use (e.g., levels of formality in a conversational simulator)
Adventure readings	Offer "participatory" reading materials (e.g., students as detectives explore murder location, gather clues)

Table 2.4. Functions and Contents of Computer-assisted Language
Learning (CALL) Program (from Wyatt, 1987, pp. 87-88)(con't.)

Functions	Contents
Annotations	Provide a wide range of language "notes" (e.g., vocabulary, syntax, plot) available on demand during reading or listening activities
Idea processors	Plan and edit outlines (e.g., before writing activities, after listening to lectures)
Word processors	Create and edit written assignments
On-line thesauruses	Expand vocabulary, improve writing style
Spelling checkers	Correct spelling errors during or after writing activities

Teaching Listening with Hardware and Software

Computer and videocassette recorders (VCR) are two common

technologies in language education. In fact, these constitute

the basic equipment of numerous technological approaches to

language instruction. In addition, closed-captioned video and

optical-disc technology are increasingly available and

popular in education settings, especially in the ESL/EFL

classroom. Additional technology includes compact disc

read-only memory (CD-ROM) for the microcomputer, interactive

videodisc systems that combine the microcomputer with pictures,

and a variety of software program (Healey & Johnson, 1991).

For the most part, the VCR is used for prerecorded materials. Teachers record authentic video and television programs on their home VCRs, such as feature films, documentaries, sitcoms, and news programs, and create their own instructional materials for the ESL/EFL classroom (Forrest, 1993). This not only provides real-world material for students, but also promotes their interest to learn.

Videodiscs (interactive video) combine the interactive nature of computer with the motion picture capabilities of video (Chung, 1985). Moving pictures, still pictures, and sound are stored on discs that are accessed by videodisc players or computers. This is a truly multifaceted approach because learners can extrapolate linguist information from context, nonverbal cues, and reading, as well as sound (Forrest, 1993).

CD-ROM is possibly the best software for language learning. Many CD-ROM programs are desirable for ESL/EFL learners. They include various content, such as programs for beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels. CD-ROM systems can store hundreds of thousands of pages of text and are particularly useful in education for keeping large data bases, particularly in school libraries (Forrest, 1993). Consequently, CD-ROM may become an important research tool for learners to access and use.

Wrigley (1993) notes that today's computers and video technologies hold a great deal of promise in supporting second language learning and literacy development. Many language educators maintain a critical stance when told that computer-based technology will revolutionize language learning. They attempt to keep an open mind when it comes to the possible use of technology in the ESL/EFL classroom. He suggests that there are four distinct ways of linking language and literacy with technology. The first is helping learners to access technology. Although many educational software programs are designed for ESL/ESF students, teachers still see the need to help their students access and use computers. They want their students to be comfortable with computers, gain familiarity with the keyboard or with a mouse, and learn how to use various types of software.

The second is using technology to facilitate literacy tasks. Many ESL/EFL literacy teachers use computers to demonstrate how technology can make complex literacy tasks easier.

The third is using video to provide a visual context. ESL/EFL teachers may present videotapes of the evening news as a springboard for discussing social and political issues or using videotape conversations and social interaction. Many teachers

ask students to work together in pairs or groups and make decisions about how best to use the technology available to them.

The final way is using computer to teach language and literacy. This approach holds some promise for learners who are motivated to use technology on their own and are eager to work with computer.

CDication (Herren, 1995) is software that aids teachers create dictations with audio CDs. Language learners who like music and whose listening skills need improvement often get quite excited about using class time for such an enjoyable activity. The teacher sets up one or more tracks on an audio CD by marking logical breaks and typing in the lyrics that go along with those tracks. Students can bring in CDs and lyrics for songs they want to practice with, and can either set up an exercise themselves or ask the teacher to do it for them. A large amount of focused listening goes on when learners are motivated to understand.

Hanson–Smith (1999) note that songs are not the only incentive for focused listening. Unlike many listening practice programs, HyperACE Advanced (1996) demands some thought on the part of the learner. Students are expected to recall information given orally and to manipulate that information in some way in order to select the correct answer.

The situations and questions are similar to those that students meet in academic classes. When learners recognize them as such, this type of practice becomes an authentic activity.

Project Connect has developed a different approach to using technology to enhance listening and note-taking skills. This grant-funded project uses Aspects (1994), a collaborative writing software program, to help learners see how to take notes from a lecture. Students with weak listening and note-taking skills are paired with skilled note-takers in a lecture. The weaker students can see the note-taker's computer screen on their own computer and watch as that person takes notes during the lecture. They can begin to take their own notes, ask questions in the question window, or show the note-taker their own notes as the lecture continues. This software helps learners understand the thought process that goes on while skilled note-takers listen to a lecture. At the same time, by watching what learners do when they take lecture notes, teachers learn about students' weaknesses in listening comprehension and can plan accordingly. Unlike most of the other approaches and software mentioned above, this software creates a truly interactive listening environment (Hanson-Smith, 1999).

Technology plays an important role in language learning, especially listening. CALL applications stimulate and reflect

cognitive processes to facilitate language learning.

The use of multimedia technology to facilitate effective

listening skills has better results than traditional tools. It

applies other language learning as well.

The Internet Assists in the Teaching of Listening

According to Hanson-Smith (1999), one of the

most authentic computer-aided tasks for listening skills comes

from the Internet. For example, Voice of America

(http://www.voa.gov/) allows users to hear its broadcasts on

the Internet using RealPlayer (1998)or add-on software to Web

browsers like Netscape Navigator (1997) and Microsoft

Internet Explorer (1998). Other sites on the Internet also

provide RealPlayer files including information in spoken form.

The teacher can ask students to listen to news, tell their

classmates what they heard, and perhaps discuss some of the

stories. Learners can also search for background information

electronically. The advantage of digitized news over radio or

television news is that listeners can save it (and find it again)

easily for later playback. A variation on this theme is in

LiveChat (1997) with audio, in which learners and speakers are

"on line" simultaneously. Users can ask clarifying questions

with this software even though these are usually typed instead

of spoken.

Listening can have a visual component with digitized video. However, the quality is not as good as that on videotape, and the image size is smaller. Movie sites on the Internet offer an interesting way to use digitized video, as some producers put digitized video clips of previews of their current movies on those sites. Internet Movie Database (http://us.imdb.com/) is a good example. Teachers can ask students to watch a preview, tell the class what they saw, transcribe the dialogue, and watch the full-length movie, looking for the preview clip that they saw. Because the clips are from current movies, the real-world connection is very strong (Hanson-Smith, 1999).

Technology is the state of the art in English language teaching, and well-informed language teachers are seeking to avail themselves of information with respect to instructional possibilities and resource materials in this realm (Forrest, 1993, p. 317). Using technology in language-learning instruction enables teachers to better address students' needs for individualization. Its unique pedagogical value will help students to better relate to life in the Information Age (Bush, 1997). Thus, technology has become a significant partner, whether in daily life or in language learning.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The purpose of this project is to discover appropriate and effective ways to help ESL/EFL learners acquire listening skills using authentic materials, learning strategies, and technology. Also, communicative competence plays an important role in the process of learning listening skills. As previously discussed, listening takes up a large amount of the time spent on communicating and listening comprehension influence on speaking, reading, even writing; for that reason, the eventual goal of this project is to augment ESL/EFL learners' progress in listening comprehension. This chapter presents a synthesis of theories from Chapter Two, and based upon this synthesis, features an instructional model.

The Planning Phase of an English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Listening Class

Listening can be taught in various ways, with many kinds of materials, or even in any places. What is the most effective way to teach listening in an ESL/EFL classroom? Figure 3.1. is a model that shows the process of strategy-based listening. In order to plan an effective listening class, it is necessary

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│          Planning for Effective Listening               │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘

┌──────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────┐
│ Communicative    │  │   Authentic      │  │  Technology &    │
│ Competence:      │  │   Materials:     │  │   Language       │
│ •Definition      │  │ •Definition      │  │   Learning       │
│ •Communicative   │▶ │ •Real-life       │▶ │ •CBI, CAI,       │
│  Approach V.S.   │  │  Activities      │  │  CMI, CALL       │
│  Traditional     │  │ •Promote         │  │ •Software        │
│  Approach        │  │  Students'       │  │ •Hardware        │
│ •CLT             │  │  Interest        │  │ •Internet        │
└──────────────────┘  └──────────────────┘  └──────────────────┘

┌──────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────┐
│ Pre-listening    │  │ While-listening  │  │ Post-listening   │
└──────────────────┘  └──────────────────┘  └──────────────────┘
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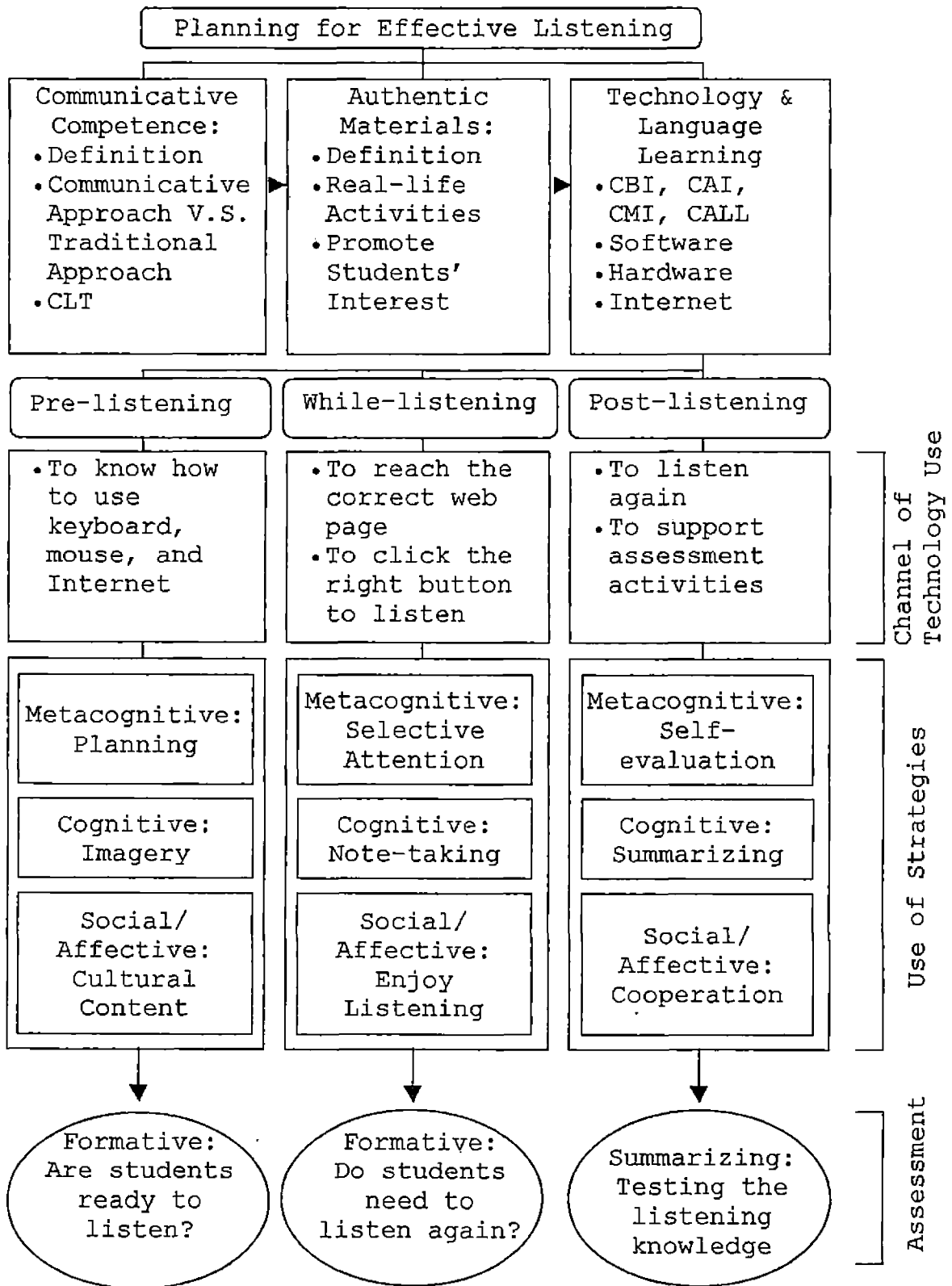| Pre-listening	While-listening	Post-listening	
•To know how to use keyboard, mouse, and Internet	•To reach the correct web page •To click the right button to listen	•To listen again •To support assessment activities	Channel of Technology Use
Metacognitive: Planning	Metacognitive: Selective Attention	Metacognitive: Self-evaluation	Use of Strategies
Cognitive: Imagery	Cognitive: Note-taking	Cognitive: Summarizing	
Social/ Affective: Cultural Content	Social/ Affective: Enjoy Listening	Social/ Affective: Cooperation	
Formative: Are students ready to listen?	Formative: Do students need to listen again?	Summarizing: Testing the listening knowledge	Assessment

Figure 3.1 Strategy-Based Listening Process

79

for the teacher to notice the problems as follows. What is the level of students' communicative competence? Do authentic materials suit for the students? How does technology help the students improve listening comprehension? Figure 3.1 provides several important concepts and processes to plan an effective listening class. This model will be explained below.

Communicative competence concerns both spoken or written language and all four language-learning skills. Unfortunately, English education in Taiwan seems to focus more on grammatical and translation competence than communicative competence and regards speaking ability as the only necessary aspect of communicative competence. Therefore, communicative language teaching (CLT) is possibly a suitable way to solve this problem. Teachers can apply CLT to the curriculum in order to change the emphasis from language knowledge to language use, and enhance students' skills in grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence. This also provides more interaction between teachers and students. Thus, communicative competence becomes the first element that the teacher needs to know before he/she starts to teach.

Compared with general teaching materials for listening, authentic materials are more interesting and exciting for ESL/EFL learners to use. They allow the learners to hear actual

80

communication with all the interactional features that are usually not found in scripted materials. By using authentic materials for listening, ESL/EFL learners can be trained to adopt "real life" situations such as hesitation, false starts and mistakes in communication, so that they are able to deal with real-life speech when encountering situations outside the classroom. Consequently, authentic materials for listening should be extensively employed in class, especially in the ESL/EFL listening classroom.

Recently, there has been a growing interest in the use of computers in language learning and teaching. Using computers can change not only how teachers teach, but also what they can teach and whom they can teach especially in the listening section. As Pennington (1989) suggests, the potential of the computer to make an impact on the skills of speaking and listening is vast. For example, the advantage of using the computer as an aid to developing listening skills is in individualization and feedback. The computer gives instant feedback on the learners' response, keeps score, and offers the opportunity for the learners to hear a relevant item again. In the CALL environment, the computer plays an alternative role in language learning; it provides not only various software programs for ESL/EFL

learners to use, but it is also beneficial for ESL/EFL teachers to use to teach in the listening classroom.

According to Underwood (1989) and Duzer (1997), listening instruction should be divided into three stages: pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening. These stages provide a productive way for teachers to guide ESL/EFL learners in a listening class. In addition, if technology such as the use of computers can be incorporated with each stage, it will be easier for ESL/EFL learners to improve their listening comprehension. Each stage has a relevance and sequence and is described as follows.

Stages for Listening

Pre-Listening Stage

In the pre-listening stage, the main purpose is to have ESL/EFL learners prepare for the task, such as understanding the use of basic computer skills, previewing learning strategies, and activating prior knowledge of the content. That is, EFL/ESL learners should be tuned in so that they know what to expect both in general or particular tasks. Apparently, there is no obvious cut-off point between the pre-listening and the while-listening stages. Pre-listening can consist of a whole range of activities which include the teacher's giving

background information, the students' reading something

relevant, the students' looking at pictures, discussion of the

topic/situation, a question and answer session, and written

exercises. Next, they follow the instruction for the

while-listening activity, and consider how the while-listening

activity will be done. These activities offer ways to focus the

ESL/EFL learners' minds on the topic by narrowing down the things

that the learners anticipate hearing and activate relevant prior

knowledge and language.

Language strategies play an important role in language

learning in that they are means for active, self-directed

involvement, which is necessary for attaining communicative

competence and improving listening comprehension. As a result,

the function of metacognitive strategy like planning arranges

the parts, sequence, or main ideas to be expressed orally.

Cognitive strategy like imagery helps the students to guess what

the content will be. Social/affective strategy like cultural

content presents the social content information. These are

strategies that apply in this stage.

While-Listening Stage

In the while-listening stage, as far as listening

comprehension is concerned, the primary purpose is to help

ESL/EFL learners develop the skill of obtaining messages from

spoken language and to learn how to correctly utilize the

computer. The while-listening stage should be interesting so that ESL/EFL learners feel they want to listen and carry out the activities.

Using metacognitive strategy like selective attention decides in advance to specific aspects of input. Using cognitive strategy like note taking, the student writes down key words and concepts in abbreviated form during a listening activity. Using a social/affective strategy like enjoying listening can enhance the outcomes.

Post-Listening Stage

In the post-listening stage, post-listening activities comprise all tasks relating to a particular listening text which are done after the listening is completed. Also, post-listening activities can be much longer than those of the pre-listening and the while-listening stages because ESL/EFL learners need time to think, to discuss, and to write at this stage. The teacher can use the computer to support assessment activities.

The use of a metacognitive strategy like self-evaluation can help students judge how well they have accomplished a listening class. Using a cognitive strategy like summarizing helps students make a mental or oral summary of information gained through listening. Using a social/affective strategy like cooperation helps students to work together with peers in

order to solve problems, check a learning task, or get feedback on oral or written presentation.

The three stages of pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening can provide teachers with opportunities to teach ESL/EFL learners effective listening skills, as well as to provide strategies which allow them to plan focus attention, and evaluate their own listening skills.

To sum up, Figure 3.1. incorporates concepts such as communicative competence, authentic materials, learning strategies, and technology in order to demonstrate how ESL/EFL learners can develop better listening ability. This model also provides ways for teachers to use listening processes to improve listening comprehension in the classroom.

CHAPTER FOUR

DESIGN OF CURRICULUM

This project is based on four concepts discussed in Chapter
Three: the role of communicative competence in listening;
authentic materials for listening; the importance of learning
strategies in listening comprehension; and the effects of
technology in language learning. Together these concepts
support the proposed improvement of the process of listening
comprehension. Students at junior high school, who have studied
English at least three years and have achieved the
pre-intermediate level of proficiency, are the target
population of this project.

Teaching from the Instruction Model

The purpose of this project is to promote ESL/EFL learners'
listening comprehension and foster successful and independent
learning. The application of strategies helps learners in a
variety of ways. Each lesson contains new strategies or/and
review strategies for learners to apply to listening
comprehension. Before, during, and after listening tasks,
ESL/EFL learners can use strategies that they feel are suitable.
Also, when a teaching strategy is not working or the material
is too hard, effective learning strategies become the most

helpful tool for learners to break through the bottleneck. Likewise, learning strategies can apply to developing communicative competence and advancing the application of computer technology to language learning.

The goal of communicative competence is to help learners not only to know the grammatical rules of language, but also to know what to say, to whom, and in what situations. Communicative competence includes knowledge and skills which enable people to communicate interactively and functionally. The methods of CLT have communicative competence as a goal.

Authentic materials provide actual situations rather than formulaic conversation as the goal of a listening task. That is, authentic materials include different cultural contents and all kinds of things that can happen in daily life, allowing learners to succeed because they can relate to experiences which happen everyday.

The use of the computer is essential for both teacher and ESL/EFL learners in a listening classroom. Of course, hardware and software programs play vital parts to keep teachers and learners reach learning goals. Training learners to be familiar with computer skills is a requirement in order for them to take advantage of computer technology. The computer offers

unlimited opportunities, affording learners repeated practice,
which leads to success.

The Content of the Curriculum

The topics of the curriculum focus on the enjoyment of
American holidays. The curriculum contains five lessons. Each
lesson incorporates strategies in the pre-listening,
while-listening, and post-listening stages. In addition, in
the post-listening stage, learners have opportunities to
discuss and share the ideas that they gain from the
while-listening stage to enhance their communicative
competence.

The Procedure of the Curriculum

Each lesson includes objectives, strategies, materials,
vocabulary, warm-up, and three task chains which represent the
pre-listening, the while-listening, and the post-listening
stages. In the warm-up section, the teacher elicits students'
interest and background, and presents background information.
Then the teacher asks some questions relating to the lesson in
order to stimulate students' imagery. This helps both the
teacher and students to have more interaction.

In the pre-listening stage, students are informed what
learning strategies would be taught and applied in this lesson.

For example, metacognitive strategies introduce organizational planning and self-management for students to seek or arrange the conditions that help them to learn. Cognitive strategy provides students an imagery method to predict the content by using visual images and to understand or remember new information. Social/affective strategies offer the opportunity to brainstorm or question for clarification.

In the while-listening stage, the primary activity is to receive information by incorporating strategies into listening. For instance, metacognitive strategy provides the selective attention method for students to check their comprehension during listening. The cognitive strategy features note-taking grids for students to memorize the content of the audiotape. Students enjoy listening to the audiotape used in the social/affective strategy. Another important thing at this stage is that scripts of the tape are not allowed for students. After the first listening, the teacher has to ensure that all students absorb the content well, before going on to the next stage.

In the post-listening stage, students need to think about what they have learned from the former stages. Metacognitive strategies provide self-evaluation to check how well students have accomplished the whole activity. Cognitive strategies

like summarizing help students to make a mental or written summary of information that is gained through previous stages. Social/affective strategy provides a method, cooperation, for students to work together with peers to solve problems.

At the end of each lesson, an assessment sheet is provided for the teacher's evaluation. Also, worksheets help the teacher to evaluate in another way. For example, the teacher can ask students some questions such as, "Are all students really to listen?" in order to know how much background information they have gotten from the pre-listening stage before continuing to the next stage. In the while-listening stage, the teacher can assess how many notes students write down on the note-taking grids and then evaluate students' understanding. In the post-listening stage, by using the assessment sheet, the teacher can become aware of the results of what students have learned. Moreover, the teacher uses student portfolio contents and checklists to keep students' records (see Table 5.1. and Table 5.2.) and observe students' learning processes during the whole activity.

CHAPTER FIVE

PLAN FOR ASSESSMENT

Purpose of Assessment

In an English language development context, assessment can

test both achievement of language ability and content knowledge.

According to Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995), "Assessment instruments

can be used for a number of purposes: Proficiency tests determine

a student's level of performance; diagnostic and placement tests

provide information to place students in the appropriate level

of academic or linguistic courses; achievement tests assess the

student's previous learning; and competency tests assess

whether or not a student may be promoted or advanced" (p. 177).

Additionally, Hanson-Smith (1999) notes that assessment has

instructional purpose for teachers. For such purposes, the

goals of assessment are to help students to move ahead and improve,

to become aware of their own positions in the learning process,

to fine-tune their understanding of the target language and

culture, and to set goals for the next stage of learning.

These assessment instruments not only demonstrate that

students have to understand how well they meet the curriculum

objectives, but also illustrate that teachers need to realize

how well the students do, to identify individual learning

problems, and to monitor the effectiveness of their teaching. Furthermore, the results of assessment also let parents know how well their children do on a regular basis. As a result, the purpose of assessment offers students, teachers, and parents a vital method to assess students' learning process and achievement. More importantly, it makes adjustments in the activities and teaching.

Types of Assessments

There are various types of assessments for teachers or students to use, both inside and outside the classroom. Most of the schools in Taiwan adopt multiple-choice and other structured-response tests to assess students. Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995) point out that there are three methods to assess students' achievement: performance-based assessment, standardized tests, and teacher observation and evaluation. These methods are described below.

Performance-Based Assessment

The purpose of performance-based assessment is to test directly what is taught in the classroom. Performance-based assessment contains classroom tests and portfolio assessment. Classroom tests can reflect functional or communicative goals. They are highly convergent or open-ended, with many answers

possible (Diaz-Rico & Weed,1995). Portfolio assessment is also called alternative assessment. Portfolio usually includes writing samples, student self-assessments, audio recording, photographs, semantic webs and teacher notes about students (Glaser & Brown, 1993). Cudgo, Castro, and Garrillo (1991) state that there are several purposes of portfolio assessment. First of all, it maintains a long-term record of student's progress. Secondly, it provides a clear and understandable measure of student productivity rather than a single number. Thirdly, it offers opportunities for improving students' self-images as a result of showing progress and accomplishment. Fourth, it recognizes different learning styles. Finally, it provides an active role for students in self-assessment.

Standardized Tests

Standardized tests for second or foreign language teaching provide means for employing a common standard of proficiency or performance in spite of variations in local condition or students abilities. Norm-referenced tests and criterion-referenced tests belong to the domain of standardized tests. Norm-referenced tests compare students' scores against a population of students with which the test has been standardized. Criterion-referenced tests are principally to find out how much of a clearly defined of language skills or

materials students have learned. The focus is on how the students achieve in relation to the materials, instead of to a national sample (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

Teacher Observation and Evaluation

Teacher observation and evaluation is the third method of assessment. The main purposes of this method are to document student's progress and diagnose students' needs. Assessment of teacher observation and evaluation contains two primary components, observation-based assessment and teacher-made tests. Observation-based assessment can be used by teachers not only to note individual differences in a formal way, but also to record cooperative and collaborative groups' work together and give a report or explain in an informal way. They may be based on highly structured content or on divergent and creative activities (Crawford, 1993). Alternatively, teacher-made tests are often the basis for classroom grading. Tests can assess skills such as reading comprehension, oral fluency, grammatical accuracy, writing proficiency, and listening. Teacher-constructed tests may not be as reliable and valid as tests which have been standardized; however, the ease of construction and administration and the relevance to classroom learning makes them popular (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

In addition to these three methods to assess students'
achievement, there are still other methods that teachers can
use to help students' self-assessment. According to
Hanson-Smith (1999), students can use a pre- post- test model
to note what they understand in the beginning of a lesson and
what they want to know by the end. At the end of the lesson,
students can look back at the present and note what they have
gotten and whether or not they have learned what they want to
learn.

Authentic Assessment

Another type of assessment is authentic assessment, which
is based on constructivist theories of learning. Burke (1999)
notes that authentic assessment is an assessment that shows
whether or not students can use the skills and strategies that
they have learned appropriately. Moreover, real-world contexts
are transferred outside the classroom. Thus, authentic
assessment asks students to apply their skills and knowledge
in meaningful way such as reporting the results of an experiment
or discussion, and evaluating their learning process.

Assessment in the Unit

Assessments in listening comprehension should be concerned
with students' ability to "understand simple, short, utterances

95

in routine conversation in which the listener is a participant"

(Thompson, 1995, p. 33). In the pre-listening stage, the

teacher can use formative assessment to ask students "Are you

ready to listen?" or provide more relative information as

possible. For example, the use of imagery could be effective

way to aid students' imagination and creativity.

In the while-listening stage, the teacher can ask students

"Do you need to listen again?" in order to make sure that students

understand the content. Another way to assess students'

understanding in this stage is to check students' note-taking

grids (see Focus Sheet 3-1 in Lesson Three and Focus Sheet 4-1

in Lesson Four) to evaluate how much students have learned from

the activity.

Finally, in the post-listening stage, there are two ways

to assess students' understanding: informal assessment and

formal assessment. In the informal assessment, the teacher can

ask students to make either individual or group presentations

to test the knowledge of what students have learned in the whole

activity. The teacher has to notice how much time students

respond appropriately to dramatic or comedic moments with

silence, laughter, and body language. This helps the teacher

to assess the learning process of students. In the formal

assessment, using assessment sheets to evaluate students is

common for the teacher in this stage. In addition, the teacher can collect students' work sheets to assess students' abilities to identify the problems in the contents.

As mentioned earlier, performance-based assessment is to test directly what is taught in the classroom. This assessment contains classroom tests and portfolio assessment. The former can reflect functional or communicative goals. The latter can be useful to assess students' listening comprehension from the activity by providing a collection of writing samples, student self-assessments (see student self-evaluation sheet in each lesson), and teacher notes about students. This type of assessment is incorporated into each lesson so that students can improve their listening comprehension gradually. Assessment based on teacher observation and evaluation plays an important role in this unit. Observation-based assessment can be used by teachers to note individual differences in a formal way by using a student portfolio content (see Table 5.1.). Also, a group assessment checklist can help the teacher to record cooperative groups' work together (see Table 5.2.).

In each lesson, the teacher can use work sheets, student self-evaluation sheets, assessment sheets, and student portfolio contents to assess what students have learned. Group assessment checklists are offered for the teacher to evaluate

the results of group activities. Additionally, in Lesson Three and Lesson Four, note-taking grids are helpful for the teacher to know how much do students understand the content of the story in the while-listening stage.

To conclude, teachers can grade achievement using a variety of ways that are discussed above. Teachers in Taiwan should try to use different ways to evaluate students' achievement instead of using only test scores. The basis of assessment works prepares comments and students will also enter comments.

In summary, language is a basic and vital tool by which human beings communicate. Language strategies play an important role for language learning in that they are means for active, self-directed involvement, which is necessary for developing communicative competence. Appropriate language learning strategies result in improved ESL/EFL learners' self-confidence and communicative competence. The use of authentic materials makes listening class more interesting than that of examination-orientated class, and ESL/EFL learners can be trained to take on real life situations which include hesitation, false starts and mistakes in communication. The computer has become the requirement for teaching and learning a second language and it assists teachers in language teaching. This project has discussed these important concepts which are

in the Chapter Two and it will be helpful for ESL/EFL learners

to promote listening comprehension.

Table 5.1. Student Portfolio Contents

Student Name: _____		
Lesson: _1__ 2___ 3___ 4___ 5_ Date: _____		
Portfolio Item	Teacher Comment	Student Comment
Activity Participation: 25 20 15 10 5 0		
Strategy Use: Planning 25 20 15 10 5 0 Imagery 25 20 15 10 5 0 Selective Attention 25 20 15 10 5 0 Cooperation 25 20 15 10 5 0 Note-taking 25 20 15 10 5 0 Self-evaluation 25 20 15 10 5 0		
Work Sheet: 25 20 15 10 5 0		
Assessment Sheet: 25 20 15 10 5 0		
Results of Conference		
Teacher's Comments:		
Students' Plan:		

100

Table 5.2. Group Assessment Checklists

Group	1	2	3	4	5	6
Score:						
Lesson One		25	20	15	10	5
Lesson Two		25	20	15	10	5
Lesson Three		25	20	15	10	5
Lesson Four		25	20	15	10	5
Lesson Five		25	20	15	10	5

APPENDIX

LESSON PLANS

Lesson One
A Story about Christmas: The Gift of the Magi

Objectives:
1. To learn background information as a pre-listening
   activity
2. To comprehend native-speakers' English
3. To understand how to use strategic skills to improve
   listening ability and comprehension

Strategy: imagery, selective attention, and cooperation

Materials: Focus Sheet 1-1, 1-2, 1-3, 1-4,1-5, Work Sheet 1-1,
   Assessment Sheet 1-1, 1-2, and an audiotape

Warm-up: The instructor elicits students' interests and prior
   knowledge by presenting background information (Focus
   Sheet 1-1). Then the instructor asks students to discuss
   briefly with one another questions as follows:
   a) What you know about Christmas?
   b) What did your family usually do for Christmas?
   c) What do you know about the Christmas stories in America?
   Each pair will share one factor or idea. If no one mentions
   the Three Wise Men, the instructor will explain that part
   of the legend. (Focus Sheet 1-2)

Task Chain One: Pre-listening stage—to learn background
                knowledge and preview strategies as a
                pre-listening activity
   1. The instructor introduces what strategies are and how
      they can be effectively applied to listening
      comprehension.
   2. Distribute Focus Sheet 1-3 to describe imagery,
      selective attention strategy and cooperation strategies

in order to prepare for while-listening stage.

3. Use Focus Sheet 1-4 (imagery strategies) to ask students to think about questions as follows:

1) What do you guess about the topic?

2) What contents do you expect to hear?

3) What time of year is it?

Task Chain Two: While-listening stage—to comprehend native-speakers' English

1. The instructor explains that students are going to listen to a story relating to Christmas.

2. Ready to listen. The instructor plays the audiotape and encourages students to take advantage of imagery strategies while listening to the story.

3. At the first time, students listen to the audiotape without a tapescript.

4. Ask the students if they understand the story or not. If necessary, play the audiotape again.

Task Chain Three: Post-listening stage—to understand how to use strategic skills to improve listening ability and comprehension

1. Students are divided into groups of four.

2. Immediately after listening, the instructor asks volunteer students of each group to describe the ideas that come from the audiotape.

3. Ask students some questions below.

1) What do you hear actually from the audiotape?

2) How much do you understand the content?

3) Did you use strategies to help you while listening?

4) Did pre-listening activities and strategies help you to realize the content?

4. Use cooperation strategy. Have students discuss and share their ideas from the content (use Work Sheet 1-1) in order to practice their communicative competence.

5. Encourage students to ask questions in order to simplify unclear ideas with their groups or the instructor:

6. After asking and discussing questions, replay the audiotape.

7. Distribute the tapescript (see Focus Sheet 1-5) and ask students what vocabulary they do not understand or lost.

8. Use Focus Sheet 1-6 (transparency) to review and teach new vocabulary.

9. Discuss Work Sheet 1-1 and review the whole content.

Assessment:

1. Observe students' participation in the whole activity, the teacher will score each student or group. (see Table 5.1 Student Portfolio Contents & Table 5.2 Group Assessment Sheet)

2. Students fill out Assessment Sheet 1-1 (Student Self-evaluation Sheet).

3. The teacher will score Work Sheet 1-1 and file Work Sheet 1-1 in students' portfolio.

4. Use Assessment Sheet 1-2 to evaluate what students have learned from the activity.

Focus Sheet 1-1

A Story about Christmas: The Gift of the Magi

Poster
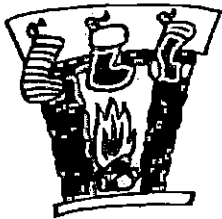
Focus Sheet 1-2

A Story about Christmas: The Gift of the Magi

Background Information for the Story

It is Christmas in New York, but for two young lovers, Jim and
Della, the prospects are bleak, as both are out of work and
penniless. But as those familiar with the famous O. Henry story
are aware, their dilemma is solved when both part with their
most precious possessions in order to buy presents for each other
thereby creating, at least for a magical moment, an aura of warmth
and giving in the cold, impersonal winter city.

Focus Sheet 1-3

A Story about Christmas: The Gift of the Magi

Pre-listening Activity

Imagery, Selective Attention and Cooperation Strategies

Imagery strategy:

using visual images (either mental or actual) to understand and remember new information or to make a mental representation of a problem.

Selective attention strategy:

attending to or scanning key words, phrases, linguistic markers, sentences, or types of information.

Cooperation strategy:

working together with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check a learning task, or get feedback on oral or written performance.

Focus Sheet 1-4
A Story about Christmas: The Gift of the Magi
Pre-listening Activity
Pictures (Choice from Poster)

Focus Sheet 1-5
A Story about Christmas: The Gift of the Magi
Post-listening Activity
Tapescript
The Gift of the Magi by O. Henry

One dollar and eighty-seven cents. That was all. And sixty cents of it was in pennies. Pennies saved one and two at a time by bulldozing the grocer and the vegetable man and the butcher until one's cheeks burned with the silent imputation of parsimony that such close dealing implied. Three times Della counted it. One dollar and eighty-seven cents. And the next day would be Christmas.

She sat on her old couch and cried.

It was a poor apartment that cost $8 per week.

She was married to Mr. James Dillingham Young who was also called Jim.

Della finished her cry and attended to her cheeks with the powder rag. She stood by the window and looked out dully at a gray cat walking a gray fence in a gray backyard. Tomorrow would be Christmas Day, and she had only $1.87 with which to buy Jim a present. She had been saving every penny she could for months, with this result. Twenty dollars a week doesn't go far. Expenses had been greater than she had calculated. They always are. Only $1.87 to buy a present for Jim. Her Jim. Many a happy hour she had spent planning for something nice for him. Something fine and rare and sterling--something just a little bit near to being worthy of the honor of being owned by Jim.

A Story about Christmas: The Gift of the Magi
Post-listening Activity
Tapescript
The Gift of the Magi by O. Henry

She looked in the narrow mirror and pulled down her hair.

Now, there were two possessions of the James Dillingham Youngs in which they both took a mighty pride. One was Jim's gold watch that had been his father's and his grandfather's. The other was Della's hair. Had the Queen of Sheba lived in the flat across the airshaft, Della would have let her hair hang out the window some day to dry just to depreciate Her Majesty's jewels and gifts. Had King Solomon been the janitor, with all his treasures piled up in the basement, Jim would have pulled out his watch every time he passed, just to see him pluck at his beard from envy.

So now Della's beautiful hair fell about her rippling and shining like a cascade of brown waters. It reached below her knee and made itself almost a garment for her. And then she did it up again nervously and quickly. Once she faltered for a minute and stood still while a tear or two splashed on the worn red carpet.

On went her old brown jacket; on went her old brown hat. With a whirl of skirts and with the brilliant sparkle still in her eyes, she fluttered out the door and down the stairs to the street.

Where she stopped the sign read: "Mne. Sofronie. Hair Goods of All Kinds." One flight up Della ran, and collected herself, panting. Madame, large, too white, chilly, hardly looked the "Sofronie."

A Story about Christmas: The Gift of the Magi
Post-listening Activity
Tapescript

The Gift of the Magi by O. Henry

"Will you buy my hair?" asked Della.

"I buy hair," said Madame. "Take yer hat off and let's have a sight at the looks of it."

Down rippled the brown cascade.

"Twenty dollars," said Madame, lifting the mass with a practised hand.

"Give it to me quick," said Della.

With the money she shopped for Jim present. It was a watch chain, simple and worthy of him. It cost $21.00.

When Della reached home her intoxication gave way a little to prudence and reason. She got out her curling irons and lighted the gas and went to work repairing the ravages made by generosity added to love. Which is always a tremendous task, dear friends--a mammoth task.

Within forty minutes her head was covered with tiny, close-lying curls that made her look wonderfully like a truant schoolboy. She looked at her reflection in the mirror long, carefully, and critically.

A Story about Christmas: The Gift of the Magi
Post-listening Activity
Tapescript

The Gift of the Magi by O. Henry

"If Jim doesn't kill me," she said to herself, "before he takes a second look at me, he'll say I look like a Coney Island chorus girl. But what could I do--oh! What could I do with a dollar and eighty- seven cents?"

At 7 o'clock the coffee was made and the frying-pan was on the back of the stove hot and ready to cook the chops.

Jim was never late. Della doubled the fob chain in her hand and sat on the corner of the table near the door that he always entered. Then she heard his step on the stair away down on the first flight, and she turned white for just a moment. She had a habit for saying little silent prayer about the simplest everyday things, and now she whispered: "Please God, make him think I am still pretty."

The door opened and Jim stepped in and closed it. He looked thin and very serious. Poor fellow, he was only twenty-two--and to be burdened with a family! He needed a new overcoat and he was without gloves.

Jim stopped inside the door, as immovable as a setter at the scent of quail. His eyes were fixed upon Della, and there was an expression in them that she could not read, and it terrified her. It was not anger, nor surprise, nor disapproval, nor horror, nor any of the sentiments that she had been prepared for. He simply stared at her fixedly with that peculiar expression on his face.

Focus Sheet 1-5 (con't.)
A Story about Christmas: The Gift of the Magi
Post-listening Activity
Tapescript

The Gift of the Magi by O. Henry

Della wriggled off the table and went for him.

"Jim, darling," she cried, "don't look at me that way. I had my hair cut off and sold because I couldn't have lived through Christmas without giving you a present. It'll grow out again--you won't mind, will you? I just had to do it. My hair grows awfully fast. Say `Merry Christmas!' Jim, and let's be happy. You don't know what a nice-- what a beautiful, nice gift I've got for you."

"You've cut off your hair?" asked Jim, laboriously, as if he had not arrived at that patent fact yet even after the hardest mental labor.

"Cut it off and sold it," said Della. "Don't you like me just as well, anyhow? I'm me without my hair, ain't I?"

Jim looked about the room curiously.

"You say your hair is gone?" he said, with an air almost of idiocy.

"Yes, I sold it."

Out of his trance Jim seemed quickly to wake. He enfolded his Della. For ten seconds let us regard with discreet scrutiny some inconsequential object in the other direction. Eight dollars a week or a million a year--what is the difference? A mathematician or a wit would give you the wrong answer. The magi brought valuable gifts, but that was not among them. This dark assertion will be illuminated later on.

Focus Sheet 1-5 (con't.)
A Story about Christmas: The Gift of the Magi
Post-listening Activity
Tapescript

The Gift of the Magi by O. Henry

Jim drew a package from his overcoat pocket and threw it upon the table.

"Don't make any mistake, Dell," he said, "about me. I don't think there's anything in the way of a haircut or a shave or a shampoo that could make me like my girl any less. But if you'll unwrap that package you may see why you had me going a while at first."

White fingers and nimble tore at the string and paper. And then an ecstatic scream of joy; and then, alas! a quick feminine change to hysterical tears and wails, necessitating the immediate employment of all the comforting powers of the lord of the flat.

For there lay The Combs--the set of combs, side and back, that Della had worshipped long in a Broadway window. Beautiful combs, pure tortoise shell, with jewelled rims--just the shade to wear in the beautiful vanished hair. They were expensive combs, she knew, and her heart had simply craved and yearned over them without the least hope of possession. And now, they were hers, but the tresses that should have adorned the coveted adornments were gone.

But she hugged them to her bosom, and at length she was able to look up with dim eyes and a smile and say: "My hair grows so fast, Jim!"

And them Della leaped up like a little singed cat and cried, "Oh, oh!"

A Story about Christmas: The Gift of the Magi
Post-listening Activity
Tapescript

The Gift of the Magi by O. Henry

Jim had not yet seen his beautiful present. She held it out to him eagerly upon her open palm. The dull precious metal seemed to flash with a reflection of her bright and ardent spirit.

"Isn't it a dandy, Jim? I hunted all over town to find it. You'll have to look at the time a hundred times a day now. Give me your watch. I want to see how it looks on it."

Instead of obeying, Jim tumbled down on the couch and put his hands under the back of his head and smiled.

"Dell," said he, "let's put our Christmas presents away and keep 'em a while. They're too nice to use just at present. I sold the watch to get the money to buy your combs. And now suppose you put the chops on."

The magi, as you know, were wise men--wonderfully wise men--who brought gifts to the Babe in the manger. They invented the art of giving Christmas presents. Being wise, their gifts were no doubt wise ones, possibly bearing the privilege of exchange in case of duplication. And here I have lamely related to you the uneventful chronicle of two foolish children in a flat who most unwisely sacrificed for each other the greatest treasures of their house. But in a last word to the wise of these days let it be said that of all who give gifts these two were the wisest. O all who give and receive gifts, such as they are wisest. Everywhere they are wisest. They are the magi.

A Story about Christmas: The Gift of the Magi
Post-listening Activity
New Vocabulary
(Transparency)

bulldoze	imputation	parsimony	dully
depreciate	cascade	garment	splashed
intoxication	truant	peculiar	enfold
scrutiny	illuminate	nimble	ecstatic
tortoise	adornment	lamely	magi

Work Sheet 1-1
The Story of Christmas: The Gift of the Magi
Post-listening Activity: Cooperation Strategy
Discussion Topic: The Gift of the Magi

1. What is the story about?

2. What Christmas presents will you buy for your
   lovers or family?

3. If you only have one dollar and eighty-seven
   cents, how do you have a good time for your
   Christmas?

4. What did your family usually do for Christmas
   Eve?

Assessment Sheet 1-1

A Story about Christmas: The Gift of the Magi

Student Self-evaluation Sheet

Name:					
Score:					
Pre-listening activities offered me background information for the activity	5	4	3	2	1
I was able to comprehend native-speakers' English	5	4	3	2	1
The use of strategies have helped me understand the content of the story in while-listening stage	5	4	3	2	1
Post-listening activities helped me understand the whole activities	5	4	3	2	1
Grading Scale: 5=excellent 4=good 3=average 2=improvement needs 1=poor					

Assessment Sheet 1-2

The Story of Christmas: The Gift of the Magi

I. Answer the following questions

1. What does "magi" mean?

_____

2. Do Della and Jim have their own house?

_____

3. What does Della sell? How much did she get?

_____

4. How does Jim feel when he got the present from Della?

_____

II. True or False

   T   F

1. ☐ ☐ This story happened on Christmas.

2. ☐ ☐ Jim sold his watch to buy a present for Della.

3. ☐ ☐ Della bought a suit for Jim.

4. ☐ ☐ Jim came back late because of heavy snow.

5. ☐ ☐ Jim bought combs for Della.

6. ☐ ☐ "Parsimony" means the quality of being careful with money or resources.

Lesson Two

The Story of Easter

Objectives:

    1. To learn background information as a pre-listening activity

    2. To comprehend native-speakers' English

    3. To understand how to use strategic skills to improve listening ability and comprehension

Strategy: imagery, selective attention, and cooperation

Materials: Focus Sheet 2-1, 2-2, 2-3, 2-4, 2-5, Work Sheet 2-1, Assessment Sheet 2-1, 2-2, and an audiotape

Warm-up: The instructor elicits students' interests and prior knowledge by presenting background information (Focus Sheet 2-1). Then the instructor asks students to discuss briefly with one another questions as follows:

a) What do you know about Easter?

b) What did your family usually do to celebrate spring?

c) What do you know about the traditional holiday "Easter" in America?

d) Is there a time of year in Taiwan to buy and wear new clothes?

Each pair will share one factor or idea. If no one mentions the meaning of Easter, the instructor will explain that part of the legend. (Focus Sheet 2-2)

Task Chain One: Pre-listening stage—to learn background knowledge and preview strategies as a pre-listening activity

    1. The instructor introduces what strategies are and how they can be effectively applied to listening comprehension.

2. Distribute Focus Sheet 2-3 to describe imagery, selective attention strategy and cooperation strategies in order to prepare for while-listening stage.

3. Use Focus Sheet 2-2 (imagery strategies) to ask students to think questions as follows:

   1) What do you guess about the topic?

   2) What contents do you expect to hear?

   3) What time of year is it?

Task Chain Two: While-listening stage—to comprehend native-speakers' English

1. The instructor explains that students are going to listen to a story relating to Easter.

2. Ready to listen. The instructor plays the audiotape and encourages students to take advantage of imagery strategies while listening to the story.

3. At the first time, students listen to the audiotape without a tapescript.

4. Ask the students if they understand the story or not. If necessary, play the audiotape again.

Task Chain Three: Post-listening stage—to understand how to use strategic skills to improve listening ability and comprehension

1. Students are divided into groups of four.

2. Immediately after listening, the instructor asks volunteer students of each group to describe the ideas that come from the audiotape.

3. Ask students some questions below.

   1) What do you hear actually from the audiotape?

   2) How much do you understand the content?

   3) Did you use strategies to help you while listening?

   4) Did pre-listening activities and strategies help you to realize the content?

4. Use cooperation strategy. Have students discuss and

share their ideas from the content (use Work Sheet 2-1) in order to practice their communicative competence.

5. Encourage students to ask questions in order to simplify the unclear ideas with their groups or the instructor.

6. After asking and discussing questions, replay the audiotape.

7. Distribute the tapescript (see Focus Sheet 2-4) and ask students what vocabulary they do not understand or lost.

8. Use Focus Sheet 2-5 (transparency) to review and teach new vocabulary.

9. Discuss Work Sheet 2-1 and review the whole content.

Assessment:

1. Observe students' participation in the whole activity, the teacher will score each student or group. (see Table 5.1 Student Portfolio Contents & Table 5.2 Group Assessment Sheet)

2. Students fill out Assessment Sheet 2-1 (Student Self-evaluation Sheet).

3. The teacher will score Work Sheet 2-1 and file Work Sheet 2-1 in students' portfolio.

4. Use Assessment Sheet 2-2 to evaluate what students have learned from the activity.

Focus Sheet 2-1
The Story of Easter
Pre-listening Activity
Background Information of Easter

Easter is the first holiday of spring and for most us it symbolizes the new beginning of the earth after a long winter. The origins of many of our Easter traditions date back to pagan times and the rituals associated with the coming of spring. Some of the symbols such as the Easter bunny that represents fertility, and Easter eggs, which originally were painted bright colors to represent the sunlight of spring, are associated with the Easter.

Focus Sheet 2-2
The Story of Easter
Pre-listening Activity
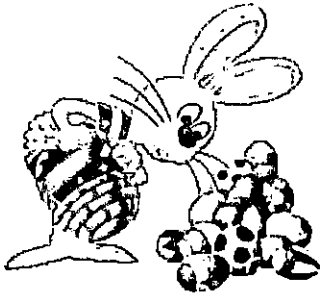
Focus Sheet 2-3

The Story of Easter

Pre-listening Activity

Imagery, Selective Attention and Cooperation Strategies

Imagery strategy:

using visual images (either mental or actual) to understand and remember new information or to make a mental representation of a problem.

Selective attention strategy:

attending to or scanning key words, phrases, linguistic markers, sentences, or types of information.

Cooperation strategy:

working together with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check a learning task, or get feedback on oral or written performance.

Focus Sheet 2-4
The Story of Easter
Post-listening Activity
Tapescript

Easter, like Christmas, is a blend of paganism and Christianity. The word Easter is derived from Eostre (also known as *Ostara*), an ancient Anglo-Saxon Goddess. She symbolized the rebirth of the day at dawn and the rebirth of life in the spring. The arrival of spring was celebrated all over the world long before the religious meaning became associated with Easter. Now Easter celebrates the rebirth of Christ.

In fact, Easter is an important Christian holiday. It is the culmination of events during Holy Week beginning with Palm Sunday. Palm Sunday reflects the return of Jesus to Jerusalem. Maundy Thursday commemorates the Last Supper of Christ and Good Friday honors the crucifixion of Jesus. Finally, Easter Sunday celebrates the resurrection after his death.

Easter falls on the first Sunday on or following the spring Equinox after the full moon. The date has been calculated in this way since 325 AD.

Lambs, chicks and baby creatures of all kinds are all associated with spring, symbolizing the birth of new life.

Since ancient times many cultures have associated eggs with the universe. They've been dyed, decorated and painted by the Romans, Gauls, Persians and the Chinese. They were used in ancient spring festivals to represent the rebirth of life. As Christianity took hold the egg began to symbolize the rebirth of man rather than nature.

During the 4th century consuming eggs during Lent became taboo. However, spring is the peak egg-laying time for hens, so people began to cook eggs in their shells to preserve them. Eventually people began decorating and hiding them for children to find during Easter, which gave birth to the Easter Egg Hunt. Other egg-related games also evolved like egg tossing and egg rolling.

A Polish folktale tells of the Virgin Mary giving eggs to soldiers at the cross as she pleaded with them to be merciful. As her tears dropped they spattered droplets on the eggs mottling them with a myriad of colors.

The Faberge egg is the best known of all the decorated eggs. Peter Faberge made intricate, delicately decorated eggs. In 1883, the Russian Czar commissioned Faberge to make a special egg for his wife.

The Easter Bunny is a cute little rabbit that hides eggs for us to find on Easter. But where did he come from? Well, the origin is not certain. In the rites of spring the rabbit symbolized fertility. In a German book published in 1682, a tale is told of a bunny laying eggs and hiding them in the garden.

The Easter bonnet and new clothes on Easter symbolizes the end of the dreary winter and the beginning of the fresh, new spring. At the turn of the century it was popular for families

to stroll to church and home again to show off their "Sunday best".

The Easter Basket shows roots in a Catholic custom. Baskets filled with breads, cheeses, hams and other foods for Easter dinner were taken to mass Easter morning to be blessed. This evolved in time to baskets filled with chocolate eggs, jellybeans, toys and stuffed bunnies for children left behind by the Easter Bunny.

Focus Sheet 2-5
The Story of Easter
Post-listening Activity
New Vocabulary
(Transparency)

paganism	rebirth	culmination
commemorates	Equinox	taboo
folktale	intricate	Catholic

Work Sheet 2-1

The Story of Easter

Post-listening Activity: Cooperation Strategy

Discussion Topic: Easter

> 1. Why Easter is an important Christian holiday?

> 2. What are the symbols of the birth of new life?

> 3. What is the Polish folktale about Easter?

> 4. What is the origin of the Easter Bunny?

Assessment Sheet 2-1
The Story of Easter
Student Self-evaluation Sheet

Name:					
Score:					
Pre-listening activities offered me background information for the activity	5	4	3	2	1
I was able to comprehend native-speakers' English	5	4	3	2	1
The use of strategies have helped me understand the content of the story in while-listening stage ~	5	4	3	2	1
Post-listening activities helped me understand the whole activities	5	4	3	2	1
Grading Scale: 5=excellent 4=good 3=average 2=improvement needs 1=poor					

Assessment Sheet 2-2

The Story of Easter

I. Answer the following questions.

1. What does the word "Easter" mean?

   _____

2. How is the date of the Easter determined?

   _____

3. What is the best known of all the decorated eggs?

   _____

4. What do the Easter bonnet and new clothes on Easter symbolize?

   _____

5. What does the Easter basket show?

   _____

II. Circle the best answer.

1. Easter is a <u>Muslim, Christian, Jewish</u> holiday.
2. During the 4th century consuming eggs during Lent became a
   <u>taboo, custom, game</u>.
3. As Christianity took hold, the egg began to symbolize the
   <u>rebirth, death, happiness</u> of man rather than nature.
4. The Easter Bunny is a cute little <u>chicken, cat, rabbit</u> that
   hides eggs for us to find on Easter.

Lesson Three
Crosscultural Teaching: Valentine's Day

Objectives:
1. To learn background information as a pre-listening activity
2. To comprehend native-speakers' English
3. To know how to use strategic skills to improve listening ability and comprehension

Strategies: self-management, note taking, imagery, and cooperation

Materials: Focus Sheet3-1, 3-2, 3-3, 3-4, 3-5, 3-6, Work Sheet 3-1, 3-2, Assessment Sheet3-1, 3-2, and an audiotape

Warm-up: The instructor elicits students' interests and prior knowledge by presenting background information (Focus Sheet 3-1). Then the instructor asks students to discuss briefly with one another questions as follows:
1) What can you imagine when you hear "Valentine's Day"?
2) What do you or your friends usually do in this day?
3) What do you expect to hear or do you expect to get presents on this day?
4) Do you like Valentine's Day?
Each pair will share one factor or idea. If no one mentions the meaning of Valentine's Day, the instructor will explain that part of the legend.

Task Chain One: Pre-listening stage—to learn background knowledge and preview strategies as a pre-listening activity
1. The instructor introduces what strategies are and how they can be effectively applied to listening

comprehension.

2. Distribute Focus Sheet 3-2 to explain self-management, note taking, and imagery strategies in order to prepare for while-listening. Display examples to have students realize self-management strategies.

3. Use Focus Sheet 3-2 to tell students how to use note-taking symbols effectively.

4. Use Focus Sheet 3-3 (imagery strategies) to ask students to think questions as follows:

   1) What do you guess about the topic?

   2) What contents do you expect to hear?

Task Chain Two: While-listening stage—to comprehend native-speakers' English

1. The instructor explains that students are going to listen to a story relating to Valentine's Day.

2. Ready to listen. The instructor plays the audiotape (the story content) and encourages students to take advantage of strategies such as self-management, note taking, and imagery strategies while listening. (Distribute each student Work Sheet 3-1)

3. At the first time, students listen to the audiotape without a tapescript.

4. Listen to an English love song titled "My Heart Will Go On" without lyrics.

5. Ask the students if they understand the story or not. If necessary, play the audiotape again.

Task Chain Three: Post-listening stage— to understand how to use strategic skills to improve listening ability and comprehension

1. Students are divided into groups of four.

2. Immediately after listening, the teacher asks volunteer students of each group to describe their ideas which come from the audiotape.

3. Ask students some questions below.
   1) What do you hear actually from the audiotape?
   2) How much do you understand the content?
   3) Did you use strategies to help you while listening?
   4) Did pre-listening activities and strategies help you to realize the content?
4. Use cooperation strategy. Have students discuss and share their ideas from the content (use Work Sheet 3-2) in order to train their communicative competence.
5. Encourage students to ask questions in order to simplify the unclear ideas with their groups or the teacher.
6. Replay the audiotape.
7. Distribute the tapescript (Focus Sheet 3-4) and ask students what vocabulary they do not understand or lost.
8. Use Focus Sheet 3-5 (transparency) to teach new vocabulary.
9. Listen to the song again and ask students to fill the blank. (see Focus Sheet 3-6, transparency)
10. Discuss Work Sheet 3-2 and review the whole content.

Assessment:
1. Observe students' participation in the whole activity, the teacher will score each student or group. (see Table 5.1 Student Portfolio Contents & Table 5.2 Group Assessment Sheet)
2. Students fill out Assessment Sheet 3-1 (Student Self-evaluation Sheet).
3. The teacher will score Work Sheet 3-1 and Work Sheet 3-2 and file Work Sheet 3-1 and Work Sheet 3-2 in students' portfolio.
4. Use Assessment Sheet 3-2 to evaluate what students have learned from the activity.

136

Focus Sheet 3-1
Crosscultural Teaching: Valentine's Day
Pre-listening Activity
Background Information of Valentine's Day

The legend of Valentine's Day stalks from real-life martyrs from
the Roman Empire known as Valentine. It is unsure who was the
Valentine, but two candidates are related here. One of these
Valentines is believed to have been a Roman priest and physician.
Killed in the third century, during the persecutions of the
Emperor Claudius II Gothicus. After his death this Valentine
was actually buried in the Roman road Via Flaminia Julius I is
said to have later built a basilica above his grave. A second
Valentine candidate believed to be a bishop of Teni was executed
in Rome.

Focus Sheet 3-2

Crosscultural Teaching: Valentine's Day

Pre-listening Activity

Self-Management and Note Taking Strategy

Self-Management Strategy	
1	Reduce anxiety
2	To improve concentration, learn to pay attention to the speaker
3	Maintain a positive attitude
4	Get used to listening to native English speakers
5	Listen to stress: in spoken English, important words are usually stressed. This means that they are higher, louder, and spoken more clearly.
6	Listen to reductions: in spoken English, words either stresses or reduced. Example: "Could you tell me where the library is?" change to "Cudja tell me where the library is?" "want to" → "wanna" "got to " → "gotta" "going to" → "gonna" This is called a reduction; however, it is not accepted in written English.

(Tanka & Baker, 1996, p. 3-5)

Note Taking Strategy	
1	Prepare to take notes: short and clear.
2	Note taking helps listeners concentrate on listening.
3	Listening to keywords: it is not necessary to write every word when taking notes. Listen to the most important ideas or focus on keywords. Before listening, make a list such as "when," "where," "how," "why."

Crosscultural Teaching: Valentine's Day

Pre-listening Activity

Self-Management and Note Taking Strategy

Note Taking Strategy
4 Use abbreviations and symbols: shorten words and use symbols as much as possible. Meanwhile, develop or create a personal system for the. These will save time and allow a focus on the important ideas. (see next chart)

Symbols			
=	is like, equal, means	↑	rise, increase, go up
≠	is unlike, not the same	↓	decrease, go down
#	number	∴	therefore, as a result
@	each	→	cause
+/&	in addition, plus, and	{	include
%	percent	?	question, unclear
$	money	<	less than
~	approximately	>	more than
Abbreviations			
w/	with	w/o	without
btwn	between	e.g.	for example
am	morning	pm	afternoon
p./pp.	page	no.	number
i.e.	that is	pd.	paid
re:	concerning	vs.	versus
ch.	chapter	ib	pound
Create a personal system			
pro	professional	lang	language
com	communication	st.	study

(Ferrer-Hanredy & Whalley, 1996, p. 39-40)

Happy Valentines Day!

Crosscultural Teaching: Valentine's Day
Post-listening Activity
(Tapescript)
The Story of Valentine's Day

The Roman government did not like the Christian religion, so Christians were persecuted and were not allowed to worship as they pleased. The Roman government thought they could get rid of the Christian faith by persecuting Christians.

A priest named Valentine continued to practice faith in spite of the persecution. He refused to worship the Roman gods. This made the Emperor Claudius II very angry. Claudius II had Valentine arrested and put into prison.

Valentine spent one year in prison. The prison was very uncomfortable. He had to sleep on a cold, hard floor, and he had very little food. But Valentine was not sad. He had always been kind to children, and they remembered his kindness. The children threw flowers and kind notes to him through the prison bars. Valentine had made friends with the jailer's blind daughter. She would bring these notes and flowers to him. Whenever he could, Valentine sent notes back out to the children.

The Emperor Claudius II was impressed by Valentine's kindness. He said that Valentine could go free if he would worship the Roman gods. Valentine refused. Instead, he did a very bold thing and tried to convert Claudius II to Christianity. This made Claudius II very angry. He said that Valentine would be put to death.

During the days before his execution, Claudius prayed for the jailer's blind daughter, and she regained her sight.

Crosscultural Teaching: Valentine's Day
Post-listening Activity
(Tapescript)
The Story of Valentine's Day

Valentine was beheaded on February 14. Before he died, he wrote a farewell message to the jailer's daughter and signed it "From Your Valentine." Some people say we remember his death by sending kind messages to our friends.

Focus Sheet 3-5
Crosscultural Teaching: Valentine's Day
Post-listening Activity
New Vocabulary
(Transparency)

persecute	worship	prison
impress	convert	execution
regain	behead	farewell

Focus Sheet 3-6
Crosscultural Teaching: Valentine's Day
Post-listening Activity
English Love Song
(Transparency)

Lyrics of "My Heart Will Go On"

Every night in my dreams I see you, I feel you,
That is how I know you go on.
Far across the _____between us
You have come to show you go on.
Near, far, wherever you are,
I believe that the heart does go on.
Once more you open the door
And you're here_____,
And my heart will go on and on.
_____can touch us one time and last for a lifetime,
And never let go till we're gone.
Love was when I love you, one _____I hold to
In my life we'll always go on.
Near, far, _____,
I believe that the heart does go on.
Once more you open the door
And are here in my heart,
And my heart will go_____.
You're here; there's nothing I fear,
And I know that my heart will go on.
We'll stay _____this way,
You are safe in my heart,
And my heart will go on and on.

144

Work Sheet 3-1

Crosscultural Teaching: Valentine's Day

While-listening Activity: Note-Taking Strategy

Note-Taking Grids

WHEN	
WHERE	
HOW	
WHY	
SITUATION(S)	
PROBLEM(S)	
REASON(S)	
RESULT(S)	
SOLUTION(S)	
CONCLUSION(S)	

Work Sheet 3-2
Crosscultural Teaching: Valentine's Day
Post-listening Activity: Cooperation Strategy

Discussion topic: Valentine's Day

	Valentine's Day
Origins	
Date	
Special meanings	
Food	
Tradition	
Opinions	

Assessment Sheet 3-1
Crosscultural Teaching: Valentine's Day
Student Self-evaluation Sheet

Name:					
Score:					
Pre-listening activities offered me background information for the activity	5	4	3	2	1
I was able to comprehend native-speakers' English	5	4	3	2	1
The use of strategies have helped me understand the content of the story in while-listening stage	5	4	3	2	1
Post-listening activities helped me understand the whole activities	5	4	3	2	1
Grading Scale: 5=excellent 4=good 3=average 2=improvement needs 1=poor					

Assessment Sheet 3-2
Crosscultural Teaching: Valentine's Day

Answer the following questions.

1. What date is Valentine's Day?

_____

2. Who was Valentine?

_____

3. Why people put the heart shape on Valentine's cards?

_____

4. Who were Valentine's friends?

_____

5. Did the Roman government like Christians?

_____

6. Why was Valentine thrown in prison?

_____

7. What did Valentine write to the jailer's daughter?

_____

8. What does "persecute" mean?

_____

9. What bold thing did Valentine do?

_____

10. How do we remember Valentine's death?

_____

Lesson Four
Crosscultural Teaching: Chinese Lovers' Day

Objectives:
1. To learn background information as a pre-listening activity
2. To comprehend native-speakers' English
3. To understand how to use strategic skills to improve listening ability and comprehension

Strategies: self-management, note taking, imagery, and cooperation

Materials: Focus Sheet4-1, 4-2, 4-3, 4-4, 4-5,Work Sheet 4-1, 4-2, 4-3, Assessment Sheet4-1, 4-2, and an audiotape

Warm-up: The instructor elicits students' interests and prior knowledge by presenting background information (Focus Sheet 4-1). Then the instructor asks students to discuss briefly with one another questions as follows:
1) What can you imagine when you hear "Chinese Lovers' Day"?
2) What do you or your friends usually do in this day?
3) What do you expect to hear on this day? Do you expect to get presents on this day?
4) Do you like Chinese Lovers' Day?
Each pair will share one factor or idea. If no one mentions the meaning of Chinese Lovers' Day, the instructor will explain that part of the legend.

Task Chain One: Pre-listening stage—to learn background knowledge and preview strategies as a pre-listening activity
1. The instructor introduces what strategies are and how

they can be effectively applied to listening comprehension.

2. Distribute Focus Sheet 4-2 to review self-management, note-taking, and imagery strategies in order to prepare for while-listening stage.

3. Use Focus Sheet 4-3 (imagery strategies) to ask students to think questions as follows:

1) What do you guess about the topic?

2) What contents do you expect to hear?

Task Chain Two: While-listening stage—to comprehend native-speakers' English

1. The instructor explains that students are going to listen to a story relating to Chinese Lovers' Day.

2. Ready to listen. The instructor plays the audiotape and encourages students to take advantage of strategies such as self-management, note-taking, and imagery strategies while listening. (Distribute each student Work Sheet 4-1)

3. At the first time, students listen to the audiotape without a tapescript.

4. If necessary, play the audiotape again.

Task Chain Three: Post-listening stage—to know how to use strategic skills to improve listening ability and comprehension

1. Students are divided into groups of four.

2. Immediately after listening, the instructor asks volunteer students of each group to describe their ideas which come from the audiotape.

3. Ask students some questions below.

1) What do you hear actually from the audiotape?

2) How much do you understand the content?

3) Did you use strategies to help you while listening?

4) Did pre-listening activities and strategies help you to realize the content?

4. Use cooperation strategy. Have students discuss and share their ideas from the content (use Work Sheet 4-2) in order to practice their communicative competence.
5. Encourage students to ask questions in order to simplify the unclear ideas with their groups or the teacher.
6. Replay the audiotape.
7. Distribute the tapescript (Focus Sheet 4-4) and ask students what vocabulary they do not understand or lost.
8. Use Focus Sheet 4-5 (transparency) to teach new vocabulary.
9. Discuss Work Sheet 4-2 and review the whole content.
10. Compare the differences and the similarities between Valentine's Day (see Lesson Three) and Chinese Lovers' Day (Work Sheet 4-3).

Assessment:
1. Observe students' participation in the whole activity, the teacher will score each student or group. (see Table 5.1 Student Portfolio Contents & Table 5.2 Group Assessment Sheet)
2. Students fill out Assessment Sheet 4-1 (Student Self-evaluation Sheet).
3. The teacher will score Work Sheet 4-1, 4-2, and 4-3, and file Work Sheet 4-1, 4-2, and 4-3 in students' portfolio.
4. Use Assessment Sheet 4-2 to evaluate what students have learned from the activity.

Focus Sheet 4-1
Crosscultural Teaching: Chinese Lovers' Day
Pre-listening Activity
Background Information of Chinese Lovers' Day

Chinese Lovers' Day is derived from the legend of the Cowboy and Vega. The Cowboy and Vega appear closest together in the sky on this night and all the magpies on earth are said to ascend to the sky to make a bridge across the Milky Way so that the Cowboy and Vega may cross over for their short once-a-year tryst.

Focus Sheet 4-2
Crosscultural Teaching: Chinese Lovers' Day
Pre-listening Activity
Review: Self-Management and Note Taking Strategy

Self-Management Strategy

1. Reduce anxiety.
2. To improve concentration, learn to pay attention to the speaker.
3. Maintain a positive attitude.
4. Get used to listening to native English speakers.
5. Listen to stress: in spoken English, important words are usually stressed. This means that they are higher, louder, and spoken more clearly.
6. Listen to reductions.

Note-Taking Strategy

1. Prepare to take notes: short and clear.
2. Note-taking helps listeners concentrate on listening.
3. Listening to keywords: it is not necessary to write every word when taking notes.
4. Use abbreviations and symbols: shorten words and use symbols as much as possible.

Focus Sheet 4-3
Crosscultural Teaching: Chinese Lovers' Day
Pre-listening Activity
Imagery Strategy

A legendary traditional said that there was a young kind man whose name was Cowboy. His parents had died when he was a little child, so he lived with his brother and his brother's wife. His sister-in-law was a mean woman and usually bullied Cowboy. What is more, she insisted to her husband to get rid of Cowboy. The brother sent Cowboy away with a very old cow. Cowboy was sad and miserable when he left his brother's house.

However, this old cow that was given to Cowboy was not the ordinary cow. It used to be known as the Golden Cow of Heaven. A long time ago the cow had broke the laws of heaven and the Jade Emperor sent him to earth. Cowboy had lost his parents and been abandoned by his brother and evil wife, and now only had one friend, the cow.
Over time, Cowboy and the cow became good friends. One day the cow mentioned to his friend, Cowboy, that there were seven fairy maidens who would come to the eastern lake to take a shower at nightfall. The cow suggested that Cowboy steal one of the fairy maiden's clothing, that way she could not return to heaven, and then Cowboy could ask her to be his wife.

Cowboy followed the cow's instructions to hide one of the fairy maiden's clothing. When the fairy maidens finished their bath and prepared to go back to heaven, the youngest fairy maiden whose name was Vega found that her clothing had

disappeared. She was so unhappy that she began to cry. At thismoment, Cowboy brought Vega's clothing and asked her to be .his wife.

Vega appreciated his kindness, so she agreed to marry him. They had one boy and one girl after they got married. Cowboy was a farmer, Vega wove clothes, and their life was wonderful and peaceful. However, Cowboy's friend, the cow, died. Long ago had the cow told Cowboy "after I die, you can peel off my hide and keep it. Someday in the future, when you are in trouble, my hide can help you."

One day, Jade Emperor heard that Vega, a fairy maiden, was married to Cowboy, a mortal man, and he got very angry. Jade Emperor appointed the Queen Mother to bring Vega back to heaven. Cowboy was heartbroken when he knew that Vega had gone back to heaven. Suddenly, he remembered the cow's last words, so he draped the cow's hide over his two children and himself and they went to catch up with the Queen Mother and Vega. By using the magic cow's hide, Cowboy caught up with Vega and the Queen Mother. The Queen Mother was shocked and did not know what to do, so she used her golden hair-clasps to separate their family. Cowboy and his two kids just stood there crying. The crying shocked Jade Emperor. Jade Emperor saw that Cowboy and two kids were so sad, so he decided that whole family could be united once a year on July 7th.

Hence, every seventh of July, there are numerous lucky-magpies that fly to the sky to make a bridge to help Cowboy and Vega reunite. As the story goes, the magpies are fewer in the world of mortals on every seventh of July, because they all fly to heaven to form a bridge. Some say it must rain on the night of the seventh of July because the rain is Cowboy and Vega's happy tears.

Focus Sheet 4-5
Crosscultural Teaching: Chinese Lovers' Day
Post-listening Activity
New Vocabulary
(Transparency)

legendary	bully	miserable
abandoned	maiden	hide
mortal	hair-clasp	magpies

Work Sheet 4-1
Crosscultural Teaching: Chinese Lovers' Day
While-listening Activity: Note-Taking Strategy

Note-Taking Grids

WHEN	
WHERE	
HOW	
WHY	
SITUATION(S)	
PROBLEM(S)	
REASON(S)	
RESULT(S)	
SOLUTION(S)	
CONCLUSION(S)	

Work Sheet 4-2
Crosscultural Teaching: Chinese Lovers' Day
Post-listening Activity: Cooperation Strategy

Discussion topic: Chinese Lovers' Day

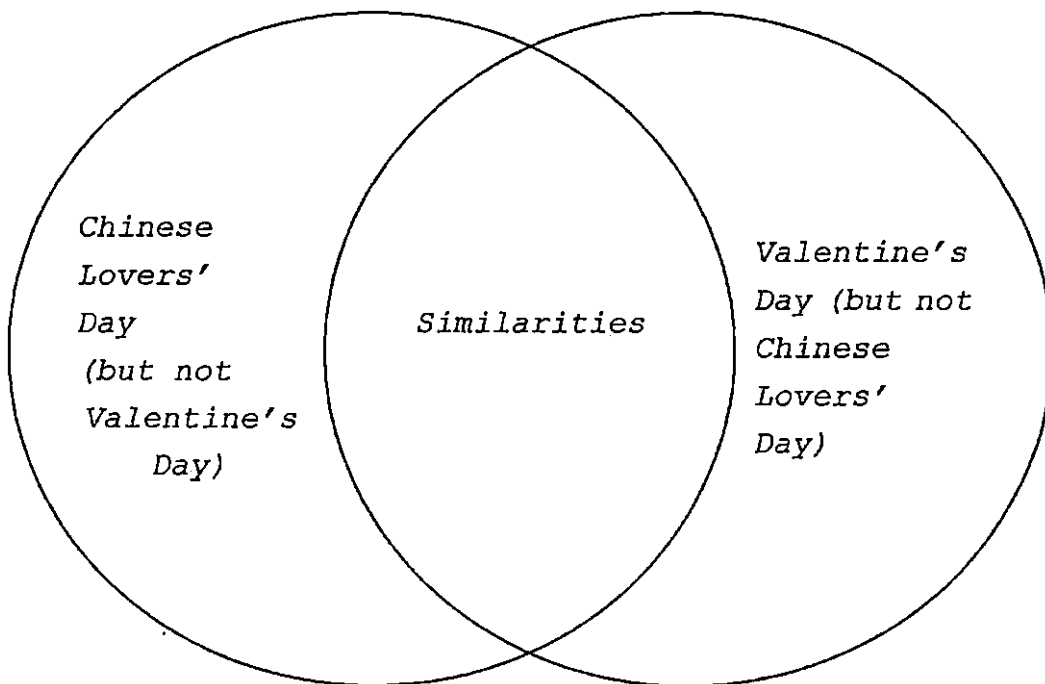|	Chinese Lovers' Day
Origins	
Date	
Special meanings	
Food	
Tradition	
Opinions	

Work Sheet 4-3

Crosscultural Teaching: Chinese Lovers' Day

Write down the differences and similarities between Valentine's
Day and Chinese Lovers' Day

Chinese Lovers' Day   Valentine's Day

Chinese Lovers' Day (but not Valentine's Day)   *Similarities*   *Valentine's Day (but not Chinese Lovers' Day)*

Assessment Sheet 4-1
Crosscultural Teaching: Chinese Lovers' Day

Student Self-evaluation Sheet

Name:					
Score:					
Pre-listening activities offered me background information for the activity	5	4	3	2	1
I was able to comprehend native-speakers' English	5	4	3	2	1
The use of strategies have helped me understand the content of the story in while-listening stage	5	4	3	2	1
Post-listening activities helped me understand the whole activities	5	4	3	2	1
Grading Scale: 5=excellent 4=good 3=average 2=improvement needs 1=poor					

Assessment Sheet 4-2

Cross-cultural Teaching: Chinese Lovers' Day

Answer the following questions.

1. What date is the Chinese Lovers' Day?

   _____

2. Who is Vega?

   _____

3. Who is Cowboy's friend?

   _____

4. What does Cowboy use to catch up with the Queen Mother and Vega?

   _____

5. Why do Cowboy's children cry?

   _____

6. Who can help Cowboy and Vega meet every year?

   _____

7. Why there must rain on Chinese Lover's Day?

   _____

8. Why the magpies would be less in the world of mortals on every seventh of July?

   _____

9. How many fairy maidens would come to the eastern lake to take a shower at nightfall?

   _____

10. What are the differences and similarities between Valentine's Day and Chinese Lover's Day?

   _____

Lesson Five
The Story of Thanksgiving

Objectives:

    1. To learn background information as a pre-listening
       activity

    2. To comprehend native-speakers' English

    3. To understand how to use strategic skills to improve
       listening ability and comprehension

Strategies: transfer, inferencing, note taking, imagery, and
    cooperation

Materials: Focus Sheet5-1, 5-2, 5-3, 5-4, 5-5, Work Sheet5-1,
    5-2, Assessment Sheet5-1, 5-2, and an audiotape

Warm-up: The instructor elicits students' interests and prior
    knowledge by presenting background information (Focus
    Sheet 5-1). Then the instructor asks students to discuss
    briefly with one another questions as follows:

    a) What do you know about Thanksgiving Day?

    b) What did your family usually do for Thanksgiving Day?

    c) What do you know about the story of Thanksgiving Day
       in America?

    Each pair will share one factor or idea. If no one mentions
    the meaning of Thanksgiving Day, the instructor will
    explain that part of the legend.

Task Chain One: Pre-listening stage—to learn background
               knowledge and preview strategies as a
               pre-listening activity

    1. The instructor introduces what strategies are and how
    they can be effectively applied to listening
    comprehension.

2. Distribute Focus Sheet 5-2 to describe transfer, inferencing, note taking, imagery, and cooperation strategies in order to prepare for while-listening stage.

3. Use Focus Sheet 5-3 (imagery strategies) to ask students to think questions as follows:

   1) What do you guess about the topic?

   2) What contents do you expect to hear?

   3) What time of year is it?

Task Chain Two: While-listening stage—to comprehend of native-speakers' English

1. The instructor explains that students are going to listen to a story relating to Thanksgiving.

2. Ready to listen. The instructor plays the audiotape and encourages students to take advantage of imagery strategies while listening to the story.

3. At the first time, students listen to the audiotape without a tapescript.

4. Ask the students if they understand the story or not. If necessary, play the audiotape again.

Task Chain Three: Post-listening stage—to understand how to use strategic skills to improve listening ability and comprehension

1. Students are divided into groups of four.

2. Immediately after listening, the instructor asks volunteer students of each group to describe the ideas that come from the audiotape.

3. Ask students some questions below.

   1) What do you hear actually from the audiotape?

   2) How much do you understand the content?

   3) Did you use strategies to help you while listening?

   4) Did pre-listening activities and strategies help you to realize the content?

4. Use cooperation strategy. Have students discuss and share their ideas from the content (use Work Sheet 5-1) in order to train their communicative competence.
5. Encourage students to ask questions in order to simplify the unclear ideas with their groups or the instructor.
6. After asking and discussing questions, replay the audiotape.
7. Distribute the tapescript (see Focus Sheet 5-4) and ask students what vocabulary they do not understand or lost.
8. Use Focus Sheet 5-5 (transparency) to review and teach new vocabulary.
9. Distribute Work Sheet 5-2 for students, ask them to think what are they thankful for this Thanksgiving.
10. Discuss Work Sheet 5-1 and review the whole content.

Assessment:
1. Observe students' participation in the whole activity, the teacher will score each student or group. (see Table 5.1 Student Portfolio Contents & Table 5.2 Group Assessment Sheet)
2. Students fill out Assessment Sheet 5-1 (Student Self-evaluation Sheet).
3. The teacher will score Work Sheet 5-1 and file Work Sheet 5-1 in students' portfolio.
4. Use Assessment Sheet 5-2 to evaluate what students have learned from the activity.

Focus Sheet5-1
The Story of Thanksgiving
Pre-listening Activity
Background Information on Thanksgiving

In 1620, a little ship called Mayflower came to America. There
were one hundred people came from England on the ship and they
were called Pilgrims. The pilgrims wanted to have their own
church in America because they could not have their own church
in England. The first winter in America was a terrible time
because they did not have much food and clothes and then many
pilgrims got sick. In the spring, Indians came to visit, showed
the pilgrims how to plant corn, and helped them to hunt for the
turkeys. When fall came, they had lots of food for the winter.
The pilgrims invited the Indianans to eat with them. The pilgrims
were thankful for the good things they had. This was the first
Thanksgiving in America.

Focus Sheet5-2

The Story of Thanksgiving

Pre-listening Activity

Transfer, Inferencing, Note-taking, Imagery, and Cooperation

Strategies

Transfer Strategy:

Using previous linguistic knowledge or prior skills to assist comprehension or production.

Inferencing Strategy:

Using information in an oral or written text to guess meaning, predict outcomes, or complete missing parts.

Note-Taking Strategy:

1. Prepare to take notes: short and clear.
2. Note taking helps listeners concentrate on listening.
3. Listening to keywords: it is not necessary to write every word when taking notes.
4. Use abbreviations and symbols: shorten words and use symbols as much as possible.
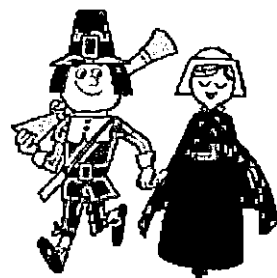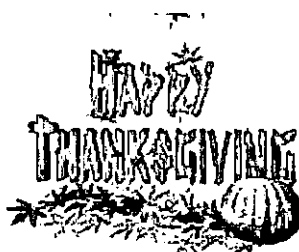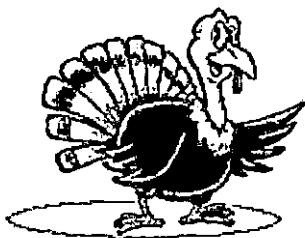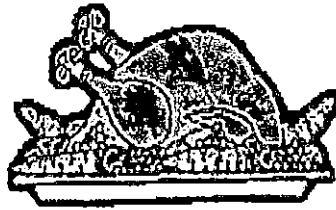
Imagery Strategy:

Using visual images (either mental or actual) to understand or remember new information.

Cooperation Strategy:

Working together with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check a learning activity, or get feedback on oral or written performance.

The Story of Thanksgiving
Pre-listening Activity
Imagery Strategy

When the Pilgrims crossed the Atlantic Ocean in 1620, they landed
on the rocky shores of a territory that was inhabited by the
Wampanoag (Wam pa NO ag) Indians. The Wampanoags were part of
the Algonkian-speaking peoples, a large group that was part of
the Woodland Culture area. These Indians lived in villages along
the coast of what is now Massachusetts and Rhode Island. They
lived in round-roofed houses called wigwams. These were made
of poles covered with flat sheets of elm or birch bark.

The Wampanoags moved several times during each year in order
to get food. In the spring they would fish in the rivers for
salmon and herring. In the planting season they moved to the
forest to hunt deer and other animals. After the end of the
hunting season people moved inland where there was greater
protection from the weather. From December to April they lived
on food that they stored during the earlier months.

The basic dress for men was the breech clout, a length
of deerskin looped over a belt in back and in front. Women
wore deerskin wrap-around skirts. Deerskin leggings and fur
capes made from deer, beaver, otter, and bear skins gave
protection during the colder seasons, and deerskin
moccasins were worn on the feet. Both men and women usually
braided their hair and a single feather was often worn in
the back of the hair by men. They did not have the large
feathered headdresses worn by people in the Plains Culture
area.

Focus Sheet 5-4
The Story of Thanksgiving (con't.)
Post-listening Activity
Tapescript

There were two language groups of Indians in New England at this time. The Iroquois were neighbors to the Algonkian-speaking people. Leaders of the Algonquin and Iroquois people were called "sachems" (SAY chems). Each village had its own sachem and tribal council. Political power flowed upward from the people. Any individual, man or woman, could participate, but among the Algonquins more political power was held by men. Among the Iroquois, however, women held the deciding vote in the final selection of who would represent the group. Both men and women enforced the laws of the village and helped solve problems. The details of their democratic system were so impressive that about 150 years later Benjamin Franklin invited the Iroquois to Albany, New York, to explain their system to a delegation who then developed the "Albany Plan of Union." This document later served as a model for the Articles of Confederation and the Constitution of the United States.

These Indians of the Eastern Woodlands called the turtle, the deer and the fish their brothers. They respected the forest and everything in it as equals. Whenever a hunter made a kill, he was careful to leave behind some bones or meat as a spiritual offering, to help other animals survive. Not to do so would be considered greedy. The Wampanoags also treated each other with respect. Any visitor to a Wampanoag home was provided with a share of whatever food the family had, even if the supply was low. This same courtesy was extended to the Pilgrims when they met.

The Story of Thanksgiving (con't.)

Post-listening Activity

Tapescript

We can only guess what the Wampanoags must have thought when
they first saw the strange ships of the Pilgrims arriving
on their shores. But their custom was to help visitors, and they
treated the newcomers with courtesy. It was mainly because of
their kindness that the Pilgrims survived at all. The wheat the
Pilgrims had brought with them to plant would not grow in the
rocky soil. They needed to learn new ways for a new world, and
the man who came to help them was called "Tisquantum" (Tis
SKWAN tum) or "Squanto" (SKWAN toe).

Squanto was originally from the village of Patuxet (Pa TUK et)
and a member of the Pokanokit Wampanoag nation. Patuxet once
stood on the exact site where the Pilgrims built Plymouth. In
1605, fifteen years before the Pilgrims came, Squanto went to
England with a friendly English explorer named John Weymouth.
He had many adventures and learned to speak English. Squanto
came back to New England with Captain Weymouth. Later Squanto
was captured by a British slaver who raided the village and sold
Squanto to the Spanish in the Caribbean Islands. A Spanish
Franciscan priest befriended Squanto and helped him to get to
Spain and later on a ship to England. Squanto then found Captain
Weymouth, who paid his way back to his homeland. In England
Squanto met Samoset of the Wabanake (Wab NAH key) Tribe,
who had also left his native home with an English explorer.
They both returned together to Patuxet in 1620. When they arrived,
the village was deserted and there were skeletons everywhere.
Everyone in the village had died from an illness the English
slavers had left behind. Squanto and Samoset went to stay with
a neighboring village of Wampanoags.

One year later, in the spring, Squanto and Samoset were hunting along the beach near Patuxet. They were startled to see people from England in their deserted village. For several days, they stayed nearby observing the newcomers. Finally they decided to approach them. Samoset walked into the village and said "welcome," Squanto soon joined him. The Pilgrims were very surprised to meet two Indians who spoke English.

The Pilgrims were not in good condition. They were living in dirt-covered shelters, there was a shortage of food, and nearly half of them had died during the winter. They obviously needed help and the two men were a welcome sight. Squanto, who probably knew more English than any other Indian in North America at that time, decided to stay with the Pilgrims for the next few months and teach them how to survive in this new place. He brought them deer meat and beaver skins. He taught them how to cultivate corn and other new vegetables and how to build Indian-style houses. He pointed out poisonous plants and showed how other plants could be used as medicine. He explained how to dig and cook clams, how to get sap from the maple trees, use fish for fertilizer, and dozens of other skills needed for their survival.

By the time fall arrived things were going much better for the Pilgrims, thanks to the help they had received. The corn they planted had grown well. There was enough food to last the winter. They were living comfortably in their Indian-style wigwams and had also managed to build one European-style building out of squared logs. This was their church. They were now in better

health, and they knew more about surviving in this new land. The Pilgrims decided to have a thanksgiving feast to celebrate their good fortune. They had observed thanksgiving feasts in November as religious obligations in England for many years before coming to the New World.

The Algonkian tribes held six thanksgiving festivals during the year. The beginning of the Algonkian year was marked by the Maple Dance which gave thanks to the Creator for the maple tree and its syrup. This ceremony occurred when the weather was warm enough for the sap to run in the maple trees, sometimes as early as February. Second was the planting feast, where the seeds were blessed. The strawberry festival was next, celebrating the first fruits of the season. Summer brought the green corn festival to give thanks for the ripening corn. In late fall, the harvest festival gave thanks for the food they had grown. Mid-winter was the last ceremony of the old year. When the Indians sat down to the "first Thanksgiving" with the Pilgrims, it was really the fifth thanksgiving of the year for them!

Captain Miles Standish, the leader of the Pilgrims, invited Squanto, Samoset, Massasoit (the leader of the Wampanoags), and their immediate families to join them for a celebration, but they had no idea how big Indian families could be. As the Thanksgiving feast began, the Pilgrims were overwhelmed at the large turnout of ninety relatives that Squanto and Samoset brought with them. The Pilgrims were not prepared to feed a gathering of people that large for three days. Seeing this, Massasoit gave orders to his men within the first hour of his

arrival to go home and get more food. Thus it happened that the
Indians supplied the majority of the food: Five deer, many wild
turkeys, fish, beans, squash, corn soup, corn bread, and berries.
Captain Standish sat at one end of a long table and the Clan
Chief Massasoit sat at the other end. For the first time the
Wampanoag people were sitting at a table to eat instead of
on mats or furs spread on the ground. The Indian women sat
together with the Indian men to eat. The Pilgrim women, however,
stood quietly behind the table and waited until after their men
had eaten, since that was their custom.

For three days the Wampanoags feasted with the Pilgrims. It was
a special time of friendship between two very different groups
of people. A peace and friendship agreement was made between
Massasoit and Miles Standish giving the Pilgrims the clearing
in the forest where the old Patuxet village once stood to build
their new town of Plymouth.

It would be very good to say that this friendship lasted a long
time; but, unfortunately, that was not to be. More English people
came to America, and they were not in need of help from the Indians
as were the original Pilgrims. Many of the newcomers forgot the
help the Indians had given them. Mistrust started to grow and
the friendship weakened. The Pilgrims started telling their
Indian neighbors that their Indian religion and Indian customs
were wrong. The Pilgrims displayed an intolerance toward
the Indian religion similar to the intolerance displayed
toward the less popular religions in Europe. The relationship
deteriorated and within a few years the children of the people

who ate together at the first Thanksgiving were killing one
another in what came to be called King Phillip's War. It is sad
to think that this happened, but it is important to understand
all of the story and not just the happy part. Today the town
of Plymouth Rock has a Thanksgiving ceremony each year in
remembrance of the first Thanksgiving. There are still Wampanoag
people living in Massachusetts. In 1970, they asked one of them
to speak at the ceremony to mark the 350th anniversary of the
Pilgrim's arrival. Here is part of what was said:
"Today is a time of celebrating for you -- a time of looking
back to the first days of white people in America. But it is
not a time of celebrating for me. It is with a heavy heart that
I look back upon what happened to my People. When the Pilgrims
arrived, we, the Wampanoags, welcomed them with open arms, little
knowing that it was the beginning of the end. That before 50
years were to pass, the Wampanoag would no longer be a tribe.
That we and other Indians living near the settlers would be killed
by their guns or dead from diseases that we caught from them.
Let us always remember, the Indian is and was just as human
as the white people. Although our way of life is almost gone,
we, the Wampanoags, still walk the lands of Massachusetts. What
has happened cannot be changed. But today we work toward a
better America, a more Indian America where people and nature
once again are important."

Focus Sheet5-5
The Story of Thanksgiving
Post-listening Activity
New Vocabulary
(Transparency)

Pilgrims	inhabited	Wampanoag
Algonkian	wigwams	protection
breech	clout	looped
moccasins	braided	council
delegation	Tisquantum	Squanto
fertilizer	overwhelmed	intolerance

Work Sheet 5-1
The Story of Thanksgiving
Post-listening Activity: Cooperation Strategy
Discussion Topic: Thanksgiving Day

1. Think about what the Wampanoags did to obtain food during the different seasons of the year?

2. Explain the Iroquois system of government.

3. Describe the "First Thanksgiving" in your own words.

4. What do you think would have happened to the Pilgrims if they had not been helped by the Indians?

The Story of Thanksgiving
Post-listening Activity
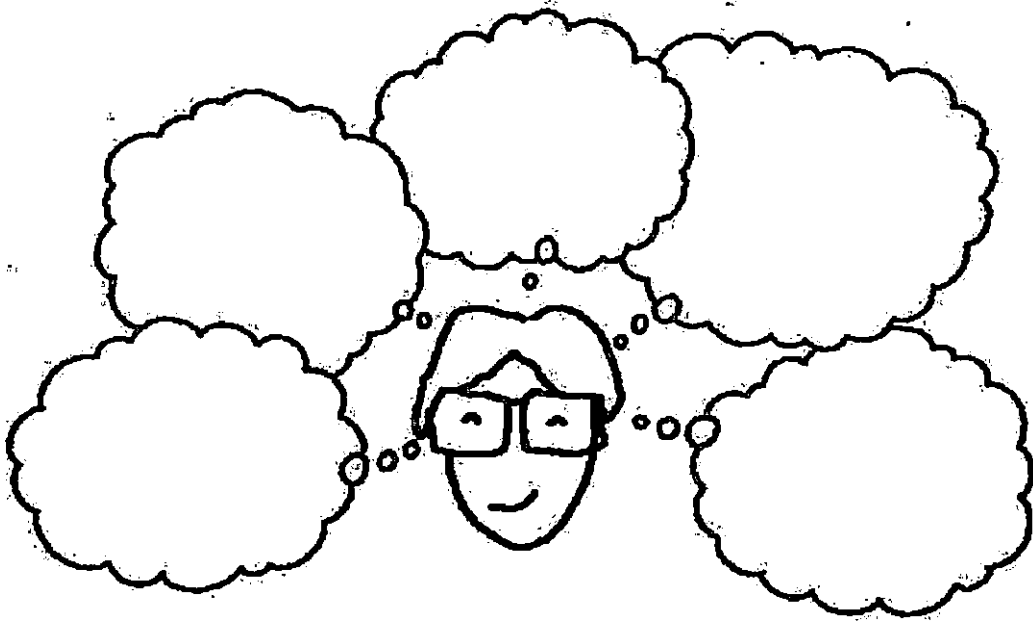
What are you thankful for this Thanksgiving?

Assessment Sheet 5-1

The Story of Thanksgiving

Student Self-evaluation Sheet

Name:	
Score:	
Pre-listening activities offered me background information for the activity	5 4 3 2 1
I was able to comprehend native-speakers' English	5 4 3 2 1
The use of strategies have helped me understand the content of the story in while-listening stage	5 4 3 2 1
Post-listening activities helped me understand the whole activities	5 4 3 2 1
Grading Scale: 5=excellent 4=good 3=average 2=improvement needs 1=poor	

Assessment Sheet 5-2
The Story of Thanksgiving

I. Answer the following questions.

1. Why did the Wampanoags have to move several each year?

_____

2. What was the basic dress for man and women (the Wampanoags)?

_____

3. Describe four ways in which Squanto helped the Pilgrims.

_____

4. Who was "Tisquantum" and what village was he from?

_____

5. Explain how Squanto learned to speak English.

_____

II. Circle the correct answer.

1. The Indians showed the Pilgrims how to plan _____
   (corn, grass, tree)

2. The Indians of the Eastern Woodlands respected the
   _____ and everything in it as equal.
            (animals, God, forest)

3. The Wampanoags were part of what culture area _____
        (the Woodland Culture, New England, Europe)

4. _____ was originally from the village of Patuxet and a
        member of the Pokanokit Wampanoag nation.
        (Wabanake, Squanto, Samoset)

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