Developing the English communicative competence of junior college students in Taiwan: A curriculum design project

Shu-Hsien Huang

DEVELOPING THE ENGLISH COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE OF JUNIOR

COLLEGE STUDENTS IN TAIWAN: A CURRICULUM DESIGN PROJECT

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

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by

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DEVELOPING THE ENGLISH COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE OF JUNIOR

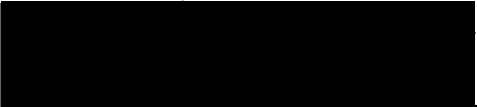# COLLEGE STUDENTS IN TAIWAN: A CURRICULUM DESIGN PROJECT

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this project is to design a curriculum to develop the English communicative competence of five-year junior college students in Taiwan. The teaching and learning of English as a foreign language in Taiwan has extended over a considerable period of time. However, the results are far from satisfactory. English language instruction results in students who have fair competence in reading, but have very limited communicative competence, the ability to use language to communicate functionally and appropriately in specific contexts.

Teachers of English in the junior high schools and senior high schools of Taiwan often adopt examination-oriented teaching methods in order to prepare students for the highly competitive college entrance examinations. Under the influence of the pressure of entrance examination mixed with conventional teaching methods, nobody really cares about learning or teaching communicative skills. In contrast to the conventional junior and senior high schools, however, students attending five-year junior college are granted more opportunities to develop their communicative competence. Therefore, this project is targeted toward that level.

Chapter One explores the issues of English education in Taiwan and at the five-year junior college level. Chapter Two highlights "communicative competence" as the goal of language learning and reviews related literature

such as communicative competence, Krashen's Monitor Model, integrated language arts, cooperative language learning and simulation. Chapter Three provides the theoretical foundation of the project. In Appendix A, I design two units of lessons which implement communicative language teaching, and propose my plan for evaluating the effectiveness of the project once it has been completed.

English is important to the people of Taiwan, especially in such diverse fields as engineering, business and education. Some students of the five-year junior college may go to the United States to pursue advanced study or travel when they graduate. The curriculum project tries to improve students' communicative competence, because the most important goal for learning English is that students can use the language, not just know the language.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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Background of the Study

The teaching and learning of English as a foreign language in Taiwan has extended over a considerable period of time. The goal has been to train students to have a good command of the four language skills, listening, speaking, reading and writing. Despite this goal and intensive effort, the results are far from satisfactory. Generally speaking, English language instruction results in students who have fair competence in reading, and very poor competence in the other three skills; that is, they have very limited communicative competence, the ability to use language to communicate functionally and appropriately in specific contexts. It is a common phenomenon for students to be tongue-tied when it comes to speaking English with forei~ even though they have attended English courses for three to six ye~

English Education in Taiwan

In Taiwan, English is a required course in junior high, senior high school and college. It is an important subject on entrance examinations for senior high schools, universities, and colleges. Senior high school entrance examinations include translation, multiple choice, and /or fill-in-the-blank questions on word, usage, reading, comprehension, grammar, and sentence construction. College entrance examinations are similar, but include a composition section. Although

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English is a compulsory course for students upon entering junior high schools,

there is no natural English input for the students from the community in general.

Almost the only English input for students comes from the teachers and teaching

materials. Under such circumstances, the students find it very difficult to extend

their opportunities to improve their communicative competence. In addition,

teaching English in the junior high schools and senior high schools of Taiwan is

examination-oriented. To prepare high school students for the competitive

examination, most of the high school teachers often adopt examination-oriented

teaching methods.

Teaching English in the schools reflects the pressure to prepare for the

examinations. Teachers are expected and even rewarded for using tests in their

daily instruction. Students are constantly being tested in the junior and senior

high schools in order to be promoted to the next level. Preparation for such

tests includes memorization of grammar rules, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

Teaching relies heavily on translation from English to Chinese and explanation

of the texts. Even conversation, pronunciation, and intonation are taught by

having the students read, and then being tested in written format.

Under the influence of the pressure of entrance examination mixed with

conventional teaching methods, nobody really cares about learning or teaching

communicative skills. Moreover, there does not seem be much of a chance that

the situation can be redressed.

Besides the conventional senior high school, there are two other

categories of secondary schools in Taiwan. One is the senior vocational school and the other is the five-year junior college. In contrast to the conventional junior and senior high schools, students attending five-year junior college are granted more opportunities to develop their communicative competence. In this study, I make special reference to the instruction of English at the five-year junior college, for the following reasons: (1) I have three years' experience as a teaching assistant at a five-year junior college and I will be working at that level when I return to Taiwan; (2) there is no pressure of the Joint College Entrance Examination for the majority of the five-year junior college students (except those who want to transfer to universities), so the English teachers may not feel constrained to implement test-oriented curricula and may be able to experiment with communicative teaching methods discussed in this study.

English Education at the Five-Year Junior College

The five-year junior college articulates with the junior high school, providing three years of secondary studies in addition two years of college work. The last two years are similar in the junior college programs found in the United States. The goal of the five-year junior college is to develop students' practical skills, not to prepare students to pass the Joint College Entrance as does the conventional academic high school (Smith, 1991).

English is a required course for students at a five-year junior college. There are three hours a week per semester of English class. So far, most five-

year junior colleges offer only a general English class. The objective of the general class is to develop students' basic communicative competence and practical English proficiency.

However, in a typical English class, the most popular English teaching method is still the grammar-translation method. Teachers dominate the classroom. Students sit silently to listen, while the teacher tries every means to translate. The typical activities are the explanation of vocabulary, idioms and phrases, grammar, and translation. The teachers use uniform textbooks to take students through a text on a word by word, phrase by phrase basis, explaining points of vocabulary, syntax and content along the way. Most homework assigned is grammar exercise or translation between Chinese and English. However, most texts and materials are based on artificial sequencing of grammatical structures and stilted, often irrelevant, dialogues and topics. Effective teaching should be based on assisting students to learn the language they need to function successfully in everyday life and in future situations where they will be using English (Rodrigues & White, 1993). The current teaching materials and grammar-translation method lack transfer to students' real life. Also, this kind of teaching method makes English class boring, and does not motivate students' interest. Teaching form instead of content leads to artificial learning rather than more natural acquisition. Emphasis on grammatical accuracy makes students so afraid to make mistakes that they hesitate to speak in English. They get bogged down in learning rules and pay too much

conscious attention to the forms of language and thus hinder their progress in communicative competence. Although some teachers try to teach in a communicative approach and make students speak up in the classroom, it fails for two basic reasons. (1) The teaching method is too intimidating; some teachers try to ask students to discuss the teaching materials all in English (asking them in English, and expecting them to answer in English). This makes students feel afraid to speak. (2) The teaching materials are beyond the abilities of the students; some teachers choose their materials without considering the abilities of the students. They set their objectives too high, and students cannot comprehend and have difficulty discussing the materials. Language should be acquired by understanding messages that contain new structure, messages that are a little beyond the students' current level of competence (Krashen, 1982).

Generally speaking, the students attending five-year junior college have lower English competence and performance (except those who major in the language program) than the students in the senior high school do because the students who get high scores in the joint entrance examination always choose to attend the senior high school. Most five-year junior college students usually did not do well in the examination when they were at junior high schools. Under the influence of their past experience of frustration, most of them are afraid of or even hate English. Fear is a common factor influencing English learning among the students at five-year junior colleges despite the fact that some students can do well in the tests.

At present, in order to evaluate these students' English learning, there are midterm and final examinations for each semester, together with some random quizzes and tests given by the teacher in the classes. Generally speaking, vocabulary, idioms and phrases, grammar rule and translation are tested. Because oral performance is not required on the tests, students have limited or no communicative competence even though they have no pressure from the joint entrance examination.

The grammar-translation method has its own values in other English teaching situations. For one thing, it aims to teach grammar via translating it into students' own native language during the classroom sessions, thus saving a lot of time in keeping students understand the grammatical knowledge. Secondly, it is also very helpful for clarifying the abstract terms in students' native tongue. Thirdly, for a larger class, the teacher may use it to address questions which concern all of the students, thus enabling him or her to take care of most of the students.

However, it also has a lot of weaknesses. For instance, students do not have enough opportunities to listen, to speak, to express or discuss with others in English (Sprenger, 1984). Furthermore, because of the overemphasis on grammar translation at the expense of speaking, listening and writing, students lack communicative competence. Merely relying on grammar translation is insufficient. Therefore, more effective methods should be adopted for English teaching at five-year junior colleges.

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The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this project is to design a curriculum to develop English communicative competence of five-year junior college students in Taiwan. My goal is to design a curriculum that will meet the practical needs of the students, motivate their interest, and reduce their anxiety. To fulfill this purpose, the teaching activities should address the following aspects:

(1) Translation is a useful tool, but not as a substitute for practice with the language. Structure and grammar have their values, but also not as a substitute. Students should know how to use English to communicate functionally and interactively. Therefore, communicative competence should be the goal of language learning.

(2) The current teaching methods have a lot of weaknesses. For instance, teaching form instead of content leads to artificial learning rather than natural acquisition; emphasis on linguistic accuracy makes students afraid of making mistakes and become overly cautious about communicating in English; mystifying teaching methods and materials cannot give students comprehensible input; and the intimidating teaching methods and reliance on tests make students anxious, scared, and frustrated about learning English. Therefore, I will investigate Krashen's Monitor Model to combine second language acquisition with language teaching and learning.

(3) Because the grammar-translation method is based on reading, students have little or no opportunity to talk, listen, and write, and do not know how to

solve problems they may face. Therefore, Integrated language arts can help students improve their four basic communicative skills and solve problems at the same time.

(4) The current teaching methods provide students little opportunity to interact with others to practice communicative skills. Furthermore, under the influence of competitive examination system, the result of learning is either "I win, you lose" or "I lose, you win." Students feel anxious and unhappy. Also, they become individualistic and do not know how to work collaboratively to achieve a common goal. Thus, using cooperative learning can offer students more chances to develop their communicative competence and social skills in a non-threatening environment.

(5) Because the teaching methods and materials often have little real-life meaning and are not relevant in everyday conversation, students cannot transfer them to the real world and feel bored in English class. Therefore, authentic materials and varied methods such as situational simulation can transfer students' learning to the real world, motivate their interest, and make them feel the joy of being able to learn and apply the language practically and rapidly.

The Content of the Project

In line with these propositions, Chapter Two highlights "communicative competence" as the goal of language learning and reviews related literature such as Krashen's Monitor Model, integrated language arts, cooperative

language learning and simulation. Chapter Three provides the theoretical foundation of the project. In this section, I will explain my philosophical foundations, teaching strategies, and assumptions about the learning process, and set up some principles of importance. In Appendix A, I will include two units of lessons based on the principles of importance and propose my plan for evaluating the effectiveness of the project once it has been carried out.

The Significance of the Project

The importance of English to the people of Taiwan is immense. It links Taiwan to the world of business and enables Taiwanese to stay in touch with the most recent advances from such diverse fields as engineering and education. Some students of the five-year junior college may go to the United States to pursue advanced study when they graduate from the schools. Also, some of them may go to the United States to travel. Therefore, communicative competence is very important to them. The curriculum design tries to improve students' communicative competence to meet this need, because the most important goal for learning English is that student can use the language, not just know the language.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Communicative Competence as the Goal of Language Learning

That the learner should be able to communicate in the foreign language

has become the ultimate goal of language teaching. Schumann (1972) reports

that much literature in foreign language education has emphasized the need to

teach students how to communicate in the target language. Widdowson (1978)

points out that in the field of foreign language teaching, we are in the midst of a

paradigm shift toward an emphasis on language as communication. Current

research has shown that meaningful communication is needed for acquisition to

occur (Gingras, 1978). Harmer (1982) sums up the focus on communicative

competence as follows:

> Everything is "communicative" these days. Published courses almost
> exclusively advertise themselves as being the latest in "communicative
> methodology," and as having "communication" as their main aim.
> Conversation papers deal with the "communicative use" of language, and
> the teaching of English as communication has changed from the title of an
> important article in an earlier issue of *ELT Journal* into a received truth of
> the English language teaching profession. No self-respecting teacher,
> materials designer, or applied linguist would think of teaching English
> as anything else (p. 164).

In the past, foreign languages have been taught or learned as a system

and not for communication purposes. As Eggers (1987) points out, "students

who shine in grammar don't necessarily sparkle in extended oral discourse"

(p. 2). Audiolinguistic methods of foreign language teaching include mechanical

drills of structural pattern practice as well as "parroting" in dialogues. The

consequence was learners' frequent complaints of frustration. For example,

Rivers (1976) quotes a learner as saying "I cannot say anything off the top of my

head; it all comes out as phrases from the book" (p. 21). Again, in the voices of

learners, "I just didn't know what to say," "I can't find words to express it," and "I

was speechless" (Doughty and Thornton, 1973, p. 25). Keeping in mind the

importance of communication as explained above, one can understand what

went wrong in foreign language teaching and learning: Grammar superseded

communication.

What Is Communicative Competence?

The development of communicative competence is generally recognized

to be the ultimate goal of foreign language teaching. But what is "communicative

competence" ? The term "communicative competence" was introduced by

Hymes (1972), a sociolinguist who criticized Chomsky's (1965) notion of

competence as too limited in its failure to consider the social and functional rules

of language. Communicative competence is different from linguistic

competence. Linguistic competence is knowledge about language forms, but

communicative competence contains knowledge and skills that enable people to

communicate functionally and interactively (Brown, 1994). Therefore,

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). That means

language is used for social purposes, such as commanding, persuading, negotiating, and developing interpersonal relationships. Thus, when people learn a language, they should also learn when, where, and how to use language appropriately.

According to Canale's (1983) definition, communicative competence consists of four components: Grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Grammatical competence reflects the use of the linguistic system itself, but the others define the more communicative aspects of language. Grammatical competence encompasses "knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology" (Canale and Swain, 1980, p. 29). This competence emphasizes the linguistic knowledge to speak and write correctly. It focuses on sentence-level grammar.

In contrast, discourse competence focuses more on the relationships between sentences. It involves the ability to "connect sentences in stretches of discourse and to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances" (Brown, 1994, p. 228). Discourse could range from simple spoken conversation to long written texts. An example of discourse competence can be seen in the following conversation between a foreign student and a clerk in a bank:

Student: I'd like to cash a traveler's check.

Clerk: Do you have some identification?

Students: Is my passport okay?

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Clerk: Sure! Do you want large bills or small bills?

Students: Please give me "twenties" or smaller.

The foreign student can respond appropriately to the clerk's request and questions. He can also express his request clearly. This conversation displays that the foreign student has discourse competence. Many people have similar experiences: In some situations, a speaker speaks grammatically correctly, but his utterance leaves others bewildered. The utterance seems unconnected to the conversation. This kind of disconnected utterance shows that the speaker lacks discourse competence.

Beyond the sentences and discourse levels, sociolinguistic competence "requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: The roles of the participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction. Only in a full context of this kind can judgements be made on the appropriateness of a particular utterance" (Savignon, 1983, p. 37). That means that learners should know the sociocultural rules of language and know how to produce and understand language in different sociocultural contexts. The following example between an American student and a foreign student shows that the foreign student lacks sociolinguistic competence.

American student: Would you like to come to my house for dinner?

Foreign student: It's O.K.

If the foreign student wants to go to the American student's house for dinner, she should reply happily "Sure, that sounds a great idea." If she does

not want to go, she should reply politely, such as "I'm sorry I can't. I'd like to but I'm busy." Anyway, she should not just reply coldly "It's O.K." Obviously, she does not know about the social and cultural rules of the language although she knows about the linguistic rules of the language.

Strategic competence is "the verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to insufficient competence" (Canale and Swain, 1980, p. 30). In a follow-up to the previous article, Swain revised her earlier notion of strategic competence to contain "communication strategies that may be called into action either to enhance the effectiveness of communication or to compensate for breakdowns" (Swain, 1984, p. 189). Strategic competence is knowledge how to support communication through "paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, hesitation, avoidance, and guessing, as well as shifts in register and style" (Savignon, 1983, p. 40-41). It is also "an ability to select an effective means of performing a communicative act that enables the listener/reader to identify the intended referent" (Yule and Tarone, 1990, p. 181). In short, strategic competence is the way people manipulate language, through verbal or nonverbal behavior, to meet their communicative goals. For example, one student wants to buy napkins in a store, but he is not sure of the word. Therefore, he asks for "a square piece of cloth or paper. It is used for cleaning one's hands and lips during a meal." He also uses gestures to help his expression. In this example, the student shows his strategic competence by

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paraphrasing and using nonverbal behavior to remedy problems caused by communication breakdowns.

Linguistic competence enables a speaker to produce flawless grammatical and semantic sentences, but it cannot qualify the speaker as a true communicator. Only communicative competence can make a person produce appropriate utterances in a given specific context. Obviously, the scope of communicative competence is a lot wider than that of linguistic competence; communicative competence includes not only the knowledge and skills of the linguistic system, but also the meaningfulness of the language. A communicative speaker knows how to function in daily interpersonal exchanges by transforming discrete skills from decontextualized knowledge to socially useful exchange; he or she can communicate in a linguistically accurate, communicatively fluent and sociolinguistically appropriate way in specific contexts (Canale and Swain, 1980). Rivers (1972) describes this contrast as "skill-getting" versus "skill-using" and proposes the schema (see Figure 1) about the process involved in learning to communicate.

As manifested by the schema, foreign language teaching in which communicative competence is the goal should include both skill-getting and skill-using, which may correspond to what Widdowson (1978) advocates as language in use. The relationship between skill-getting and skill-using is not sequential but parallel; bridging the gap between skill-getting and skill-using is not automatic (Rivers and Temerley, 1978). Thus, stress should be laid on how

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linguistic forms are to be used to convey a speaker's message during

interaction.

PERCEPTION
(of units, categories, and functions)

COGNITION
(knowledge)

ABSTRACTION
(internalizing rules relating categories
and functions)

SKILL -
GETTING

ARTICULATION
(practice of sequences of sounds)

PRODUCTION
(or pseudo-
communication)

CONSTRUCTION
(practice in formulating communications)

RECEPTION
(comprehension of a message)

SKILL
USING

INTERACTION
(or real
communication)

MOTIVATION
(to communication)

EXPRESSION
(conveying personal meaning)

Figure 1. Process involved in learning to communicate
(Rivers, 1972, p. 73; Rivers and Temperley, 1978, p. 4)

In light of this question, Rivers and Temerley talk about pseudo-communication and real communication. In a foreign language class, a teacher will normally want students to carry out certain activities such as oral practice, dialogue recitation, and doing exercises, etc. Such practice, Rivers argues, rarely passes beyond pseudo-communication because it is externally directed, not produced by the learners. According to Rivers, truly communicative activities should direct students towards being autonomous in spontaneous expression, using language creatively. Thus, teachers must sometimes allow the students to be autonomous, and give the students practice in relying on their own resources and using their ingenuity. When students interact freely and independently with others, they can learn the control and ready retrieval essential for fluent language use (Rivers, 1972). In other words, for real communication, teachers must work out situations where the students are allowed to be on their own, trying to practice using the target language for the purpose of communication.

In addition, Cummins (1980) notes two different but related language skills: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skill (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). BICS contains the language skills that help people communicate in everyday life. According to Cummins, BICS is context-embedded because participants can give feedback to one another, and the situation itself provides cues that help understanding and furnish meaning. In contrast, CALP is context-reduced communication because there are few

concrete cues to help in comprehension. It is the language needed to do school tasks successfully. Such tasks are more abstract and decontextualized. Students just depend on language to attain meaning. Students need to master much more than everyday English to have access to the school curriculum. Therefore, teachers should enrich the language that students use for academic communication such as using reference materials resourcefully, taking effective notes, and summarizing materials adequately. In fact, students who are fluent in BICS may still have difficulty in the development of CALP (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). Therefore, communicative competence should take both skills into consideration.

Pedagogical Implications of Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative competence has been heatedly discussed in the field of foreign language teaching. It is tightly linked to a teaching approach known as "communicative language teaching" or the "communicative approach."

From a pedagogical point of view, we need communicative language teaching to develop learners' communicative competence. According to Brown (1994), there are four interconnected characteristics in communicative language teaching: (1) Class goals are focused on developing all the components of communicative competence and not just grammatical or linguistic competence; (2) language techniques are designed to involve learners in the pragmatic, authentic use of language for meaningful communicative purposes; systematic

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language forms are not the main focus but rather aspects of language that make the learner able to achieve those purposes; (3) fluency and accuracy are complementary principles underlying communicative techniques; fluency may sometimes play a more important role than accuracy to keep learners meaningfully involved in language use; and (4) students eventually have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts.

Communicative language teaching implies the use of a great deal of authentic language, because the goal is to build fluency. However, fluency should never be encouraged at the expense of clear, direct communication. Teachers should encourage students to deal with unrehearsed situations in guided practice. The latter characteristic of communicative language teaching often makes it difficult for a nonnative speaking teacher who is not very proficient in the foreign language to teach effectively. Drills, rehearsed exercises, and discussions of grammatical rules are much simpler for the average nonnative speaking teachers to contend with than authentic speech. Nevertheless, such technology as films, videos, television, audio tapes can help teachers achieve communicative goals in the classroom. In addition, specific emphasis on improving language proficiency during teacher education may also help these teachers to improve their target language skills (Brown, 1994).

Since the notion of communicative competence has gained attention, syllabus design has become vitally important in the communicative approach toward language teaching. Syllabus design is usually regarded as a bridge

between theory and practice in communicative language teaching.

An important forerunner of communicative language teaching was the notional-functional syllabus. To fulfill the purpose of communicative language teaching, curriculum design focuses on functions of language such as identifying, reporting, denying, asking permission, and apologizing. The important characteristic of the notional-functional syllabus is that the elements of a foreign language curriculum are the social functions of the language. A typical session in a lesson includes dialogues, conversation practice with classmates, situations in which the students figure out "what would I say," role-plays, chart work, multiple-choice exercises on functional considerations, one-sided dialogues in which the student fills in responses, nonverbal considerations, and discussion activities (Brown, 1994). The notional-functional curriculum has been criticized for ignoring form, but this is obviously not the case. In fact, Wilkins (1976) points out that "The advantage of the notional syllabus is that it takes the communicative facts of language into account from the beginning without losing sight of grammatical and situational factors" (p. 19). That means a notional-functional syllabus integrates both form and function and contains types of meaning as well as the forms in which those meanings will be expressed.

Communicative competence is "not a complication of items in memory but a set of strategies or creative procedures for realizing the value of linguistic elements in contexts of use, an ability to make sense as a participant in discourse, whether spoken or written, by the skillful deployment of shared

knowledge of code resources and rules of language use" (Widdowson, 1978,

p. 34). Therefore, language teachers should be sensitive to the importance of

teaching foreign or second languages for communicative purposes (not just for

the purpose of "passing a test" or "fulfilling a requirement"). Especially in

Taiwan, teachers should focus on more function than structure, because so

much time has already been spent on teaching grammar. The primary goal of

any communicative language teaching is to teach communicative competence,

which should not only include grammatical competence, but also discourse,

sociocultural and strategic competence. Only by balancing function and form

can we accomplish the goals of communicative language teaching.

Krashen's Monitor Model

To fulfill the goals of communicative competence, I would like to

investigate Krashen's Monitor Model to combine second language acquisition

with language teaching and learning. Krashen's (1982) Monitor Model is the

principal nativist theory of second language acquisition and has probably "had

the greatest impact on classroom practice" (Freeman & Freeman, 1994, p. 86).

The Monitor Model includes five hypotheses: (1) The acquisition-learning

hypothesis, (2) the natural order hypothesis, (3) the monitor hypothesis, (4) the

input hypothesis, and (5) the affective filter hypotheses.

Five Hypotheses

The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis. This hypothesis distinguishes acquisition from learning. Krashen claims that adult second language learners develop two independent systems for internalizing the target language. One is "acquisition," a subconscious and intuitive process of creatively constructing the system of a language. The other is "learning," a conscious process, and is the result of formal language learning or self- study. Acquisition occurs when language is used in a natural communication situation. Acquirers may claim that some sentences feel right, although they cannot offer direct evidence to say why these sentences are right. On the other hand, learning is knowing formal knowledge and rules about a language. Formal teaching provides the learner with explicit knowledge about the rules of a language to learn. So learning is connected with explicit instruction (Krashen, 1977).

Krashen asserts acquisition and learning are two separate processes in the mastering of a second language. Formal teaching of grammatical rules is not a part of acquisition (Krashen, 1985). He claims "Research in child language acquisition suggests that quite strongly that teaching [the rule of a language]........ does not facilitate acquisition. Error correction in particular does not seem to help" (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p. 27). In other words, he thought conscious learning and subconscious acquisition are mutually exclusive and there is no interface between acquisition and learning.

Many researchers have criticized Krashen for his fuzzy distinction

between learning and acquisition. Ellis (1986) argues that the distinction between learning and acquisition cannot be tested. McLaughlin (1990) claims that the distinction between conscious and unconscious is misleading. Brown (1994) also finds that the distinction between conscious and unconscious is highly suspect. In addition, Shannon (1994) remarks that a lot of language teachers think learning and acquisition are interwoven and impossible to separate.

Despite these criticisms, Krashen has pointed out the importance of natural processes in learning a language. As Diaz-Rico & Weed (1995, p. 9) point out "Children learn more language when they chat with one another as they stroke the classroom pet rabbit or recreate meiosis with modeling clay than by sitting and discussing the appropriate use of an apostrophe." Students acquire language when they use it. Therefore, to avoid artificial learning, teachers should spend more time on teaching communicative activities that foster acquisition.

The Natural Order Hypothesis. This hypothesis states that a language is acquired in a predictable order. Certain rules are acquired before others (Krashen, 1977). As children acquire their first language, many second language researchers have shown that there seems to be a natural order of acquisition of English morphemes. When people learn a second language, the order of second language acquisition is a little different from that of a first language acquirer, but there are several similarities between them. For

example, students can add the plural "s" morpheme to a word like "book" to form

"books" earlier than they can add the third person "s" to work in "She works"

(Freeman & Freeman, 1994). This natural order is best acquired in normal

communicative situations, not by direct grammar instruction. Therefore, a

teacher cannot expect that students can form perfect grammatical structures

even after intensive drilling (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

McLaughlin (1987) criticizes Krashen's work, claiming that there is no

adequate evidence for the natural order hypothesis and many studies show that

the ability of learners' acquisition is varied. Ellis (1994) also disputes the

hypothesis by discussing the variability that learners display across different

linguistic and situational contexts.

Despite flaws in this hypothesis, what we learn from it is that we should

not overtly correct the errors in students' writing and speech if prerequisite skills

are the focus. In addition, we should find ways to support students'

development.

The Monitor Hypothesis. The hypothesis assumes that there is a device

for gaining accuracy. Krashen pointed out that "Speech production is initiated in

adult second language by an acquired system. When conditions allow, the

consciously learned system can intrude and alter the syntactic shape of the

utterance before it is spoken" (Krashen, 1977, p. 154). In other words,

acquisition initiates an utterance and is relevant along with accuracy; but

learning is used to develop a monitor, a mechanism to detect errors that we

produce. However, the monitor cannot always be used. In a rapid verbal

exchange, people have very little time to correct grammar. Using the monitor

during speaking may sacrifice fluency because a person cannot concentrate on

the form and the content at the same time. The monitor is useful in the editing

stage of writing because a writer has time to think about correct form. However,

at the rough-draft stage, if writers slow down and think about how to correct

form, they may forget what they are going to write (Freeman & Freeman, 1995).

The monitor is helpful if it is not over-or underused. Krashen (1985) points out

that the monitor can only check and cannot produce the output; it serves just as

an editor: "According to the theory, the practice of error correction affects

learning, not acquisition. When our errors are corrected, we rethink and adjust

our conscious rules" (p. 8). That means learning cannot become acquisition;

only exposing oneself to a "natural" language-rich environment can develop

acquisition. According to Krashen, the monitor has limited value because it can

only be available under certain situations; sometimes it even could hinder the

fluency of the message people try to convey when they overuse it.

The Monitor hypothesis is also criticized by many researchers. Although

Krashen's claims that children are more successful language learners because

they are not burdened by the monitor, McLaughlin (1987) argues that

adolescents are more successful learners than are children. Shannon (1994)

also points out that the monitor is impossible to observe or distinguish during its

use.

Although the Monitor hypothesis may have some problems, we know that we should not expect our students to apply rules consciously during the oral communicative activities in the classroom, and we should not overly correct the grammatical errors the students make unless the errors will interfere with the messages and meanings. For example, if a student put a blue book on the desk when he was asked to put a green book there, he has misunderstood the message and his teacher needed to help him understand. However, if in answer to "What is on the desk?" he said, "a orange book," he should not be corrected to say "an" rather than "a." If indeed an orange book was there, the message was clear. He answered correctly. There was communication. The student is encouraged by his success and so will continue to listen and speak. As he continues to listen to messages and produce messages, he will eventually correct his own grammar. In contrast, students become frustrated because of negative experiences, being told their pronunciation is wrong and that their grammar is wrong. If students experience failure after failure, they may conclude, consciously or unconsciously, that they are incapable of learning and finally refuse to learn or speak English.

The Input Hypothesis. The hypothesis asserts that language are acquired by getting comprehensible messages. Krashen claims that "an important condition for language acquisition to occur is that the acquirer understand (via hearing or reading) input language that contains structure 'a bit beyond' his or her current level of competence...If an acquirer is at stage or level

i, the input he or she understands should contain i +1" (Krashen, 1981a, p. 100).

In other words, for acquiring a language, learners should be exposed to input

that is slightly beyond their current ability level. Krashen calls this input "i+1". If

the input includes no structures beyond current competence (i+0), no acquisition

occurs. On the other hand, if the input is too far beyond the learner's current

competence (this might be said "i+10"), it becomes incomprehensible noise, and

cannot produce acquisition (Freeman & Freeman, 1994).

According to Krashen, speaking cannot be taught directly or very soon;

speech will "emerge" when the acquirer has built up enough comprehensible

input. Therefore, simply exposing a learner to a second language is not

sufficient. A learner improves his or her competence by receiving what Krashen

calls "comprehensible" messages. However, what makes speech

comprehensible? As Diaz-Rico & Weed point out, "simplified language may not

be the central criterion in making language comprehensible; rather, focusing on

the message and its relevance for the language learners within the environment

appears to be more critical" (1995, p. 11). Thus, it seems that students have

more success if we can develop methods and strategies in which the message is

more important than the form, and "what is being said" is more important than

"how it is being said." Real learning, acquiring the ability to use the language,

happens only when people understand messages in the target language

(Krashen and Terrell, 1983). If a person does not understand what is being said,

learning (or acquiring) cannot occur. Therefore, listening to an unknown

language on the radio would not facilitate learning. The focus must be on understanding what is being said.

Krashen's i+1 formula has been criticized by many researchers. They argue that there is no way of measuring what is the i+1 level. So, it is impossible to tell what "comprehensible input" really means (White, 1987). As Brown (1994) points out, Krashen's comprehensible input attributes little credit to the active role of learners and their involvement in communicating and negotiating useful and understandable language.

Despite these criticisms, what we learn from this hypothesis is that learners acquire a language, not by focusing on learning form, but by receiving understandable messages that include new structures and are not too far beyond the learner's current level of competence. Therefore, classroom teachers do not have to constrain themselves to formal teaching in the target language. They can also provide the kind of input that they feel will best facilitate the second language acquisition process instead. This kind of input is comprehensible, interesting, and/or relevant, but not necessarily grammatically sequenced (Richard-Amato, 1988).

Classrooms can be an appropriate environment for language acquisition. Many researchers point out that knowledge of the second language acquisition process is relevant to the classroom and that acquisition can take place there, especially when the methods themselves are consistent with our cognitive systems to the extent that they provide input that can be understood in

communicative situations (Swaffer & Woodruff, 1978). In addition, Wagner-Gouth and Hatch (1975) find that the classroom is more than just one more environment in which acquisition occurs. It can be a place that fosters acquisition. For beginners up to the intermediate level, the classroom can potentially be more effective than the outside world for acquiring a second language. It is often difficult for students to get comprehensible input from a world that is not aware of their need for it (Richard-Amato, 1988). Especially, in Taiwan, the student may have no other opportunity for such practice outside the classroom. Therefore, for acquiring English, the class should be conducted in the target language to maximize the occurrence of comprehensible input.

The Affective Filter Hypotheses. This hypothesis shows that the mental and emotional blocks can prevent language acquirers from getting fully comprehensible input. The items that are acquired (Figure 2) are those that can pass through the affective filter, which includes emotional variables such as anxiety, self-esteem, inhibition and motivation and so on, and move into the subconscious to become intake (Krashen, 1981b). Therefore, this hypothesis aims to bring down the level of anxiety in several ways. There is not a demand for early speech production. Students make the decision when they wish to begin speaking. Single word or short answers are accepted. Any attempt at speaking is rewarded. Finally, errors are never corrected directly, though the correct version of what the student has tried to say will be included in the teacher's response (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). The best acquisition will occur in

environments where anxiety is low and defensiveness is absent, or, in Krashen's term, in contexts where the "affective filter" is low.

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┌─────────────┐      ┌─────────┐        ┌──────────┐
│Comprehensible│ ──➤ │Affective│ ──➤   │  Intake  │
│    Input    │      │ Filter  │        └──────────┘
└─────────────┘      └─────────┘
```
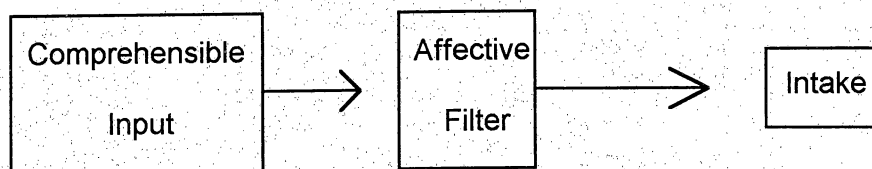
Figure 2. The acquisition process (Krashen, 1981b)

Since Krashen's theory of language acquisition is based on input, in his discussion of the affective filter he only refers to language that is coming in, not to language the person is attempting to produce. Freeman & Freeman (1994) point out there may also be an output filter. Factors such as nervousness may limit a student's performance and cannot reflect his or her competence.

Most teachers recognize that a non-threatening and encouraging environment can promote learning (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). Students need to have a positive attitude toward speakers of the target language, be in a situation that doesn't make them anxious and nervous, and have some measure of self-confidence. The teacher can do much to facilitate a classroom situation that is low in anxiety and foster self-confidence, motivating students' interest through helping students to succeed.

A brief summary of Krashen's theory is "We acquire when we obtain comprehensible input in a low-anxiety situation, when we are presented with interesting messages, and when we understand these messages" (1985, p. 10).

A monitor edits language usage. Although Krashen's ideas have been criticized and sometimes discounted by researchers, they have been widely accepted by practitioners because "they are understandable and because teachers can see positive results in the classroom" (Freeman & Freeman, 1994, p. 86).

Pedagogical Implications of the Natural Approach

Based on the Monitor Model, Krashen and Tracy Terrell (1983) develop the Natural Approach, a method that turns the second or foreign language classroom into a source of comprehensible input. There are four principles for this approach: The first principle is that comprehension precedes production. Second, production must be allowed to emerge in stages. There are four basic stages: (1) Comprehension, (2) early speech production, (3) speech emergence, and (4) intermediate fluency. The third principle claims that the course syllabus must be based on communicative goals. Grammatical sequencing as a focus is avoided in favor of a topical/situational organization. Grammar will be acquired through the relevant communication. Fourth, the activities themselves must be planned to lower the affective filter. A student who is engrossed in interesting ideas will be apt to be less anxious than one who is focused mainly on form.

In the Natural Approach, teachers make an effort to make the content of their classes comprehensible using visuals, gestures, role play, and other context-enriching strategies. Teachers emphasize the content rather than the

structure of the language. Teaching consistent with Krashen's theory emphasizes meaning instead of linguistic form, avoids overt error correction, and tries to create a positive affective climate (Richard-Amato, 1988).

According to Krashen's Monitor Model and the Natural Approach, people acquire a language through receiving comprehensible message in a relaxed climate and using it in communicative situations. Therefore, English teachers should try to develop methods of teaching in which they direct students' attention to the message so that students will have a greater chance of acquiring communicative ability in English. Conveying meaningful messages is more important than artificial drill and practice.

In addition, some minor adjustments in the Natural Approach must be made for its implementation in Taiwan. These involve both teacher education and the selection of appropriate materials and textbooks. All communication should be comprehensible in the foreign language and the teacher must make accessible those materials which will foster the acquisition process. Finally, the learning of English in Taiwan must be done in an environment emphasizing the lowering of affective filters. Periodic testing of grammar will only result in a higher affective filter and make the acquisition of language that much more difficult. The learning of the target language should be made as enjoyable as possible while fostering a brisk acquisition pace. Thus, teachers can help students build their self-confidence and motivate their interests to learn.

Integrated Language Arts

Communicative language teaching emphasizes that conveying messages is more important than artificial drill and practice of form. That is to say, the purpose of language is to make meaning. In Taiwan, teachers who use the grammar-translation method always emphasize the structural rules, treating English as separated skills; when students read the texts, they are concerned with vocabulary and grammar rules. In fact, they do not emphasize the overall meaning in these texts. In addition, teachers always focus on reading skills and thus neglect the other basic language skills: Listening, speaking and writing. Despite some teachers' trying to include these four skills in the curriculum, they tend to focus attention on one skill at a time. Therefore, in one lesson, or part of a lesson, special attention is paid to speaking, in another, to reading and so on. This reflects the way skills have been sequenced in the unit of work: Speaking/listening--> reading--> writing. However, this kind of sequencing does not integrate skills in any real sense even though it recycles and strengthens the four language items. In fact, in real life people do not use language skills in any set order or in any necessary conjunction with each other. For example, if a person sees an interesting advertisement in the paper for a vacation, he or she may discuss it with somebody and then perhaps call or write for more information. This nexus of activities has involved reading--> speaking/listening--> either speaking/listening or writing (Byrne, 1994). In other words, the four language skills are interrelated and interdependent. Thus, integrated language

arts is recommended in teaching activities because this is what happens in real life.

What Is Integrated Language Arts?

Integrated language arts means an integration of listening, speaking, reading and writing in the teaching activities. In an integrated language classroom, there are no separate listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities; all basic language skills are integrated in teaching activities that focus on meaning (Pappas, Kiefer & Levstik, 1990). Freeman & Freeman (1994) indicate that language development begins with meaningful wholes and progresses towards the differentiation of parts out of this whole. Goodman (1982) also points out:

> If you understand and respect language, if you understand that language is rule governed, that the most remarkable thing about human beings is that they learn a finite set of rules that nobody can teach, making it possible for them to say an infinite number of things, then it is also necessary to understand that you cannot chop language up into little bits and pieces and think that you can spoon feed it as you would feed pellets to a pigeon or a rat.....Language doesn't work that way.....We have learned a lot of things. One of those things is that language is learned from whole to part.... It is when you take the language from its use, when you chop it up and break it into pieces, that it becomes abstract and hard to learn (p. 238).

The process of language development implies that people construct their understanding of language from the whole to the parts. When language is treated as a separate set of skills and subskills to be learned, students often find problems. For example, most students in Taiwan learn English as discrete

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skills, so they cannot respond spontaneously when they want to express their ideas. They need time to combine the vocabulary and grammar rules. Even though some students can make sentences quickly according to the grammar rules they learn, sometimes these sentences they make are nonsense (although the sentences are flawless on a grammatical level). In other words, they cannot transfer decontexturized knowledge to meaningful exchange when they treat language as a discrete skills and subskills. Language is not a mathematic combination, but the primary means for communication. In real life, people use language in an integrated way to convey their meaning. Therefore, language should be also learned in an integrated way; that is, integrating all the language items: speaking, listening, reading and writing to convey whole meaningful messages through language using.

Integrated Language Arts and Language Acquisition

Research and experience show that a second language is best learned in a way that approximates how the first language was acquired; that is, using the language to meet real needs (California State Department of Education, 1992). Pappas, Kiefer and Levstik (1990) indicate that "Children learn their native language during infancy and the preschool years with ease and success. Without special tutoring or formal instruction, they not only learn the structure of language but also how to use it for numerous communicative purposes...... An integrated language perspective applies to the classroom principles operating in

early language acquisition" (p. 9). From the beginning of life, children are immersed in an authentic, meaningful spoken language environment. They do not learn about spoken language first, and then learn how to use it. In fact, they learn spoken language and how to use it at the same time for real, meaningful purposes. For example, a child may babble "Mommy, candy." Then the mother knows the child wants to eat the candy, she says " You want to eat candy?" The child says "Yes, want to eat candy." This example shows that the children learn the language when they want to convey their meanings. In fact, when children participate in everyday conversation, according to Halliday (1982), they learn language and learn through language.

Similarly, reading and writing are also learned within a natural environment of language use. Research has shown that those children who have come to school already reading and writing also learn literacy in this authentic and meaningful way. Parents of these children share and discuss books with them and encourage them to write their own messages and notes. Through the meaningful use of language, children can learn to read and write as easily as they learn to speak and listen. So, the same factors that help students develop spoken language also help them develop written language (Pappas, Kiefer and Levstik, 1990). Language is learned through authentic use (Halliday, 1975).

Authentic language is holistic. Thus, in integrated language classrooms, teachers do not use isolated drills or practice on only one part or subsystem of

language. Children read real books and write their own stories or information books to learn letter-sound relations. They learn how to spell through exposure to words in their reading and by trying out their invented spellings to express their own ideas in writing (Edelsky, 1986). Therefore, there are no separate listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities. Children's use of language is integrated when they use authentic language in the integrated language classroom. Their activities and projects are surrounded by conversation; their projects require reading and writing to share the products or findings of the projects. Through use of integrated language, much is learned. For example, children learn about reading and writing by listening to books read to them; they also learn about reading and writing by listening and talking to their peers and teachers when they have discussions about the books they have read, or when they share the writing they have created (Pappas, Kiefer and Levstik, 1990).

Schemas: People's Mental Representations of Knowledge

People are learning all the time; what a person learns at any time is always based on what he or she already knows. Knowledge is actively formed by individual learners (Smith, 1982). People depend on their mental representation of the world to communicate. Pappas, Kiefer and Levstik (1990) call these organized mental representations of our knowledge of the world schemas. Schemas are people's individual organizations of what they know. They consist of "what people know of persons and personal relationships in the

world, what people know of the properties and features of objects in the world, and what people know of how language works to express understandings about the world" (p. 23). Schemas can be viewed as dynamic, changing, structured mental representations of people's knowledge. People's knowledge is modified and reconstructed as a result of people's experience. Thus, in the development of schemata, a dynamic, two-way mapping process between concepts and language takes place. People's existing conceptual schemas help them understand the meanings of the words used by others in different contexts, and the language that people experience in a broad range of contexts helps them to modify and restructure their schemas (Pappas, Kiefer & Levstik, 1990). In other words, schemas and language are interwoven: Language helps the modification of schemas; schemas help the development of language.

Vygotsky (1962) also notes that the use of language plays a crucial role in thinking. People use language to carry out their mental tasks; that is, language is the verbal thinking. People use language as the primary tool of creating new knowledge and the tool for communicating that knowledge to others. Therefore, language is not a subject to be studied; it is a process of thinking that must be used through social interaction. Students cannot learn language the way they learn mathematics. Only by using language for real purposes can students develop their language competence.

Fostering Problem-Solving and Risk-Taking Through Integrated Language Arts

People are meaning-makers, and they always try to make sense of their world. Because they are active and constructive learners, their schemas "develop through generating and testing hypotheses about language and the world, and by trying to figure out their own problems" (Pappas, Kiefer & Levstik, 1990, p. 42). Therefore, teachers must offer an environment that will foster students' natural learning tendency to continue learning in the classroom. Rather than emphasizing that children find out the "correct" or "right " answers from the textbook or in the teacher's head, teachers in an integrated language classroom provide the students with the opportunities for students' own discoveries. Such a climate makes students feel comfortable to express their ideas. It is acceptable for them to interpret a story according to their own ideas, although it may be different from those of their teacher or their peers. It is all right to use innovative spelling to express their good ideas when they do not know the traditional spelling of the words. Because the goal of risk-taking is going beyond the current status, integrated language classrooms offer more chances to modify students' schemas and language learning (Pappas, Kiefer & Levstik, 1990).

Planning Thematic Units

Thematic units allow for and promote authentic language use in the

classroom. Speaking, listening, reading, and writing are not separate activities, but are used by students in an integrated way for meaningful purposes such as problem solving. This integrated language is used across the curriculum through the design of thematic units. "Authentic language use" here means that language is not used to learn language but for something else that requires language, that requires speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Thematic units offer these opportunities in the integrated language classroom. Through the course of a thematic unit, students have many chances to share process and products relating to ongoing activities with other classmates (Pappas, Kiefer & Levstick, 1990). Also, schemas and language are interwoven, so when students' schemas are constructed and expanded through thematic units, they also develop their language abilities. Integrated language classrooms provide students with the environment for true both knowledge and language learning.

An integrated language arts represents real, authentic language use in the classroom because that is how people learn their native language. The classroom should provide many opportunities for students to use language for a broad range of meaningful purposes. Students are engaged in a broad range of experiences to help them develop maintained and intentional attention to particular topics across the curriculum. Through the design of thematic units, students learn systematically.

Speaking, listening, reading and writing are interrelated and interdependent. They are integrated in real language use. The purpose of

language is to make meaning. Thus, teachers should design foreign or second

language programs on communication-based approach that relies on the

language as the medium for the exchange of meaningful information and ideas.

All students must be given time to speak, listen, read and write every day. By

embedding all learning in a rich language environment, students can truly learn

and use language for meaningful purposes and not just for practicing. When

students use authentic language to communicate, they get involved in learning;

they develop not only their language competence, but also their knowledge.

Cooperative Language Learning

Due to the competitive entrance examinations, students in Taiwan

typically vie with one another for good grades, for teachers' and parents' praises,

or other rewards. As a result of this competition, students become

individualistic, and do not encourage or even may discourage one another's

academic efforts. They do not know how to work collaboratively to achieve a

common goal and may also fail to get along with one another. In addition, the

traditional English class has been criticized because it is too big (about forty-five

students in a class), and teachers do about two-thirds of all the talking in class

(Long, 1980). The predominant way of instruction is for the teacher to set the

same instructional content and speed for every student by lecturing, explaining a

grammar point, leading drill work, or asking questions of the whole class.

Consequently, students have little or no time to practice communicating with one

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another in English, in the class.

What is Cooperative Learning?

Cooperative learning is designed to provide teachers with small-group techniques for instruction in the classroom to improve learning and social relations among students. Richard-Amato (1988) sees cooperative learning as a management technique. She suggests that "in cooperative learning, students help other students within groups of four to five persons in an effort to reach goals. Adaptations of cooperative learning can be effective at many age levels from the late elementary grades up through adult levels. It can be used in both second and foreign language teaching situations" (p. 193). So, cooperative learning is also a good way for foreign or second language acquisition and learning.

According to Olsen and Kagan's (1992) definition, cooperative learning is "group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others" (p. 8). Whisler and Williams (1990) offer a definition which states that "cooperative learning is a teaching strategy that enables students to work collaboratively together in structured heterogeneous groups toward a common goal while being held individually accountable" (p. 6). Therefore, cooperative learning may include the following four key elements:

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Heterogeneous grouping, positive interdependence, accountability, and social skills (Johnson, Johnson, Holubec & Roy, 1984; Olsen & Kragen, 1992).

Heterogeneous Grouping. Heterogeneous grouping can vary. These groups should reflect the range of academic achievement, gender, and social personality mix of the class. Heterogeneous teams for academic achievement can be created with a ranked list of students by following three steps: (1) Rank students form highest to lowest achiever using pretest, recent posttest, past grades, best guess; (2) assign the top, bottom, and middle two achievers to the first team and remove from the list; (3) repeat step two to create the next teams. Heterogeneous grouping maximizes peer tutoring and also helps teachers manage the classroom. With a high achiever on each team, teachers can more easily introduce new materials. Low achievers have opportunities to contribute to the group and to seek clarification when needed (Olsen & Kagan, 1992).

Positive Interdependence. In cooperative learning, there is a positive interdependence established among the students in each group when they struggle for the achievement of group or individual goals. On the one hand, cooperative learning often offers group rewards (in the form of points or grades) as its main motivation; on the other hand, it urges students to develop more fully their own individual identities when they respect those of others (Richard-Amato, 1988). Whisler and Williams (1990) indicate that "the more ways that the teacher can structure the lesson so students perceive that they are dependent on one another and "sink or swim together," the more truly cooperative the

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lesson will be" (p. 9). She also suggests some methods for achieving such sense of interdependence such as establishing a group goal, dividing the work among the members of the group, limiting the resources and materials so sharing information is necessary, assigning roles to students, and providing group rewards based on the group's performance.

Accountability. Both individual and group accountability are important for achievement in cooperative learning. Methods which use only a group grade or a group product without making each member accountable do not consistently produce gains in achievement (Slavin, 1983). Therefore, to maximize student participation and the achievement of each individual in the group, students should be responsible for their own learning, as well as, the learning of other group members. Olsen and Kagan (1992) suggest that students may be made individually accountable by assigning each student a grade on his or her own portion of the team project or by the rule that the group may not go on to the next activity until all team members finish the task. In addition, testing is also a primary way to ensure accountability (Olsen & Kagan, 1992; Whisler & Williams, 1990).

Social Skills. When students work together, simply telling them to work together and take turns is insufficient. Students also need to learn certain social skills, such as listening, sharing information, reaching agreement, taking turns, praising and recognizing to accomplish group work. It is an important element of cooperative learning to teach students why the specific social skill is necessary,

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what it looks like and sounds like (Whisler & Williams, 1990).

Cooperative Learning and Communicative Language Teaching

In recent years, communicative competence has become the objective of most ESL or EFL curricula. Students learn how to communicate effectively in the foreign or second language, rather than learn about knowledge of a language. Olsen and Kagan (1992) compare the literature on communicative curriculum design and the literature on cooperative learning and find some striking parallels. The functional categories of communicative curricula described by applied linguists look remarkably similar to the cooperative skills described by cooperative learning experts. For example, there are a lot of parallels between Finocchiaro's (1983) list of language functions (see Figure 3) and Kagan's (1987) list of cooperative skills (see Figure 4):

Language Functions	
Referential	**Interpersonal**
paraphrasing/summarizing	indicating agreement/disagreement
asking for explanation	interrupting politely
explaining	sharing feelings
clarifying	
reporting facts	
evaluating results	

Figure 3. Language functions (Finocchiaro, 1983)

Cooperative Skills	
Communicative Skills	**Conflict Resolution**
active listening/paraphrasing	checking for consensus
relating to ideas and the reactions of others	seeking basis for lack of consensus
checking for understanding	express disagreement constructively
asking for understanding	
maintaining eye contact [a culturally based behavior]	polite, proactive disagreement

Figure 4. Cooperative skills (Kagan, 1987)

The many parallels between language functions and cooperative skills suggest that cooperative learning can provide the foundation for a communicative curriculum design. In providing opportunities for students to develop specific group skills, teachers can focus on the corresponding language functions. They can elicit awareness of these functions or provide examples of the oral strategies needed to improve both communicative and cooperative skills of students (Coelho, 1992).

Cooperative Learning and Group Dynamics

It has been widely recognized now that foreign language teaching should be changed from a teacher-dominated situation towards student-centered situations where students are granted more opportunities to speak. Many

teachers have begun to employ small-group and pair work as a means of increasing their students' target language practice time. Through group dynamics, cooperative learning is a good way of student-centered instruction. The large class is accordingly broken up into small groups and students often discuss subjects they have never before talked about in English. They gain satisfaction and confidence by putting to use what they have studied. If they are really involved in the discussions, communication is taking place rather than just an exercise (Jacobs, 1986). Long and Porter (1985) report that small group interaction allows more talk for each of the students. Di Pietro (1982) states that the dynamics of small-group interaction allows for equitable distribution of participation among the students. And learners, says Bygate (1987), spend more time negotiating and checking on meanings in small groups, and they do not appear to correct each other, or they do so less than the teacher does in a teacher-fronted situation. Then, students are believed to be more willing to practice speaking the target language than they formerly were under the conventional approach. As Larsen-Freeman (1986) writes, the goal of teachers who use communicative language teaching approach is to have their students become communicatively competent. Through cooperative language learning, students learn to communicate by communicating .

Student Interaction in the Cooperative Classroom

We have pointed out that teachers habitually talk for the majority of the

class hour, leaving students little or even no time to practice communicating in the target language. Cummins (1986) also attributes the failure of many students to develop language necessary for academic success to the teacher-centered, transmission-oriented methodology in many language classrooms. In fact, most students say nothing at all during a whole session, and it is especially intimidating for a language learner to speak in front of the whole class in a language which does not allow them to display everything they know or can do. Even highly controlled chorus-work is not efficient because it provides an anonymous rehearsal for public performances (Abbott, Greenwood, McKeating & Wingard, 1981). This is speech-training, not communication. To remedy this situation, interaction is recommended because it makes students' activities more "communicative" by providing the motivation necessary for "meaningful" exchanges of information.

Rivers (1987) indicates that "Students achieve facility in using a language when their attention is focused on conveying and receiving authentic messages (that is, messages that contain information of interest to speaker and listener in situations of importance to both). This is interaction" (p. 4). She indicates that interaction includes both expression of one's own ideas and comprehension of those of others. The participants work out interpretations of meaning through this interaction, which is always understood in a context, with nonverbal cues to add aspects of meaning beyond the verbal. Therefore, the following factors should be present when students learn to communicate: Listening to others,

talking with others and negotiating meaning in a shared context.

Allwright (1984) considers "interaction" a fundamental fact of classroom pedagogy-- the fact that everything that happens in the classroom happens through a process of live person-to-person interaction. He claims that interaction is a "co-production." It is the product of the actions of all the participants. From this point of view, classroom lessons are socially constructed events. Similarly, Vygostsky's (1978) theory of learning supports the cooperative learning because he analyzes how people are embedded with one another in a social word. He views language and learning as a process of making sense and as a social activity. In Vygotskyan terms, human learning is always mediated through others (parents, peers, and teachers) and these interactions themselves are mediated.

Rivers (1983) also proposes autonomous interaction in the language program. She states that we must not feel that interaction is somehow "wasting time" when there is "so much to learn" (48-49); through interaction, students can increase their language store when they listen to and read authentic materials, or even the output of their fellow students in discussions, and do joint problem-solving tasks, or dialogue journals. In fact, students can learn many things from their peers by interacting with them. In interaction, students can use all they possess of the language; that is, all they have learned or casually absorbed in real-life exchanges to express their real meaning. They have experience in creating messages from what they hear because comprehension is a process of

creation, and in expanding discourse that conveys their intentions (Rivers, 1987). It is through the interaction with the social group that the language is used and learned.

Bridging the Information Gap Through Cooperative Learning

In most cases of conversational interactions, the purpose of communicating is to convey information. The concept of conveying information involves, as Johnson (1982) writes, a notion of doubt, and people can only convey a piece of information to others if they do not already know it. Johnson further notes that much language teaching is non-communicative because of the absence of this element of doubt. Also, it fails to involve the processes by which interaction takes place. These processes rely mainly on the existence of an information gap. The attempt to create information gaps in the classroom, thereby producing communication viewed as the bridging of the information gap, has characterized much recent communicative methodology .

Doughty and Pica (1986) refer to "information gap" as the existence of a lack of information among participants working on a common problem. Richards, Platt and Weber (1985) write that in communicative language teaching, there must be an information gap between students, or between students and their teacher to promote real communication. Without such a gap the classroom activities and exercises will be just artificial. Klippel (1984) views "information gap" as the device that helps the teacher in making up communicative activities.

Thus, a communicative methodology will need to create situations in which

students share information not previously known by all the participants in the

communication. For this reason, a course aimed at developing communicative

competence should divert from the conversational dialogue recitation, question

and answer based on the prescribed reading material to activities which require

the bridging of information gaps. Then real communication can take place.

Vygotsky (1978) also describes the zone of proximal development as the

gap between the children's actual development and their potential development.

He claims that the child must have the opportunity to involve in an instructional

activity that is too difficult for him to perform independently, so his performance

must be supported by an adult or capable peers in a cooperative group. Good

learning for Vygotsky is that which advances development to the next zone. He

views teaching as a process of mediation, which is consistent with the

cooperative learning approach. The group dynamics of cooperative learning

can challenge children to perform at the maximum level of their potential

development. Therefore, cooperative learning is a good way to promote

students' potential cognitive development by sharing other's information through

interaction. Also, cooperative learning enhance students' creative thinking.

When students talk and discuss in a group, they are forced to analyze

arguments, look for valid evidence and reach sound conclusions. Thus, the

cooperative learning fosters students' critical thinking when they argue with one

another, draw their own conclusions and express them to others (Dixon-Krauss,

1996).

Affective Development in the Cooperative Classroom

Another factor of students' low achievement is a poor sense of self-worth. It is a negative cycle in a classroom situation that isolates students from each other and establishes a loathing to learn in many young people. This is a classic chicken-or-egg question: Does low self-worth cause low achievement or does low achievement cause low self-worth? Clearly, both are interacting factors. So, if teachers help students to develop positive self-esteem, student achievement will be promoted. Many of today's youth are increasingly alienated from school and from society. Glasser (1986) notes that the need to belong is one of the main psychological needs of all people, so this is also one kind of need that most young people seek to satisfy at school and elsewhere when they interact with others. If they are not satisfied within the academic program, students become isolated from the classroom. Even the high achievers in the classroom may experience alienation because their success reflects badly on others, and sometimes brings peer rejection (Coelho, 1992).

In contrast, Coelho (1992) points out that cooperative learning almost always promotes higher levels of self-worth. Peer support and acceptance for learning occurs in the cooperative classroom because each student's success is to the benefit of the group. Students feel more in control of their own learning; display more on-task behavior; like their classmates, the class, the subject, and

the teacher better; and become more cooperative and altruistic after the experience. These positive attitudes may improve both academic performances and effective, nonconfrontational interactions with the classmates or community beyond. In addition, through cooperative learning, students feel less anxiety and are more willing to learn.

To sum up, cooperative language learning can increase the quantity of language practice opportunities through group dynamics. It promotes students' cognitive development and creative thinking through bridging information gaps and students' interaction, which also improves students' communicative competence. Furthermore, cooperative language learning creates a low-anxiety and a positive affective climate in the classroom to help students to establish their self-worth, and increase their motivation to learn. A primary requirement for language learning is the provision of opportunities for frequent and extended interaction in the target language. It is through the interaction and information-sharing in cooperative language learning that language is used and learned.

Simulation

In Taiwan, the traditional language teaching method (grammar-translation) reduces students' interest and confidence when they struggle with grammatical rules and unrelated vocabulary in making sentences. Also, most of the materials learned are often based on the artificial sequencing of grammatical structures; they have little real-life meaning and are not relevant in normal

everyday conversation with a native English speaker. When the students are faced with real-life experience or opportunities for discussions with native speakers, or when they attempt to live or study in the United States, most of them are confused or unable to communicate. Then the problem becomes, "How does one learn English in the most efficient and effective manner, so that the language can be quickly applied from the classroom experience to everyday life?" (Li, Lee. T. & Lee. W. , 1991, p. 17) Communicative competence has become a main concern in most of the recent foreign and second language instructional methods. One of the most promising and popular ways for encouraging communication in the language classroom is simulation. It is also a very powerful means of helping people to acquire foreign or second language skills and transfer the experiences to the real world (Crookall & Oxford, 1990).

What is Simulation?

Simulation is a methodology of learning a foreign or second language that allows the students to communicate in a practical, applied way and facilitates the learning process. Simulation is based on any real-life situation. Participants work through an imaginary situation; they are given skeleton descriptions of the part they are to play and then put themselves "in the shoes" of the given person in the specific situation described (Shoemaker & Shoemaker, 1991). For example, one student is given a menu to be the guest, another student takes the role of a waiter and the other is the manager. Many students will be too timid or

unable to attempt responses in English, although their listening comprehension may be good. Therefore, an additional phase involving the learning of short dialogues will be helpful and will give students the confidence of actually using the language. Dialogue can be presented with repetition and guided memorizing. After being involved in several structured situations and mastering relevant dialogues, students will internalize enough of the basic language and the open language experience so that they will be able to respond to simulation situations planned by the teacher. Students will be given short descriptions of a situation and asked to act out the role of the people in these settings without looking at the written dialogue material previously memorized. The role-playing activities are similar to those described in the narratives and dialogues, but the speech itself is very different to encourage freer use of the language (Rodrigues & White, 1993).

For students learning a language, a simulation provides them with the opportunity to assume the identity of a native speaker and interact with others in a setting such as a restaurant, a school, or a family. Through simulation, not only do the students learn the language, but they also learn the cultural behaviors of the target language. Because simulations are experimental, they provide situations where alternative behaviors can be tested without risking the undesired results of real-life situations (Shoemaker & Shoemaker, 1991).

More and more language teachers are using a great range of simulation-based methods (for example, role play and drama) in their classroom. Basically,

this increase of using simulation as teaching methodology is because communication plays such an important role in many simulations, as it does in many social situations, and because simulation is an ideal way of encouraging the development of communication skills (Crookall & Oxford, 1990).

Simulation and Language Acquisition

Current research provides some evidences to understand how simulation may facilitate foreign or second language acquisition. The factors which help successful language learning includes comprehensible input, active involvement with this input, and positive affect (Scarcella & Crookall, 1990).

Krashen's input hypothesis (1982) proposes that learners acquire language when they are exposed to large quantities of "comprehensible input." Input is thought to be comprehensible when it is near the learner's current proficiency. According to the speech accommodation theory (Giles & Smith, 1979), speakers will provide their conversational partners with comprehensible input when they are in a communicative and cooperative climate. For example, when their partners fail to understand them, speakers may simplify their language, slow down their speed or repeat to make sure that their partners follow. Also, research on communication patterns in foreign/second language simulation indicates that in which simplification and accommodation take place (Sharrock & Watson, 1985; Jones, 1986). As the theory implies, if natural language results in comprehensible input, then simulation has an important

advantage because it provides students with large quantities of such input by encouraging real communication. Furthermore, simulation is a socially and culturally bounded activity and the consequence of making mistakes is relatively low. Participants are under less pressure to produce complicated language than they may be in many real-world situations. The relatively safe environment provided by simulation allows participants to use and repeat more simple language, as well as to examine their errors (Scarcella & Crookall, 1990).

Much research has shown that exposure to input is insufficient for optimum language learning. As Long (1983) points out, learners may be exposed to large quantities of input yet not pay attention to it. The research on simulation (Orbach, 1979; Bredemeier & Greenblat, 1981) shows that it causes high levels of motivation and involvement. Therefore, simulation helps draw attention to input. Simulation also helps the learners to concentrate on communicating meaning and to become a motivated language user (Scarcella & Crookall, 1990). Dewey's (1974) "learning by doing" provides additional support for the use of simulation because it provides students with opportunities to experience real life by using simulated situations. Brumfit (1984) also points out, when learners are put into situations where they communicate purposefully and spontaneously, they develop their abilities to use the language creatively and appropriately. Simulation is a means of providing learners with a natural context in which learners are allowed to communicate functionally and linguistically. Also, the natural context of immediate feedback provides them with clues about

the appropriateness and effectiveness of their communication (Scarcella & Crookall, 1990).

Another important factor is the "positive affect" (Scarcella & Crookall, 1990). Schumann (1978) has identified the importance of affect (the learner's motivations, feelings, and attitudes) in facilitating second language development. Likewise, Krashen (1982) claims that low-anxiety situations are conducive to language development. Many simulation contexts have the potential for creating a supportive, low-anxiety environment which fosters positive affect because students have the chance to try out new behaviors in a relatively safe environment. It may also be that this safe and low-anxiety environment encourages elaboration of new behaviors (Scarcella & Crookall, 1990).

Culture and Language

Diaz-Rico (personal communication, April 2, 1996) defines culture as "the explicit and implicit pattern for living. It is a dynamic system of commonly-agreed-upon symbols and meanings, knowledge, beliefs, arts, morals, laws, customs, behaviors, traditions, and/or habits that are shared and make up the total way of life of a people." Language does not develop in a vacuum. Language is a part of the culture of a people and the main tool by which the members of a society communicate. Language itself is a shared, socially and culturally inherited system. It is created to meet the needs of people living in a particular area. It takes into account the history, customs, habits and patterns

since the beginning of the civilization in which it is used (Lado, 1967). Therefore, language and culture are interwoven.

According to Labov (1972), the culture that underlies each language prescribes distinct patterns and conventions about when, where, and how to use the language. Using language to satisfy material needs, control the behavior of others, get along with others, express one's personality, find out about the world, and create an imaginative world or communicate information seems to be universal among all languages. However, how these social functions are accomplished varies greatly among cultures. Therefore, when people learn a foreign or second language, they should also learn and understand the culture in which it is used; otherwise, they cannot communicate effectively and appropriately with speakers of that language (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

In comparing Chinese and English, the cultural differences in language are quite apparent. The spoken language, with its tone, intonation, or even the sounds employed, is very different between the two. Different customs in each country give rise to certain words and expressions that are completely unknown in the other country. For example, an American makes no distinction between his relatives, his father's sister and mother's sister are both his aunts, as much as his father's brother's wife is his aunt. However, in Chinese culture, a distinction is made between these types of relatives because extended families are important there (Li, Lee, T. & Lee, W. , 1991). Also, an everyday situation such as answering the door may present a dilemma for people of different

cultures. If someone knocks on the door, an American will ask "Who is it?" On the other hand, the direct Chinese translation of "Who is it?" does not make sense, or could make the Chinese person outside the door feel offended to hear him or herself referred to as "it" because "it" is an inanimate pronoun or an animal, not a person. Instead, the Chinese person inside will ask, "Who are you?" So these English language patterns can sometimes be awkward for Chinese-speaking people.

In addition, each culture develops for itself an understanding of what social customs and means of communications are proper. For example, when Chinese people talk to Americans, they may ask some questions like: Have you eaten yet? Are you married? That's a nice job. How much money do you make a month? That's a beautiful shirt; how much did it cost? An American will think it is not polite to ask such kinds of questions. However, according to the Chinese way of thinking, these questions show the speaker's friendliness, concern, admiration or interest in the addressee, with little intention of probing into his or her privacy. Likewise, Chinese and Americans have different attitudes toward directness. When it comes to making an invitation or an offer of a drink, Chinese like to use a strong and direct linguistic strategy and sometimes even force or press the guest to accept it. When making an invitation, if guests give a negative reply, the hosts are supposed not to take it at face value at the first offer. They should offer again and again, and sometimes impose on the other person to take it by various means, such as, "Please do come, we will wait for

you." This is a way of showing the host's hospitality and sincerity. In contrast, being guests, Chinese people are supposed not to accept an invitation or an offer right away to show their modesty. A Chinese host understands that "No, thank you" is not a genuine refusal, but rather a ritual polite reply. That is why a host often repeats the offer more than once. But Americans in general are more direct in responding to an invitation or an offer, and the host is supposed to take a "No" answer as a true answer and respects the guest's choice without forcing an acceptance. This is an area where cross-cultural communication breakdown often occurs. An American may interpret a Chinese friend's rejection of an offer or invitation as a true reply without making another try. This may offend the Chinese, who may blame the American for being insincere or not hospitable enough. Likewise, Americans may feel frustrated or irritated when Chinese do not give them a more precise or direct response. Therefore, when a person learns a language, he or she should also learn the culture of the target language.

Communication, Culture and Simulation

The subtlety of culture, the pervasiveness of communication, and the dynamic relationship between them is difficult to model and hard to teach with traditional methods. For a student to learn a language, interactive simulation is a method that allows for learning about communication and culture through direct and actual experience. It provides the learners with the opportunities not

only to become involved and produce a "natural language," but also to learn cultural behaviors that are appropriate to these particular social groups (Shoemaker & Shoemaker, 1991).

Simulation in Teaching English as a Second Language

Simulation involves the students with their whole body, through the use of role play, including the mind and the five senses. This will give them hands-on experience, living the actual situation in a way that will leave an imprint in their mind that is not easily forgotten (Li, Lee, T. & Lee, W. , 1991).

The use of role-play as an educational or training technique is part of the wider set of tools that have collectively become known as simulation. Role play is also the name given to one particular type of simulation that focuses attention on the interaction of people with one another. It emphasizes the functions performed by different people under various circumstances. The role play method uses all the means by which students learn and is considered a holistic method. Holism (mentally, emotionally and physically) combines all parts with action in the process of language mastery. This method involves the total person in the way one thinks, feels, and acts. To acquire language fluency is to gain for oneself through one's own actions and efforts the ability to speak in an easy, graceful manner. This method helps students achieve skills in listening, speaking, reading, writing, and overall comprehension by raising their awareness level in practical everyday situational communication (Li, Lee, T. &

Lee, W., 1991).

Simulation focuses and places the students in real life situations in which they must communicate using the appropriate words or dialogues. These are holistic experiences which allow one to transfer what has been learned to one's own real life situations. One can then pull from one's memory ways to react and words to describe situations and practicing in a natural manner. Mastery of the language as accomplished through the use of simulation encourages the students to become more enthusiastic and motivated in order to learn. Students are "actively involved" in a learning process that allows them to achieve rapid fluency in a foreign or second language. Simulation helps students develop their communicative competence in a natural way. In the words of Benjamin Franklin: "Tell me and I forget, teach me and I remember, involve me and I will learn" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 100). Since there is no natural English input from the community in Taiwan, simulation is a good methodology to create a situation or environment to foster acquisition and encourage students in the classroom to communicate in a practical, applied manner. Simulation facilitates the learning process to improve the communicative competence by involving active participation and addressing situations that the students may have faced themselves or may experience in the future. Students are motivated to learn when they feel the joy of being able to learn and apply the language practically and rapidly.

CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

According to the results of the literature review, I set up five principles of importance for this curriculum project. They are: Balancing function and form of language; providing comprehensible input in a low-anxiety climate; integrating language arts for language and knowledge development; interacting and sharing information; and involving and motivating students to learn through using authentic materials. In the following several pages, I will discuss the five principles and state my philosophical foundations, assumptions about the learning process and teaching methods or strategies.

Balancing Function and Form of Language

The traditional grammar-translation method is criticized regarding its applicability and its mere focus on grammatical forms. In fact, when children first begin to speak their native language, their only concern is the communication of ideas. Children want something or want to do something. What they are saying, or trying to say, has real meaning for them and has very real purposes. Children are not practicing sentence patterns. For them, such practice would not be interesting and would have no purpose. Therefore, language is a tool to help people convey their meanings, and it should be taught as such.

Of course, it is true that students learning English in Taiwan do not have the same motivation that young children learning their native language do. In

Taiwan, junior college students have already acquired a very adequate means of communication. Most students have two: Taiwanese and Mandarin. If students can use both Taiwanese and Mandarin, they acquired them because of a real need to do so. They learned them in a natural situation where these two languages were being used. When native Taiwanese speakers begin kindergarten or first grade, they do not attend a "Mandarin" class for just one period of the day and then spend the rest of the day learning in Taiwanese. Students are "immersed" in Mandarin. Teachers help students to communicate, to understand what they hear, and to express their own ideas in Mandarin. Through real use in a living situation, students acquire a new tool of communication.

However, how do teachers begin to teach English in Taiwan? They begin teaching students to recognize and write the letters of the alphabet. Before students learn some "words," they must be able to say and write those twenty-six letters from A to Z in proper order! How much meaning is there to such an activity? Teachers then teach them to "read" some words and sentences from a book. Students find out the meanings of the words through the means of pictures and/or translation. Sometimes students read the sentences from the book. When they do so, it is most important for the words to be pronounced correctly. The emphasis in many classrooms is on "correctness". There are few, or no opportunities, for students to use English to say something they want to say. What they say must be phonetically and grammatically accurate.

Actually, when students begin to learn English, they are interested and pay close attention to what their teachers say because it is new to them. But if what they are learning does not soon become both meaningful and useful, students will find it increasingly difficult to pay attention, and they may feel frustration if their expressions are always overcorrected. In the front of English textbooks, it is stated that the goal of English instruction is for students to develop the ability to listen, to speak, to read, and to write. But if students do not engage in real communication when they are learning, they cannot be expected to use English in any communicative way.

Grammar and structure have their values, but are not substitutes. Therefore, English teachers should shift the attention from sentences in isolation to the manner in which sentences combine in text, and to the manner in which they are used to perform communicative acts (Widdowson, 1978). In other words, grammar and structure should be taught in a communicative way. In line with this view, this curriculum design will integrate both form and function of language and contain meaning and the forms in which those meanings will be expressed. Only by balancing the communicative functions and semantic-grammatical form of language can we achieve the goal of communicative language teaching.

Providing Comprehensible Input in a Low-Anxiety Climate

Besides balancing function and form, the materials that teachers use

should be materials that students can easily relate to and find meaningful. A learner improves his or her communicative competence by receiving what Krashen (1981b) calls "comprehensible" messages. He claims that acquisition takes place as a result of the learner having understood input that is a little beyond the current level of his competence. In other words, real learning, acquiring the ability to use the language, occurs only when people understand messages in the target language. Therefore, when teachers teach English in Taiwan, they should know how to make input comprehensible.

Richard-Amato (1988) provides two basic ways in which teachers can help students comprehend messages: Linguistic and non-linguistic. Many speakers simplify syntax and other elements of language linguistically to make their speech more comprehensible to less competent speakers. The characteristics of the linguistic aspects of simplified input are: Slower rate and clearer articulation, which helps acquirers to identify word boundaries more easily and allows more processing time; more use of high frequency vocabulary, less slang, fewer idioms; and syntactic simplification and shorter sentences. Such characteristics appear to be common to different types of simple codes, such as caretaker speech and foreigner-talk, and they clearly can help input language more comprehensibly. When teachers focus on trying to make themselves understood and on comprehension and communication, they will communication, they will meet the syntactic requirements for comprehensible input.

Another way to help students comprehend messages is to provide non-linguistic means of encouraging comprehension. Providing extra-linguistic support, such as real objects, pictures, and posters, is a very important tool for teachers to encourage language acquisition. In addition, good English teachers also can aid comprehension by taking advantage of their students' knowledge of the world by discussing topics that are familiar to the student. Discussing or reading about a topic that is totally unfamiliar will make the message harder to understand. However, making the input too "familiar" is also a danger, because students will have no interest in that topic. There must be some messages, something that students really wants to learn about. This requirement is perhaps the hardest one to meet, and I will discuss this information gap more in the fourth principle.

Comprehensible input is not sufficient for language acquisition because the mental and emotional blocks can prevent the language acquirer from getting fully comprehensible input or output. We are human beings. We have feelings, emotions, and individual personality issues such as self-esteem and anxiety. Anxiety plays an important affective role in foreign and second language acquisition. Anxiety about learning language is similar to communication anxiety; that is, feelings of self-consciousness, desire to be perfect when speaking, and fear of making mistakes are very common. However, in some ways, anxiety in a foreign or second language is more than simply communication anxiety; using a foreign language can threaten a person's sense

of self because speakers know they cannot represent themselves fully in a new language or understand others readily. Anxiety can cause learners to feel defensive and can block affective learning (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

In Taiwan, the intimidating teaching methods and tests make students anxious and afraid of learning English. Under this pressure, their "affective filter" may be "up," thus hindering the acquirer in understanding input. Even though the input is comprehensible, if the acquirer is too anxious and nervous, his or her performance will be limited and cannot reflect his or her competence in the output. Therefore, besides providing comprehensible input, teachers also should offer a low-anxiety environment for students to learn language. This curriculum design adopt the Natural Approach to provide students with comprehensible input and a low-anxiety environment to learn language as enjoyably as possible while fostering a brisk acquisition pace. Role playing, games, music, story-telling, and cooperative learning are good ways to support such learning. These activities help student comprehend input linguistically (by using high frequency vocabulary, syntactic simplification or shorter sentences and so on) and non-linguistically (by using gestures, modeling and pointing). In addition, when students are playing others' roles, or participating in a game in a cooperative group, they will feel more relaxed and have fewer feelings of self-consciousness. In the Natural Approach, what the teacher emphasizes is the content rather than the structure of the language. Thus, students will not be as anxious and can acquire language more easily.

Integrating Language Arts for Language and Knowledge Development

Language should be taught naturally, as it occurs in real life. In real life, speaking, listening, reading, and writing are integrated as an interrelated and interdependent tool to convey people's meanings. In other words, language is developed to express whole thoughts or whole meanings. Language is the verbal thinking. As Freeman & Freeman (1994) point out, language development begins with the whole and is later differentiated into the parts (semantic parts or meanings of individual words). The process of language development implies that people construct their understanding of language from the whole to the parts. So, when language is treated as separate sets of skills and subskills to be learned, students often run into difficulty.

Because the grammar-translation method overemphasizes the structural rules, students in Taiwan treat English as discrete skills; when they read the texts, what they are concerned with is vocabulary and grammar rules. They do not learn the overall meaning in these texts. Thus, when they want to express their ideas, they need time to combine the vocabulary and grammar rules. They cannot respond spontaneously because they treat English as a mathematic combination. Even though some students can make sentences quickly, according to the grammar rules they have learned, sometimes the sentences they make are nonsense even though the sentences are flawless on a grammatical level. In short, the grammar-translation method cannot move students from decontexturalized knowledge to meaningful exchanges.

People's mental knowledge and language development are interwoven. As Pappas, Kiefer & Levstik (1990) indicate, in the development of schemas (people's mental presentation of knowledge), a dynamic, two-way mapping process between concepts and language takes place: People's existing conceptual schemas help them understand the meanings of the words used by others in different contexts, and the language that people experience in a broad range of contexts helps them to modify and restructure their schemas. They use language to carry out their mental tasks. Learning language is a process of thinking that must be used through social interaction. People use language to create new knowledge and communicate that knowledge to others. Therefore, when people learn a language, they should learn not only the form of the language, but also knowledge; that is, they should find meaning in language learning.

The lessons in this curriculum design are thematically organized into units. Through the course of the thematic units, students have many chances to use authentic language as a communicative means to fulfill their communicative needs. In the learning process, students use language to solve problems, share process and products relating to ongoing activities with other classmates; thus, they can restructure and expand their schemas and develop their language abilities simultaneously.

Interacting and Sharing Information

Second language acquisition should be a highly interactive and cooperative process. Second language and foreign language learners actively construct and test out hypotheses about how language works when they communicate with others in meaningful activities. As Vygosky (1978) notes, students develop their cognition and critical thinking through interaction, and thus advance to the next zone of proximal development. In addition, students can increase their language store when they listen to and read authentic materials or even the output of their classmates in discussion. In fact, students can learn many things from their peers and teachers by interacting with them.

As mentioned in principle two, the input should include some messages students know and some they do not know but want to know. In other words, there must be an information gap between students or between students and their teacher. Then, when students interact and share information with one another, they bridge that information gap. Thus, real communication takes place naturally. Without such a gap, the classroom activities and exercises will be a comprehension check, not real communication; all the interaction will become artificial and boring.

According to this principle, this curriculum design uses a lot of cooperative learning to increase the opportunities of interaction and information-sharing. Through group dynamics, cooperative learning promotes students' cognitive development, critical thinking and affective development. Also, jigsaw,

in which each member of a group is given a piece of information and must share that information with the others in the group to complete a task, is good way to create an information gap. In addition, cooperative project is also a good way to helps students to promote their cognitive development through increasing the opportunities of interaction and information-sharing.

Because of the competitive entrance examination, students in Taiwan typically vie with one another for good grades, for teachers' and parents' praises, to other rewards. They do not encourage or even discourage one another's academic efforts. This is harmful to students' both cognitive and affective development. The need to belong is a psychological need of all people, so this is also one kind of need that most young people seek to satisfy at school when they interact with others. If this need is not satisfied within the academic program, the student becomes isolated from the classroom. In contrast, when students interact and share information with one other in a cooperative group, the low achievers have opportunities to contribute to the group (they may be good at other knowledge or information although they have low academic achievement) and to seek clarification when needed. Thus, they can promote their own self-worth and become more willing to learn. Similarly, when the high achievers get this opportunity to help the low achievers, they will have a feeling of achievement and are motivated to learn more. Through interaction and information sharing, students use all the language they have learned or casually absorbed in real-life exchanges to express their real meaning; they also learn

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many new messages from information sharing, which will be very useful when they want to expand their discourse and convey intentions.

Involving and Motivating Students to Learn Through the Use of Authentic Materials

In Taiwan, most texts and materials teachers use are based on an artificial sequencing of grammatical structure and stilted, irrelevant dialogues and topics. Students can not transfer them to the real world and feel bored in the class. Therefore, many students will not pay attention or may even refuse to learn English because they can not find meanings in the learning. Rodrigues and White (1993) note that effective teaching should be based on helping students learn the language they need to function successfully in everyday situations or in future settings where they will be using English. In other words, if students find that the teaching materials or methods are practical and meet their needs, they are motivated to learn and will get involved in learning.

Involving students in learning and motivating students to learn are very important to the success of foreign or second language teaching. When students are involved in the teaching activities, they are active in the learning process. Students will find their own problems and try to solve the problems. In this process, they learn from the heart and will not soon forget what they have learned. So, it becomes true learning. Motivation is also a factor influencing the outcomes of the learning. Humans need to acquire knowledge to meet their

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basic needs and to learn about the world. So, the teacher should design the curriculum based on the needs and interests of the students. When students are motivated to learn, they will learn more. When English teachers provide authentic materials and effective methods, students will get involved and be motivated to learn because they find they can quickly apply what they have learned from the classroom experience to real life. Thus, in this curriculum design, I use a lot of films, videos, brochures, newspapers, and magazines as the materials or technologies to support such learning.

In addition, simulation is an important method for such learning. I use a lot of simulation as the primary activity in this curriculum design. Simulation involves the students with their whole bodies, through the use of role playing. This will give students hands-on experience, living the actual situation that will leave an imprint in their mind that is not easily forgotten. Simulation focuses and places the students in real life situations in which they must communicate using appropriate words or dialogue. It provides students with holistic experiences which allow them to transfer what has been learned to their own real-life situations. They can then pull from their memories to react in a natural manner. Through simulation, students are actively involved in a learning process that allows them to achieve rapid fluency in a foreign or second language. Students become more enthusiastic and motivated to learn when they are applying authentic language to deal with the problems in the simulated situations because they know they also meet or will meet these problems in the real world.

APPENDIX A: DESIGN OF THE PROJECT

Introduction

This curriculum project is designed to improve English communicative competence of five-year junior college students in Taiwan. There are two units in this project. They are "Telephone" and "Travel." The topics of the two units are practical and interesting for the five-year junior college students because they meet the students' needs. The telephone is a necessity and plays a very important role in communication. It is the primary means for these students to keep friendship with others and get information, so they must learn telephone etiquette. Many five-year students travel during their vacation, so they also need to know how to plan an enjoyable trip. The lessons of each unit are thematically designed. Through the course of the thematic units, students not only develop their English proficiency but also their knowledge.

Each lesson of this project has the following core components: (1) Posters, pictures, or videos; (2) focus sheets; and (3) student work sheets (See Appendix B for supplementary material, Unit 1; see Appendix C for supplementary material, Unit 2). In each lesson, posters, pictures, or films are used to stimulate both language and content curriculum concepts. Also, these entertaining and instructive posters, pictures or films can provide students with comprehensible input. Focus sheets are designed to meet the lesson objectives and help teachers to lead the students in an activity. Student work sheets are

designed for students' independent or cooperative work. They help students develop language, encourage creativity, and elicit differences of opinion among the students. The suggested implementation schedule is two hours for each lesson. For each unit, there are about three cycles of assessment to evaluate students' performance.

Methodologies

Based on the principles of importance mentioned previously, the main methodologies underlying the curriculum project include: The Natural Approach, integrative language arts and cooperative learning. The goal of the language learning curriculum based on the Natural Approach is that students successfully comprehend and communicate ideas in a natural and low-anxiety climate. Therefore, activities do not focus on learning words in isolation or on grammar drills; instead, the emphasis is on communication. Similarly, in integrative language arts instruction, the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing are integrated, and presented within a context that is thematic and meaningful to the learner. The lessons in the curriculum are thematically organized into units and provide students many chances to use authentic language to express themselves in a variety of situations. This curriculum also offers many opportunities for cooperative learning. Cooperative learning is a dynamic strategy through which students develop linguistic, academic and social skills simultaneously. In addition, through interaction in the cooperative work,

students share information and promote their cognitive development, critical

thinking and affective development at the same time. The following pages are

the contents of the curriculum project.

UNIT 1: TELEPHONE

Outline

Lesson 1: How to Make a Phone Call
>   **Topic:** Making and answering a telephone call
>   **Primary Focus Activity:** Making and answering telephone calls in specific situations

Lesson 2: How to Make a Long-Distance and International Call
>   **Topic:** Categories of long-distance calls
>   **Primary Focus Activity:** Making a variety of long-distance calls

Lesson 3: Telephone Service
>   **Topic:** Telephone service and billing.
>   **Primary Focus Activity:** Understanding the functions of telephone and how to read telephone bills

Lesson 4: How to Use a Telephone Directory
>   **Topic:** Telephone directory
>   **Primary Focus Activity:** Finding names, phone numbers and service in the telephone directory

Lesson 5: Calls for Help
>   **Topic:** Emergencies and information
>   **Primary Focus Activity:** Making calls for help

Lesson 6: Power Telephoning
>   **Topic:** Telephone tips for getting information
>   **Primary Focus Activity:** Using telephone directories or newspapers to call for getting and organizing information

Lesson One: How to Make a Phone Call

Objectives:

1. To recognize the types of phones
2. To know how to read telephone numbers
3. To make and answer a phone call
4. To understand telephone etiquette

Content: Telephone conversation

Vocabulary: dial, receiver, telephone booth, dial telephone, touch-tone desk phone, deposit, yellow pages, white pages, answering machine, leaving a message, wrong number, area code, busy signal, on hold, hang up.

Materials:

Poster 1-A, Focus Sheets 1-1a, 1-1b, Student Work Sheet 1-1

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up):

Ask students the following questions:

What kind of telephone do you have?
Why do people use the telephone?
How do you make or answer a call in Chinese?
How should the telephone be answered in English ?
What should you say when you get a wrong number in English?
How do you take a message or leave a message in English?

Teaching with variety:

Visual: Use the poster to show the important vocabulary about the telephone.

Activity: 1. Use the poster to explain the different types of phones and how to read telephone numbers in America.
2. Give students Focus Sheet 1-1a and answer questions based on the sheet and students' personal experience. For example: How are phone calls carried? Why is the telephone important to all the people today? Then, have

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them practice telephone dialogues in different situations.

3. Distribute Student Work Sheet 1-1 to students; have pairs of them practice making telephone calls, substituting different lines from the data bank on Student Work Sheet 1-1.
4. Have students take the brief quiz on Focus Sheet 1-1b and total their scores, then explain what a score means according to the sheet. Then, divide students into cooperative groups; have them discuss important telephone etiquette.
5. Do a simulation; give students role-play cards and have them discuss and simulate in specific situations such as: Leaving and taking messages, wrong numbers, leaving messages on an answering machine and so on. (Students can refer to the dialogues they practiced on Focus Sheet 1-1a and Student Work Sheet 1-1, but they must create their own dialogue according to the role-play card).
6. Give feed-back on their simulation and analyze any serious errors they make.

Responding to diversity with a range of activities:

Jigsaw: Divide students into groups (6-7 persons); give each group two envelopes which contain dialogue cards for two different situations (these dialogues are cut into segments at meaningful boundaries). The pieces are shuffled and put into each envelope labeled with the topic of the dialogues they have practiced. Each group must put the cards in meaningful order as soon as possible and ask one member to take these cards to the platform. Then, the teacher asks the representative of each group to read aloud the dialogues as they connected them. The group which is first and makes the right connection is the winner.

Learning centers: Offer relevant films or cassettes

ELD Vocabulary Support: Make visual vocabulary about the telephone

Primary Language Support: Label the vocabulary on the poster in Chinese

Lesson Two: How to Make a Long-Distance and International Call

Objectives:

1. To know how to make long-distance and international calls
2. To know different types of long-distance and international call

Content: Categories of long-distant calls

Vocabulary: long distance, person-to-person, station-to station, collect call, operator assisted call, country code, direct call

Materials:

Poster 1-B, Focus Sheet 1-2, Student Work Sheet 1-2

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up):

Ask students the following questions:

Have you made an international phone call before?
Who knows how to make an international phone call to America?
Who knows how to make a long distance call in America?
Who knows how to make an international phone call from overseas to Taiwan?
From whom can you get help for making a long distance call?
Who knows the country codes of Taiwan and America?

Teaching with variety:

Visual: Use the poster to show the important vocabulary about long distance and international phone calls and explain the different categories of long-distance and international phone calls.

Activity: 1. Give examples of telephone number on the poster and explain how to use area code and country code to make long distance calls and international phone calls in America, and how to make an international phone call from Taiwan to America.

2. Give students Focus Sheet 1-2; explain and practice the conversation about different categories of long distance and international phone calls.

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3. Distribute Student Work Sheet 1-2 to students; explain the different time zones of the United States and the time difference between Taiwan and the United States. Then, divide them into cooperative group; have them discuss and list the information on the sheet. Finally, have one from each group report the group's information.
4. Do a simulation: Give students role-play cards and have pairs of them discuss and role-play the specific categories of long distance and international phone calls. (Students can refer to the dialogues they practiced on Focus Sheet 1-2, but they must create their new dialogues according to the description on the role-play card).
5. Give feedback on their simulation and analyze any serious errors they make.

Responding to diversity with a range of activities:

Jigsaw: Divide students into groups (6-7 persons); give each group two envelops which contain dialogue cards for two different situations (these dialogues are cut into segments at meaningful boundaries). The pieces are shuffled and put into each envelope labeled with the topic of the dialogues they have practiced. Each group must put the cards in meaningful order as soon as possible and ask one member to take these cards to the platform. Then, the teacher asks the representative of each group to read aloud the dialogues as they connected them. The group which is first and makes the right connection is the winner.

ELD vocabulary support: Make visual important vocabulary about long distance and international phone calls.

Primary language support: Label the vocabulary on the poster in Chinese

Take home: Having students find an English newspaper or telephone book, copy down five numbers, and write down the complete telephone number if they want to call this number from Taiwan to America or from America to Taiwan.

Assessment: (Lesson 1-2)

1. Have groups present the simulations of Lesson One and Lesson Two at the next class and videotape it.
2. Give definition exercise or one-sided dialogues in which the

students fill in the responses (Test Sheet 1-1).

3. Give them five telephone numbers (both in Taiwan and America) and ask them to write the complete telephone numbers if they want to call these number from Taiwan to America or from America to Taiwan. Do multiple choices and cloze exercise (Test Sheet 1-2).

4. Distribute Student Test Sheet 1-3 to students to do exercises about time difference.

Lesson Three: Telephone Service

Objectives:

1. To know how to order telephone service
2. To know how to read the phone bill and what to do if there is a problem with the bill

Content: Telephone service and billing

Vocabulary: install, installation fee, local service charges, long distance call, identification, speed calling, call waiting, three-way calling, charge, bill, balance, payment, payment due day, disconnection/reconnection.

Lesson materials:

Poster 1-C, Focus Sheets 1-3a, 1-3b, Homework Sheet 1-3.

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up):

Ask students the following questions:

Who knows how to order telephone service in Taiwan?
Who knows what kind of information one should provide when one wants to place a telephone order in Taiwan?
Who knows what kind of service the telephone company provides in Taiwan?
What should you do when you find a problem with your phone bill?

Teaching with variety:

Visual: Use posters to show the important information one should provide when applying for service and show some important call services the telephone company offers (e.g. call-waiting, speed call, three-way calling).

Activity: 1. Have students read the Focus Sheet 1-3a and discuss how to apply for telephone service. Then explain what speed call, call waiting and three-way calling mean and how to use these functions.

2. Have students read Focus Sheet 1-3b, and explain how to read a bill. For example, have students explain phone rates and what to do if there is a problem with the bill.

Responding to diversity with a range of activities:

To do a simulation: Divide students into cooperative groups and give them role-play cards and have them discuss and role-play the following situations:

    (1) Call the telephone company to order telephone service. Questions one should ask when applying for a telephone, include:
        a. How much will it cost?
        b. What are the monthly charges?
    (2) Call the telephone company. Tell them there is something wrong with your telephone bill.

Learning centers: Offer example manuals and bills from telephone company.

ELD vocabulary support: Make visual important vocabulary about telephone service.

Primary language support: Label the vocabulary on the poster in Chinese.

Take home: Have students complete Homework Sheet 1-3 at home.

Lesson Four: How to Use a Telephone Directory

Objectives:

1. To know the differences between White and Yellow pages
2. To find numbers in White pages and locate resources in Yellow pages

Content: Telephone directories

Vocabulary: government agencies, departments, businesses, associations, the white pages, the yellow pages.

Materials:

Telephone directories, Focus Sheet 1-4, Student Work Sheet 1-4a, 1-4b

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up):

Ask students the following questions:

Who knows how to find a name on the telephone book in Taiwan?
Who knows how to find a dentist's number on the telephone book?
Who knows how to find a name on the English telephone book?

Teaching with variety:

Activity: 1. Explain alphabetical order and last name first.
   (1) Ask students to translate their names into English and put some names of the students on the board and have them alphabetized.
   (2) Be sure to explain alphabetical order not only from the standpoint of last names and how to move to the second letter of each person's name when the first letter is the same, but also how to move to first names and initials when the last names are the same. Give simple examples to be alphabetized: Yang, John; Yang, A. J. ; Young, Mary; and so on.
   (3) Divide students into groups (6-7 persons) and give each group a phone book and let them glance through it for a few moments. Then, ask them how they would look up a member. Choose five names at random in the telephone book and put them on the blackboard. Ask student to

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look up in the phone book and to write down the exact name, and find address, the phone number, and what page number in the directory for each one on Student Work Sheet 1-4a.

2. Have students read Focus Sheet 1-4 (the table of contents) and have groups discuss:
   (1) alphabetical order relating to the contents
   (2) the purpose of a table of contents
   (3) some of the vital information they can find quickly

3. Explain the purpose of the Yellow Pages and have them glance through to see the many services they can find.

4. Distribute Student Work Sheet 1-4b to students; have them look in the Yellow Pages under the headings for Travel and list the names, addresses, phone numbers, page numbers of five businesses on the sheet.

Responding to diversity with a range of activities:

Group project: Next day, have each group to make a telephone directory. This telephone book should include the following components:
   (1) The White pages: Each students' name, address, telephone number translated into English of each group.
   (2) The Yellow Pages: Find five different categories such as businesses, associations, clubs, groups, etc. they may contact often in their daily life and put five names, addresses, and telephone numbers translated into English for each categories.
   (3) Table of contents of their telephone directories.

Learning centers: Offer telephone directories.

Take home: Have students collect information for their group projects.

Assessment: (Lesson 3-4)

1. Have group present their cooperative project.
2. Give students Test Sheet 1-4 to answer questions.
3. Give students Test Sheet 1-5 to do multiple-choice exercises.

Lesson Five: Calls For Help

Objectives:

1. To know how to call for help when one is in an emergency
2. To know how to ask operators for information when one has difficulty finding the telephone number in the telephone directory

Content: Emergencies and information

Vocabulary: ambulance, accident, rescue unit, fire, robbery, information

Materials:

Poster 1-D, Focus Sheets 1-5a, 1-5b, Student Work Sheet 1-5

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up):

Ask students the following questions:

What number should you call when you find a fire in Taiwan?
What number should you call when you need an ambulance?
What number should you call when you find a robbery?
What number should you call when you cannot find the telephone number in the phone book or for areas not covered in your phone book?

Teaching with variety:

Visual: Use the poster to show the important numbers in emergencies.

Activity: 1. Have students read and practice the dialogue on Focus Sheet 1-5a and discuss what number should one call in different emergency situation such as accident, fire and so on.
2. Ask them if they know what "information" is and how to dial it in Taiwan. Then, have them practice the dialogue on Focus sheet 1-5b and teach how to dial it in America. Remind them they must give the entire name, city, and if possible, address of person(s) they are trying to reach. Explain that the phone may be listed under someone else's name and, therefore, a correct address is important in cases where

there are many of the same last names in the book.
3. Distribute Student Work Sheet 1-5 to students; pair students and have them read the dialogue squares. Call on several pairs to read the dialogue to check their understanding of how to choose appropriate lines in this format.

Responding to diversity with a range of activities:

To do a simulation: Pair students and give them role-play cards and have them discuss and role-play the following situations:

(1) Call the fire department and tell them you find a fire in an apartment and provide the address about the apartment.

(2) Call the police. Tell them there is robbery happening somewhere.

(3) You want to find a telephone number for a person or a company. You call Information and the operator helps you. Ask the operator for the number. Give the name and address of the person or company you are calling.

Lesson Six: Power Telephoning

Objectives:

1. To know how to use telephone book or newspapers to get information
2. To know how to do power telephoning and organize the information

Content: Calls for getting information

Vocabulary: travel, agency, contact, departure, arrive, vacation, brochures,

Materials:

Poster 1-E, Focus Sheets 1-6a, 1-6b, Student Work Sheet 1-6

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up):

Ask students the following questions:

What kind of information should you provide to your partner when you want to get information from them?
What kind of telephone tips should one notice when you want to get information?

Teaching with variety:

Visual: Use the poster to show the telephoning tips

Activity: 1. Have students read and discuss Focus Sheet 1-6a
2. Use Focus Sheet 1-6b and pair students to do the following simulation.
(1) Call a business and ask about office hours.
(2) Call a business and ask a specific question. Ask as many questions as they can using when, what time, or how much.

Responding to diversity with a range of activities:

Group project: 1. Give students Student Work Sheet 1-6 and divide them

into cooperative groups. Then, ask them to call different travel agencies to collect information for travel in the USA. Ask the following information, translate and list all the information on Student Work Sheet 1-6.
(1) travel place
(2) travel time
(3) travel fee
2. Next day, have them do small group discussion about the information they collected (which one is cheaper or more fun and so on). Then, list a travel plan for their group.

Learning center: Offer relevant cassettes.

Take home: Have students collect the information for the group project

Assessment: (Lesson 5-6)

1. Based on the information students collected, have groups do a simulation about calling to obtain travel information.
2. Give students Test Sheet 1-6 to do one-sided dialogues in which the student fills in responses.
3. Give students Test Sheet 1-7; in pairs, have students write their own dialogues and present their dialogues to the class.

(Please see Appendix B for all the materials and test sheets in this unit)

UNIT 2: TRAVEL

Outline

Lesson 1: Preparation for Travel
    Topic: Travel plan
    Primary Focus Activity: Discussing travel information and making travel plans

Lesson 2: Departure and Arrival
    Topic: Airport
    Primary Focus Activity: Simulating the situations at an airport

Lesson 3: Travel in the U.S.A.
    Topic: Travel transportation
    Primary Focus Activity: Understanding how to use various means of transportation to travel in America

Lesson 4: Visiting Hollywood
    Topic: Hollywood
    Primary Focus Activity: Understanding the attractions in Hollywood by watching videos, seeing pictures and postcards, and learning how to record daily travel activities

Lesson 5: Visiting San Francisco
    Topic: San Francisco
    Primary Focus Activity: Understanding the attractions in San Francisco by watching videos, seeing pictures and postcards, and learning how to plan a tour there

Lesson 6: Visiting National Parks
    Topic: Yosemite and Yellowstone
    Primary Focus Activity: Understanding the sights in Yosemite and Yellowstone and comparing the sights

Lesson One: Preparation for Travel

Objectives:

    1. To make a plan for a trip
    2. To know travel tips

Content: Travel plan

Vocabulary: traveler's check, cash, passport, ticket, itinerary, brochure. gigantic, cruise, exhibit, explore, fabulous

Materials:

Posters 2-A, 2-B, 2-C, pictures, Focus Sheets 2-1a, 2-1b, 2-1c, Student Work Sheet 2-1a, 2-1b, 2-1c 2-1d, travel brochures.

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up):

Ask students the following questions:

    Who has traveled overseas?
    How many countries have you visited?
    To what countries have you been?
    Who has visited the U. S. A? (and ask them to talk about their trips)
    What kinds of documents should one prepare for overseas travel ?

Teaching with variety :

Visual: Use Posters 2-A, 2-B, 2-C and pictures to show some famous attractions of the United States.

Activity: 1. Have students read Focus Sheet 2-1a, point out the places the text mentions on the posters and show the pictures of attractions in the United States.
      2. Divide students into cooperative groups (6-7 persons); give them Student Work Sheet 2-1a and have them discuss what places they would like to visit in the United States. Have each group choose five places they want to visit and make a travel plan for their own group.

3. Have students read Focus Sheet 2-1b and 2-1c, explain and discuss the travel tips.
4. Give students Student Work Sheet 2-1b, have them discuss what kinds of documents and stuff they should prepare for an overseas travel. Have them make a list.
5. Distribute Student Work Sheet 2-1c, have them read the tour advertisement and answer the questions on the sheet. Call on some groups to report the answers to check their understanding of how to read a tour advertisement.

Responding to diversity with a range of activities:

Group project: Give each group a vacation brochure and have each group to make a sample itinerary of their group trip. The components of the project should include:
    (1) Schedule: Use Student Work Sheet 2-1d as a guide to identify dates, destination and attractions.
    (2) Packing: List the important documents and stuff they should prepare for an overseas travel.
    (3) Travel tips: For example, take along important addresses and phone numbers, keep a copy of credit card numbers and traveler's check numbers separate from the wallet.

Learning centers: Offer relevant videos, books, magazines, pictures or posters.

Take home: Have students write a letter to a friend and talk about their travel plans.

Lesson Two: Departure and Arrival

Objectives:

    1. To know how to check in
    2. To know how to fill out the immigration and customs declaration forms
    3. To know how to answer the questions of the officials at Immigration and Customs

Content: Airport

Vocabulary: garment bag, ticket, suitcase, baggage, security guard, mental detector, X-ray screener, boarding pass, immigration, customs, luggage, stewardess, steward, passenger, compartment, tray table

Materials:

    Poster 2-D, Focus Sheets 2-2a, 2-2b, Student Work Sheet 2-2

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up):

    Ask students the following questions:
        Who knows what kinds of documents one should prepare for airport check in?
        Who knows what Immigration is?
        Who knows what Customs is?

Teaching with variety:

    Visual: Use poster 2-D to show the important vocabulary about air travel.

    Activity: 1. Have students read the dialogue on Focus Sheet 2-2a, and discuss the important information about immigration and customs.
          2. Give students Focus Sheet 2-2b, explain how to read the ticket and boarding pass.
          3. Divide students into cooperative groups; give them Student Work Sheet 2-2 and have them practice filling out the

immigration and customs forms on the sheet.
4.   Discuss Student Work Sheet 2-2.

Responding to diversity with a range of activities:

To do a simulation: Divide students into cooperative groups and have them simulate the different situations at the airport such as, immigration, customs and so on.

Learning centers: Offer samples of passport, ticket, boarding pass, immigration form and customs declaration form.

ELD vocabulary support: Make visual important vocabulary about air travel.

Primary language support: Label the vocabulary on the poster in Chinese

Take home: Have students refer to samples of passport and make their own passport. (This passport will be used in the activity of simulation)

Assessment: (Lesson 1-2)

1. Have groups present the simulation again on the next class and video-tape it.
2. Give students Test Sheet 2-1 to fill out the immigration and custom declaration forms.
3. Give students Test Sheet 2-2 to name the items on the pictures.
4. Give students Test Sheet 2-3 to do cloze exercise.

Lesson Three: Travel in the U. S. A.

Objectives:

1. To know how to travel by different means of transportation in the United States
2. To understand transportation schedule
3. To know the traffic signs and know how to read maps

Content: Travel transportation

Vocabulary: bus, passenger, subway, motorcycle, intersection, traffic, light, platform, yield, parking meter, van, time table, migration, excursion, adventurous, natural wonder, flora, fauna, globetrotter.

Lesson materials:

Posters 2-E, 2-F, Focus Sheets 2-3a, 2-3b, Student Work Sheet 2-3.

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up):

Ask students the following questions:

What can identify the means of transportation?
Which means of transportation would you like to use for your imaginary trip? why?

Teaching with variety:

Visual: Use posters to show the important vocabulary about transportation and traffic signs.

Activity: 1. Use Posters 2-E and 2-F to explain the different means of transportation and traffic signs.
2. Have students read Focus Sheet 2-3a and explain how to rent a car in the U. S. A.
3. Have students read Focus Sheet 2-3b and explain how to read a timetable and tell time in English.
4. Divide students into cooperative groups, give them Student Work Sheet 2-3 and have them learn to read the map and give directions.

Responding to diversity with a range of activities:

To do a simulation: Divide students into cooperative groups, give them role-play cards and have them simulate specific situations such as: Renting a car, buying a ticket, telling direction and so on.

ELD vocabulary support: Make visual important vocabulary about transportation.

Assessment: (lesson 3)

1. Give students Test Sheet 2-4 to answer the questions about the bus schedule.
2. Give students Test Sheet 2-5 to test the traffic signs.

Lesson Four: Visiting Hollywood

Objectives:

    1. To recognize the attractions in Hollywood
    2. To know how to do a daily travel and activity record

    <u>Content</u>: Hollywood

    <u>Vocabulary</u>: Hollywood, movie star, footprint, bluevard, wired, sidewalk, museum, autograph, tour, tourist, fence, afford.

Materials:

    Video, map, pictures, postcards, books, Focus Sheets 2-4, Student Work Sheet 2-4.

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up):

    Ask students the following questions:

        Who knows where Hollywood is?
        Who has visited Hollywood? (ask them to talk about their trips)
        Who knows the famous attractions in Hollywood?

Teaching with variety:

    <u>Visual</u>: Use videos, pictures, postcards, or books to show the famous attractions in Hollywood.

    <u>Activity</u>: 1. Point out Hollywood on the map and show the pictures of Hollywood.
           2. Have students see the video about the attractions in Hollywood.
           3. Have students read Focus Sheets 2-4, list and discuss about the attractions in Hollywood.
           4. Have students discuss about their favorite American movie stars and their movies.

Responding to diversity with a range of activities:

    Cooperative task: Give students Student Work Sheet 2-4; have them discuss their imaginary trip in Hollywood and record

their daily travel activities.

<u>Learning centers</u>: Offer videos, pictures, books and postcards.

<u>Take home</u>: Have student use the symbols of Hollywood such as the famous footprints or the pictures of movie stars to make a postcard. Also, write down their impressions of Hollywood on the postcard.

Lesson Five: Visiting San Francisco

Objectives:

1. To recognize the attractions in San Francisco
2. To know how to make a tour in San Francisco

<u>Content</u>: San Francisco

<u>Vocabulary</u>: sightseeing, entertainment, Fisherman's Wharf, cable car,
Golden Gate Bridge, crab, shrimp, menu, salmon, shrimp,
daily special, Coit Tower, Ghirardelli Square.

Materials:

Video, pictures, postcards, Focus Sheets 2-5a, 2-5b

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up):

Ask students the following questions:

Who knows where San Francisco is?
Who has visited San Francisco? (ask them to talk about their trips)
Who knows the famous attractions in San Francisco?

Teaching with variety:

<u>Visual</u>: Use the video, pictures, postcard, or books to show the famous
attractions in San Francisco.

<u>Activity</u>: 1. Point out San Francisco on the map and show the pictures of
the attractions in San Francisco.
2. Have students see the video about the attractions in San
Francisco.
3. Have students read Focus Sheets 2-5a, list and discuss
about the attractions in San Francisco.
4. Teach students sing the song" San Francisco" on Focus
Sheet 2-5b.

Responding to diversity with a range of activities:

Group project: Divide students into cooperative groups, have them

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discuss and plan their trip in San Francisco. This
project should include:
(1) Schedule: Time, places and activities.
(2) means of transportation

Learning centers: Offer relevant videos, pictures, books and postcards.

Take home: Have students write a journal about their imaginary travel in
San Francisco.

Lesson Six: Visiting National Parks

Objectives:

1. To know the sights in the national parks of U. S. A.
2. To compare Yosemite National Park and Yellowstone National Park.

Content: Yosemite & Yellowstone.

Vocabulary: delineate, nave, marvel, sanctuary, fluted, balmy, conifer, sequoia, alpenglow, marsh, geyser, vent, scalding, runoff, limestone.

Materials:

Video, map, pictures, postcards, Focus Sheets 2-6a, 2-6b

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up):

Ask students the following questions:

What are the common sights in the national parks of Taiwan?
Who has visited the national parks of the U. S. A. ? (ask them to describe the sights)
Who knows where Yosemite National Park and Yellowstone National Park are?

Teaching with variety:

Visual: Use videos, pictures, postcard, or books to show the famous sights in Yosemite and Yellowstone National Parks.

Activity: 1. Point out the locations of Yosemite and Yellowstone National Parks on the map. Show pictures, postcards, magazines and books about the sights in these two national parks.
2. Have students watch the video about Yosemite and Yellowstone National Parks.
3. Have students read Focus Sheets 2-6a and 2-6b. Use a big compare/contrast matrix to discuss and compare these two national parks (fall, sanctuary and so on.)

Responding to diversity with a range of activities:

Each pair of students completes a picture or verbal description comparing Yosemite National Park and Yellowstone National Park. These will be connected to matrix with string.

<u>Learning centers</u>: Offer videos, pictures, books and postcards

Assessment: (Lesson 3-6)

1. Have groups present their group project on Lesson Four and Lesson Five.
2. Give students Test Sheet 2-6 to write the correct phrase under each picture.
3. Listen to the song "San Francisco" and do cloze exercises on Test Sheet 2-7.
4. Write an essay (about two-three pages) to describe their imaginary travel in the U. S. A.
5. Jeopardy game: Write down "Hollywood", "San Francisco", "Yosemite National Park" and "Yellow Stone National Park" on the blackboard; give a description of an attraction and have students give category.

(Please see Appendix C for all the materials and test sheets in this unit)

Evaluation

To evaluate the effectiveness of my project once it has been completed, I design both written and oral assessments for each unit. The following (Table 1 and Table 2) are the check lists for these assessments:

Test \\ Name	Written Assessments											
	UNIT 1					UNIT 2						
	1-1	1-2	1-3	1-4	1-5	2-1	2-2	2-3	2-4	2-5	2-6	Essay (travel)
A												
B												
C												
D												

Table 1. Written Assessments

name \\ grade		Oral Assessments									
		Unit 1					Unit 2				
		Simulation (Lesson 1-2)		Cooperative Project(Lesson 4)		Simulation (Lesson 6)		Simulation (Lesson 2)		Group project (Lesson 3-4)	
		Fluency	Content	Fluency	Content	Fluency	Content	Fluency	Content	Fluency	Content
A	individ.										
	group										
B	individ.										
	group										
C	individ.										
	group										
D	individ.										
	group										

Table 2. Oral Assessments

The main contents of written assessments include definition exercises, one-sided dialogues, multiple choices, cloze exercises and matching exercises. The purpose of these assessments is to evaluate students' concept comprehension and language use. In addition, there is an essay to assess whether students can describe scenes and express feelings according to their experience or imaginative ability.

The primary activities of oral assessments are simulations and group projects. To evaluate these cooperative tasks, teachers are suggested to assign each student an individual grade and a group grade to maximize the participation and achievement of each individual in the group. Content and fluency are two main elements for assessing students' oral performance. Content is designed to see whether the student or the group can give information to others, respond to information and use communicative skills to facilitate interaction with individuals and in the group. Fluency is to designed to see whether the student and the group can express ideas and opinions fluently and respond appropriately to the opinions and emotions of others.
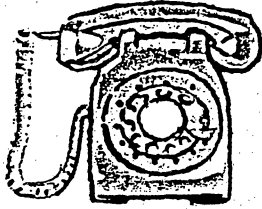
If the average grade of the class, for the written assessments, is about 80, and the average grade of the class, for the oral assessments, is about 75, then the curriculum design is effective. Of course, the grade is not the only way to evaluate the effectiveness of the curriculum. We can use dynamic assessments to evaluate students' performance. Observation is an also important tool for evaluating the effectiveness of this curriculum. Arnold, Smith, Folld, and Lapp

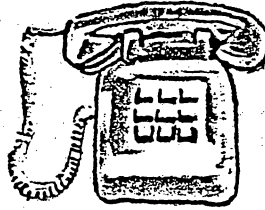(1989) provide two kinds of informal observational checklists (See Appendix D).

In addition, if the group members always stay on task during class and exchange

ideas and opinions in English enthusiastically, this curriculum also reaches its

purpose: That students develop their English communicative competence

through using English to convey their meanings.
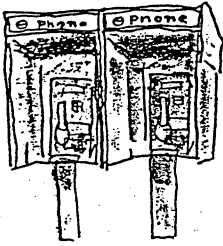
APPENDIX B: MATERIALS FOR UNIT ONE

dial desk phone
['daɪəl dɛsk fon]
撥號式電話

touch-tone desk phone
['tʌtʃ,ton dɛsk fon]
按鍵式電話

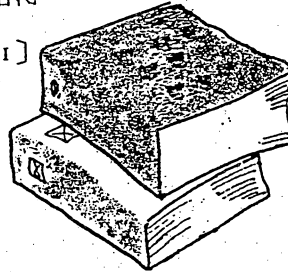telephone booth
['tɛlə,fon buθ]
telephone kiosk (英)
['tɛlə,fon kɪ'ɑsk]
公共電話亭

pay phone
[pe fon]
public telephone
['pʌblɪk 'tɛlə,fon]
公用電話

classified directory
['klæsə,faɪd də'rɛktərɪ]
Yellow Pages
['jɛlo 'pedʒɪz]
分類電話簿

telephone directory
['tɛlə,fon də'rɛktərɪ]
電話簿

operator
['ɑpə,retə]
接線生
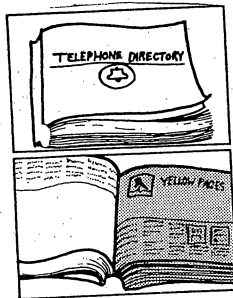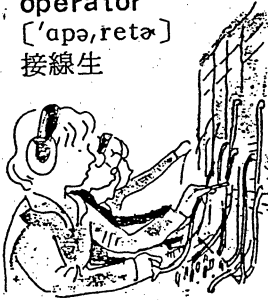
Yellow Pages/
White Pages
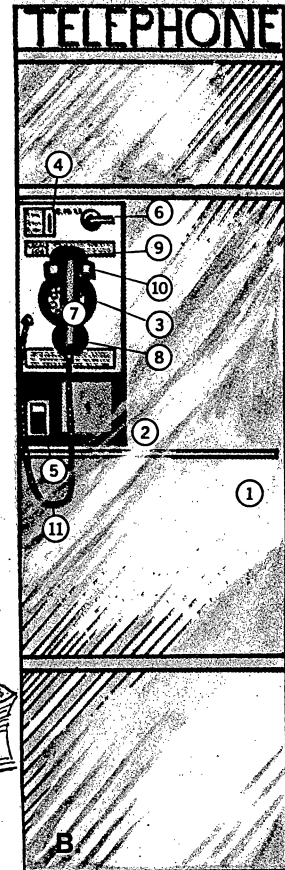
B. Telephone
1. phone booth
2. telephone
3. dial
4. coin slot
5. coin return
6. coin release
7. receiver
8. mouthpiece
9. earpiece
10. hook
11. cord

(Chen, 1992, p. 78 ; Freeman, 1982, p. 114-115)

THE TELEPHONE AND TELEPHONE CALLS

The telephone was invented by Alexander Graham Bell in 1876. At first, people thought the telephone was a novelty; now they think it is a necessity. The telephone is important today in the lives of millions of people around the world. It carries messages of all kinds; but above all, it brings people and countries closer together through cables under water and communication satellite in space.

Many years ago, you could not make a phone call without an operator's assistance. Later, a person was able to dial local numbers on his own phone, but he needed the operator's help for a long distance call. Today, however, a Chinese citizen can dial direct thousand of miles away, from Taipei to New York, or from Kaohsiung to San Francisco. The service is also better now, and the rates are becoming lower every year, with a special discount during the weekend.

When speaking over the telephone, one should follow proper telephone manners and courtesy. Here are three telephone conversations that exemplify good telephone manners.

DIALOGUE 1

(Wrong number)

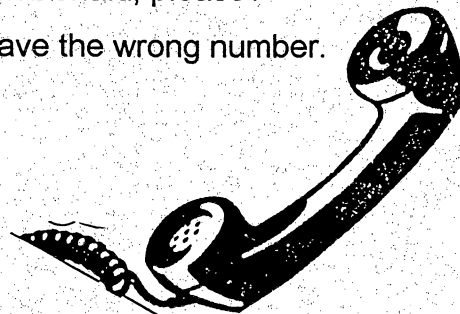|	
Barbara:	May I speak to Mr. MacDonald, please?
Mr. Smith:	I'm sorry. You must have the wrong number.
Barbara:	Is this 321-4793?
Mr. Smith:	No, this is 321-4739.
Barbara:	Oh, I'm sorry.
Mr. Smith:	That's all right.

(continued)

DIALOGUE 2

(Making an appointment)

Mr. MacDonald: Hello.

Barbara: Hello. I'd like to speak to Mr. MacDonald.

Mr. MacDonald: This is Robert MacDonald speaking.

Barbara: Mr. MacDonald, this is Barbara Williams. I'd like to see you this afternoon. Are you free for about half an hour?

Mr. MacDonald: I think so. Yes. I can see you at 2:30. Is that all right?

Barbara: Yes, that's fine.

Mr. MacDonald: Good. I'll see you then.

Barbara: Thank you, Mr. MacDonald. Good-bye.

DIALOGUE 3

(Leaving a message)

Barbara: May I speak to Linda?

Joan: He is not in. May I take a message?

Barbara: Could you tell him to give Barbara a call?

    He has my number.

Joan: OK. I'll be glad to tell him that.

(Roberts & Shy, 1995, p. 122-130)

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Tips on
Answering the Telephone

The telephone is your link to the outside world. Through the telephone, you give and receive information and pass instructions to people. People often form impressions of you by the way you speak to them on the telephone. Your telephone skills can influence their willingness to work with you.

So just how strong are your conversational skills when you answer the telephone? To find out, take this brief quiz. Listed below are a series of statements, each describing a particular telephone skill. Rate yourself on each skill: If you practice it *consistently*, give yourself a "3." If you usually practice it, rate yourself with a "2." If you practice it occasionally, you get a "1," and if you rarely practice the skill, you rate a "0."

1. I answer the telephone within four rings. _____

2. After answering the telephone, I immediately *identify* myself. _____

3. When I receive calls, I open each conversation with a *cheery* greeting. _____

4. When a caller wishes to speak to an absent colleague, I offer to take a message or help. _____

5. When I take messages, I note the name and telephone number of the caller and repeat it back to him. _____

6. I am careful not to interrupt the other person while he is speaking. _____

7. I repeat the other person's name several times during the conversation. _____

8. I speak in a professional, but relaxed tone of voice. _____

9. I take notes during my conversations to *ensure* proper follow up. _____

10. I avoid placing persons "on hold." _____

So how'd you do? Total your score. If you totaled between 27 and 30, you're doing a great job answering the telephone. Keep it up! A score of 23 to 26 means you're doing well and, with a bit of practice, you'll perfect your already good skills. If you score between 19 and 22, you're not doing too badly, but your telephone skills may be a little rough around the edges. If you're below 18, you need study and practice!

Telephone conversation is one of the most *critical* everyday business skills, but it's frequently overlooked by people at every level of business. Many first—and lasting—impressions are formed over the telephone; and profits are made and lost there.

If you practice top-notch telephone skills, you already know the difference those skills make: People at the other end of the line are much more pleasant with you and are usually

delighted to work with you after the conversations are over.

❸

If you want to improve your telephone performance, follow these ten tips.
1. Answer the telephone *promptly*.
2. Let callers know your name.
3. Be cheerful, without appearing insincere.
4. Never leave callers unattended.
5. Listen carefully.
6. Use the other person's name.
7. Encourage honest conversation by asking questions.
8. Speak in a *polished* but relaxed tone.
9. Summarize key points toward the end of the conversation.
10. Let the other person close the conversation.

Always avoid the following ten "telephone turn-offs."
1. "Yeah?"
2. "He's busy now."
3. "Can you call back later?"
4. "Sorry, that's not my department."
5. "I have no idea why this call was sent to me."
6. "What do you want?"
7. "I only have a minute."
8. "Wait a minute, while I put you on hold."
9. "Better make this quick."
10. "I don't need to hear any more."

A pleasant telephone manner gives callers a good impression of you and your company

Word Bank

consistently (adv)	[kən'sɪstəntlɪ]	一定地；不變地
identify (v)	[aɪ'dentəˌfaɪ]	表明身份
cheery (adj)	['tʃɪrɪ]	愉快的
ensure (v)	[ɪn'ʃʊr]	確保
critical (adj)	['krɪtɪkl̩]	重要的
promptly (adv)	['prɑmptlɪ]	迅速地；立刻地
polished (adj)	['pɑlɪʃt]	洗鍊的；專業的

More Information

rough around the edges (adj phr)	形容不夠完美、成熟
top-notch (adj phr)	一流的；極好的
turn-off (n phr)	使人不高興的事物
put someone on hold (v phr)	讓某人在電話中等候

(Ensman, Jr., 1995, p.6-7)

Student Work Sheet 1-1

Direction: *Repeat the conversations, substituting different lines from the the data bank.*

Life Skills

Hello?

I'm sorry, Rosa. He's not at home.

Certainly. What's your number?

944-3700. I'll give him the message.

Hello. Is Andy there? This is Rosa.

Will you ask him to call me?

It's 944-3700.

Thanks. Bye.

Good morning. State Bank. Can I help you?

That line is busy. Will you hold?

Mr. Rogers, please.

No, I'll call back later.

DATA BANK

Operator.	Is Pam there?	Can I leave a message?
Can I help you?	Can I speak to Pam?	I'll call back later.
That line is busy.	Is Pam home?	Please have him call me.
Will you hold?		
area code	Mr. Rogers, please.	
information		
Dial. . .		

(Walker, 1992, p. 86)

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Poster 1-B

local call
市內電話

long-distance call
長途電話

international call
國際電話

☎81 - 3 - 123 - 4567
country code   area code   city code   telephone number
國際號碼   區域號碼   市內號碼   電話號碼

station-to-station call
叫號長途電話

（內線）7777

person-to-person call   • collect call

叫人電話   reverse charge call

extension
分機
（英）

對方付費電話

(Chen, 1992, p. 79)

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International Phone Calls

Operator:	This is the Operator. May I help you?
Tom:	I'd like to make a collect call to Taiwan.
Operator:	What kind of call are you going to make?
Tom:	A station-to-station call, please.
Operator:	May I have your name?
Tom:	Tom Lee.
Operator:	What number are you calling?
Tom:	264-5888, the area code is 06.
Operator:	Hold on, please.

(After the connection, the Operator speaks to the long-distance party.)

Allen:	Hello.
Operator:	You have a collect call from Tom Lee at Los Angeles. Will you accept the charges?
Allen:	O.K.

(Then, Operator speaks to Tom)

Operator:	Go ahead, please.

Practice

Traveler:

1. I'd like to place a person-to-person call.
2. I'd like to place a long-distance call.
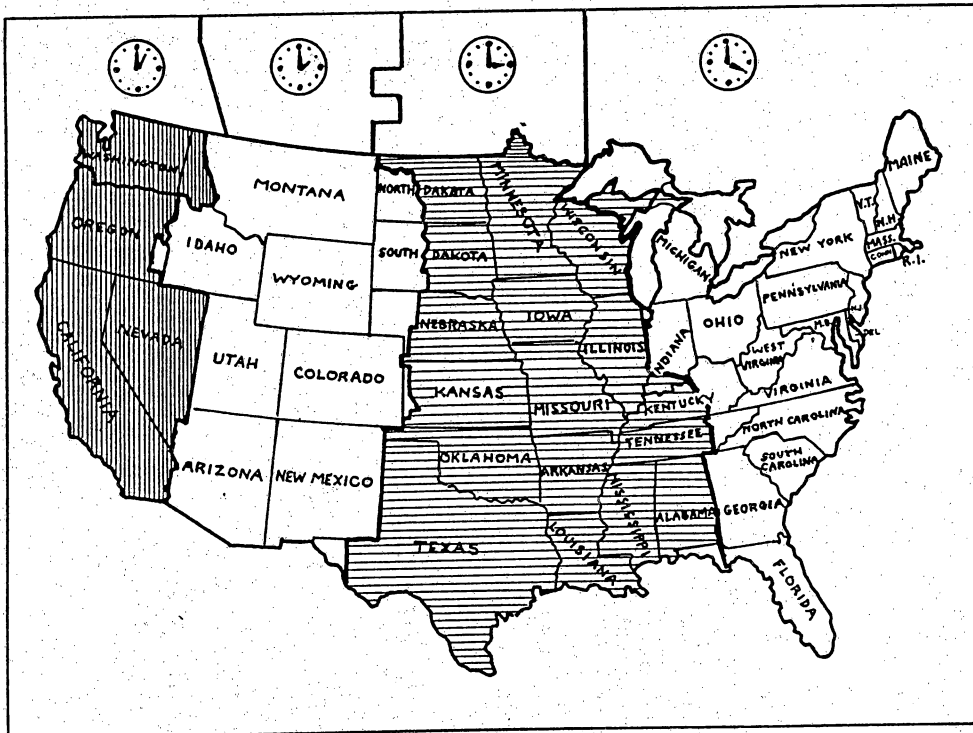3. I'd like to make an overseas call.

Operator:

5. The line is busy now.
6. No one answers the phone.
7. Shall I keep trying and let you know when I get through?

(adapted from Roberts & Shy, 1995, p. 131-137)

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TALK IT OVER

Look at the map below. It shows the different time zones for the United States.

Work with other students in groups. Each person in the group lists the following information on the chart below: the states they are calling from; the time they are calling; the states they reach; and the time they reach the other states.

One person from each group reports the group's information to the class.

If you call from <u>Massachusetts</u> at <u>4:00 P.M.</u> you reach <u>Wyoming</u> at <u>2:00 P.M.</u>
<div style="margin-left:6em">California   8:30 A.M.   New York   11:30 A.M.</div>

(Freeman, 1992, p. 125-126)

Test Sheet 1-1

I. ***Direction:*** *Write the definition here. Use the words in sentences so they become part of you.*

1. long-distance call:

2. area code:

3. correct call:

4. persona-to-person:

5. station-to-station:

6. wrong number:

7. answering machine:

8. operator:

9. busy signal:

10. deposit:

II. One-sided dialogues-please full in the responses in the blanks.

(1) Tom: May I speak to Mr. Brown, please?
Mary: _____.
Tom: Is this 338-2344?
Mary: _____.
Tom: Oh, I'm sorry.
Mary: _____.

(2) John: May I speak to Linda?
Sue: _____.
John: Could you tell him to give john a call?
Sue: _____.
John: My number is 264-5889.
Sue: _____.

Test Sheet 1-2

I. Direction: Below are five telephone numbers (Both in Taiwan and America). Please write the complete telephone numbers (including the country code, area code and telephone number) if you want to call between cities in America, or call between Taiwan and America.

1. (718) 699-5774 (between cities in America) :_____
2. (02) 341-8429 (From America to Taiwan):_____
3. (06) 264-5889 (From America to Taiwan): _____
4. (909) 886-0492 (From Taiwan to America): _____
5. (213) 567-3452 (From Taiwan to America): _____

II. Please circle the right answer and fill in the blanks in this text:

The telephone was invented by an American (name, named, naming, to name) Alexander Graham Bell in 1876. _____ first, people did not understand the (important, importance, importantly) of this (invent, invention, inventive, invented). (Later, Latter, Late, Lately), they found that it was indispensable in the lives _____ millions _____ people.

The telephone carries messages_____ all kinds. It helps people to get closer than before not only through cables_____water_____also through communication satellites_____space.

Long time ago, we needed an operator's help even when we wanted to (call, make, dial, do) a local number. Today we can do it on our own.

(Speaking, To speak, Speaking, Spoken) over the telephone, we should have good telephone manners. Always say ("I'm sorry", "thank you", "That's all right", "You're welcome") when you dial a wrong number. And _____ all, be polite and patient when you are speaking over the telephone.

▶ **Answer the questions.**

1. If it is 9 A.M. Monday in New York,
   what time/day is it in your native city? _____

2. It takes five hours to fly from Boston to Los Angeles.
   If Maria's plane leaves Boston at 5 P.M., what
   time will it be in Los Angeles when she arrives? _____

3. Kim is leaving Dallas at 2 P.M. on a flight
   to Santa Fe. The flight takes one hour. What
   time will it be in Santa Fe when she arrives? _____

4. When it's 8 A.M. in Portland, Oregon, what time is it in

   a. St. Louis _____   b. Washington, D.C.? _____

   c. Boise? _____   d. your native city? _____

   e. the place you live now? _____
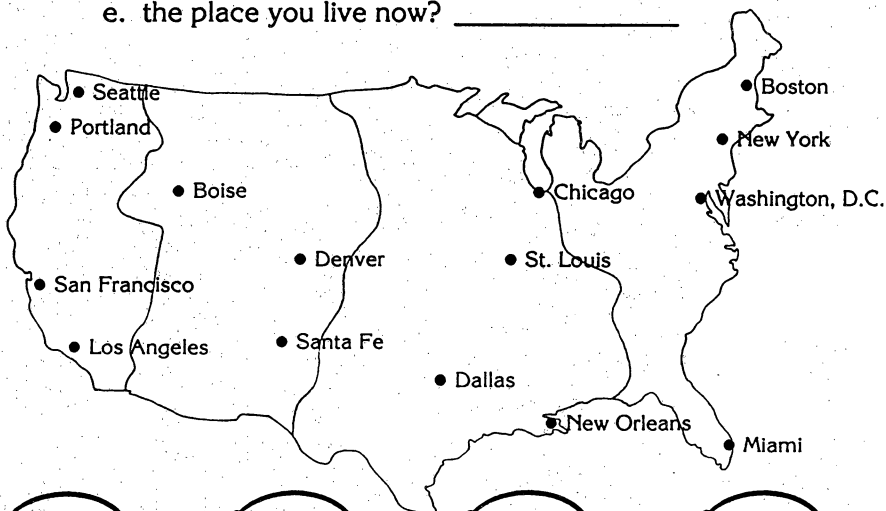

(Scheraga, 1991, p. 26)

INSTALLATION

SERVICE

(see **WHERE TO REACH GTE – CUSTOMER SERVICE OFFICES**)

To order, change, or stop service, contact our Business Office. Our customer representatives will be happy to explain the types of services available. Please provide the following information when applying for service:

1) Street address
2) How you want your name to appear in the directory
3) Type of local service (refer to **CALLING INSTRUCTIONS**)
4) Identification
5) Information about previous telephone service

3-Way Calling
三 面 通 話

Call Waiting
插 撥

Speed Calling
快速 通話
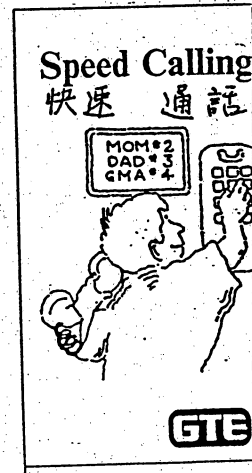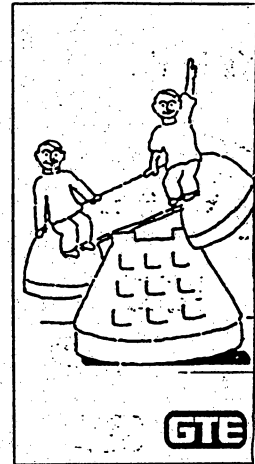
Focus Sheet 1-3a

Call Waiting

Expecting a special call doesn't mean staying off the phone. With Call Waiting, your calls come through even when you're on the line. The Call Waiting "beep" tells you when someone is trying to reach you. Then you just put your present call on hold while you answer the second call. Great for busy couples, roommates, and especially families with teenagers.

Instruction:
1) If you are talking on the phone and you receive another call, you'll hear a "beep" tone. The person calling will hear normal ringing until you answer.
2) Tell your first caller you have another call. When that person hangs up, you will be connected with the second caller within two seconds.
3) If you want to put the first caller on hold to answer the second call, press the hookswitch (the button that hangs up the phone) for one second. This will put your first call on hold and connect you to your second call.
4) To return to the first call, press the hookswitch for one second. This will return you to your original call and put the second call on hold. You can repeat this process as often as necessary.

Three-Way Calling

Three-Way Calling eliminates "back and forth" calling by letting you talk to two people at the same time. Three-Way Calling lets you hold a three-way conversation with friends, relatives, or business associates. You can decide who, where, and when all in one smart call.

Instructions:
1) Call the first party as you normally would.
2) While connected to the first party, press the hookswitch (the button that hangs up the phone) for one second. This puts your party on hold.
3) Listen for three tones and dial tone.
4) Dial the number of third party. When the call is answered, you may talk privately before bringing your first party back on the line. Press the hookswitch for one second to establish a Three-Way Call.
5) If you receive no answer or a busy signal, press and release the hookswitch twice to return to your first party.

To disconnect.....
1) Hang up and both parties will disconnect.
2) If either party hangs up, your call with the remaining party will continue.
3) Disconnect the second party yourself by pressing the hookswitch.

(continued)

Focus Sheet 1-3a

Speed Calling

Speed Calling saves you time and effort. There is no need to search for important numbers since your phone remembers up to eight or thirty of them. Dial with an easy two-button code.

Instructions:

To save a number using Speed Calling 8...
1) Listen for a dial tone.
2) Dial 74#.
3) Listen for a second dial tone.
4) Dial a one-digit code for each number (2 through 9), followed by the telephone number the code represents.
5) Two short tones indicate the number has been stored.

To save a number using Speed Calling 30...
1) Listen for a dial tone.
2) Dial 75#.
3) Listen for a second dial tone.
4) Dial a two-digit code for each number (20 through 49), followed by the telephone number the code represents.
5) Two short tones indicate the number has been stored.

To place a call...
1) Listen for a dial tone.
2) Dial one of the Speed Calling codes followed by the # button.
3) Your call will go through after a short pause.

BILLING
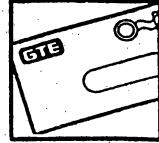
BILL SAMPLE

Previous Charges
This section reviews your total amount due from last month, how much you paid GTE and how much, if any, you still owe from last month.

Current Charges
Your GTE and long distance charges are summarized in this area. The following pages of the bill give you more detailed information about these charges.

Please see reverse side
This message reminds you to read the back of the bill for additional useful information.

Payment stub
Tear off this portion of your bill and return it to GTE with your payment.

Total due and due date
Your total amount due for this month and the date GTE must receive the payment by appears in this space.

GTE return address
Mail your amount due in the enclosed courtesy envelope to the address printed here on your bill.

GTE

PAGE 1 OF 7

Helpful numbers

GTE billing questions call
1 800 438-3000

For repair 611

Assistencia en Español-Ordenes, Cobros o Servicio de Reparación Llame al
1 800 483-7724

Please pay this amount.

It's our privilege to serve you.

TELEPHONE NUMBER
BILL DATE

1146260180
XXX XXX-XXXX
February 4, 1994   Customer ID XXXXXX

BILLING SUMMARY   JOHN DOE

Previous charges

Amount of last bill	$ 105.75
Payment received. Thank you.	CR 105.75
Balance	$ .00

A 1.50% Late Payment Charge applies (Mar 8, 1994).

Current charges

GTE charges	$ 19.62
Long distance/Sprint	53.43
Other long distance charges	14.67
Total current charges	$ 87.72

Total amount due	$ 87.72
Due date	February 26, 1994

Please see reverse side for additional information.
Detach and return this section with your check payable to GTE.   210*HBRZ3 500032412

TELEPHONE NUMBER   XXX XXX-XXXX

Total amount due	$ 87.72
Due date	February 26, 1994

Check (✓) box if paying this amount

JOHN DOE
ADDRESS,
CITY, CA ZIP CODE

GTE California
Payment Processing Ctr
Inglewood, CA
90313-0001

01 1741 7353162 801230 09 00000000000 00000008772 09

BILL EXPLANATION
Shown above is an example of the Billing Summary Page of your telephone bill. This page summarizes payments, adjustments, and new charges for easy review and cross checking. Subsequent pages of the bill provide a detailed breakdown of the charges/credits including information concerning each long distance call.

BILLING QUESTIONS
Concerning the GTE portion of your bill:
.... 1+800+483-3000
Concerning the Long Distance Company's portion of your bill: Refer to the telephone number in the yellow border along the left side of the bill on the long distance company's portion of the bill.

Home Work Sheet 1-3

Name: _____

D. Telephone Bills

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│            FIRST TELEPHONE                                        │
│                                                                   │
│  909-234-8234   MAY 11 1996                                       │
├───────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────── │
│  PREVIOUS CHARGES AND CREDITS                                     │
│   ┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┬──────────────┐ │
│   │ BALANCE FROM PREVIOUS BILL        20.56      │              │ │
│   │ PAYMENTS                          20.56CR     │              │ │
│   │ BALANCE                             .00      │      .00     │ │
│   └─────────────────────────────────────────────┴──────────────┘ │
│  CURRENT CHARGES AND CREDITS                                      │
│   ┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┬──────────────┐ │
│   │ MONTHLY SERVICE                    7.89      │              │ │
│   │ LONG DISTANCE (SEE DETAIL)       100.08      │              │ │
│   │ TAX                                5.23      │              │ │
│   │ CURRENT CHARGES                  113.20      │    113.20    │ │
│   └─────────────────────────────────────────────┴──────────────┘ │
│             TOTAL DUE BY JUNE 10              │   $113.20          │
│                                                                   │
│   FOR BUSINESS OFFICE                                             │
│   CALL (909)-234-8969                                             │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

Use this telephone bill to answer the following questions:

1. What is the monthly service charge?

2. What is the long distance total?

3. What is the total due?

4. By what date must you pay your bill?

5. If you had a question about this bill, what number would you call?

華人工商 電話簿 總 目 錄 **1996**
CONTENTS

CHINESE CONSUMER YELLOW PAGES
525 S. SAN GABRIEL BLVD., SAN GABRIEL, CA 91776
TEL:(818)285-6500   FAX:(818)285-7066

Student Work Sheet 1-4a

Direction: **Look up in the phone book and find out the five name listed on the blackboard. Write down the exact name, address, the phone number, and what page number in the directory for each one.**

Name	Address	Phone Number	Page Number
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			

Student Work Sheet 1-4b

Direction: Look in the Yellow Pages of the phone directory under the headings for Travel. List the names, addresses, phone numbers and page numbers of 5 businesses which you are interested in.

Business Name	Address	Phone Number	Page Number
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			

Test Sheet 1-4

Name:_____

D. Telephone Bills

WONDERFUL TELEPHONE			
909-283-9882 APRIL 10 1996			

PREVIOUS CHARGES AND CREDITS

BALANCE FROM PREVIOUS BILL	120.56	
PAYMENTS	120.56CR	
BALANCE	.00	.00

CURRENT CHARGES AND CREDITS

MONTHLY SERVICE	7.89	
LONG DISTANCE (SEE DETAIL)	50.08	
TAX	5.23	
CURRENT CHARGES	63.20	63.20
TOTAL DUE BY MAY 05		$ 63.20

FOR BUSINESS OFFICE
CALL (909)-283-8099

Use this telephone bill to answer the following questions:

1. What is the long distance total?

2. What is the total due?

3. If you had a question about this bill, what number would you call?

4. What is the monthly service charge?

5. By what date must you pay your bill?

Multiple-Choice Exercises:

1. Never miss a call because your line is busy. _____

2. Reach numbers with speed and accuracy. _____

3. Add a third person to your conversation. _____

4. A section of a telephone directories that list _____

   businesses, associations, clubs, groups, etc.

5. A section of a telephone directories that list people. _____

a. Three-Way calling

b. Call Waiting

c. The White Pages

d. The Yellow Pages

e. Speed Calling

OTHER EMERGENCY AGENCIES

En la página 4 encontrará la información en español sobre las agencias de emergencia.

CALIFORNIA MISSING CHILDREN HOTLINE .... 1+800+222-3463

COAST GUARD – Search & Rescue .... 1+310+980-4400

EMERGENCY MENTAL HEALTH HOSPITAL SERVICES 387-7171

FBI
   Riverside 686-0335
   If no answer call Los Angeles .... 1+310+477-6565

NATIONAL RESPONSE CENTER
   Oil and Toxic Chemical Spills .... 1+800+424-8802

SECRET SERVICE
   Los Angeles .... 1+213+894-4830
   Riverside 276-6781

UCI REGIONAL **POISON** CENTER .... 1+800+544-4404
   or .... 1+714+634-5988

US POSTAL INSPECTION SERVICE
   Criminal Investigations 276-6505
   24-Hour Emergency Number .... 1+818+405-1200

TT NUMBER FOR HEARING AND SPEECH IMPAIRED
(FOR TELETYPE MACHINE USE ONLY)

**NO VOICE ANSWER
TT USE ONLY**

FIRE – RESCUE – PARAMEDICS – POLICE
San Bernardino (City) 384-5317

CONVERSATION 1A: An Accident

1.
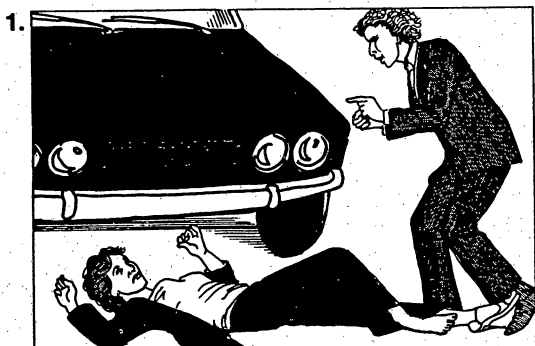
A. Help, I can't get up.
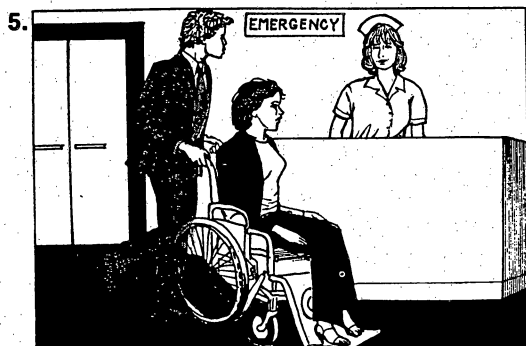B. I'll call an ambulance.

2.

B. Stay here and keep her
comfortable.
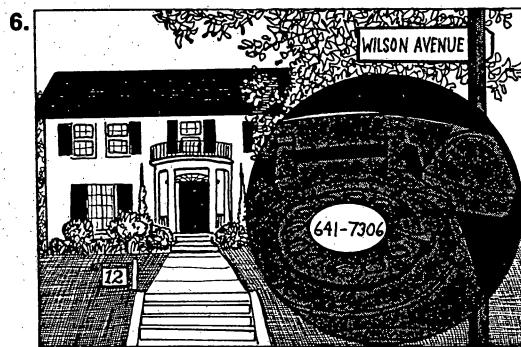C. Hurry!

3.

B. Operator, I'm calling about an
accident.
D. Where are you?

4.

B. I am at the corner of Alameda
Boulevard and Second Street.
D. We'll send an ambulance now.

5.

B. She was hit by a car.
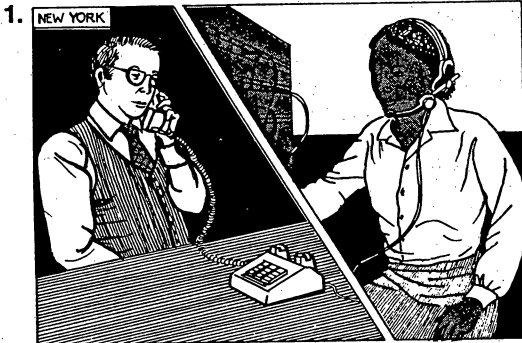E. Give me your name, address
and phone number.

6.

A. Diane Grand, 12 Wilson Avenue,
641-7306.
E. The doctor will see you
now.

(Freeman, 1995, p. 20)

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CONVERSATION 2: Asking for Information

1.

A. Operator, how do I get information in Oregon?
B. Dial Area Code 503, then dial 555-1212.

2.

C. Information, what city, please?
A. Portland.

3.

A. I'd like the number for Sam Pong.
C. How do you spell the last name?

4.
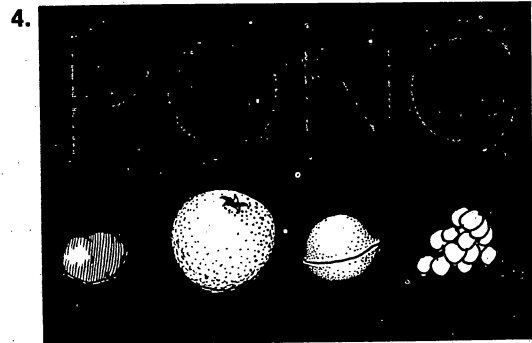
A. P as in plum, O as in orange, N as in nut, and G as in grapes.

5.

C. What's the address?
A. 19 Oak Lane.

6.

C. The number is 631-4582
A. Thanks very much.

(Freeman, 1995, p. 117)

Say the right thing!

Information. What city please? •
Operator. Can I help you? •

Riverside, California?
The number for Max Shorter, please?

Sorry. That's out of my area. •
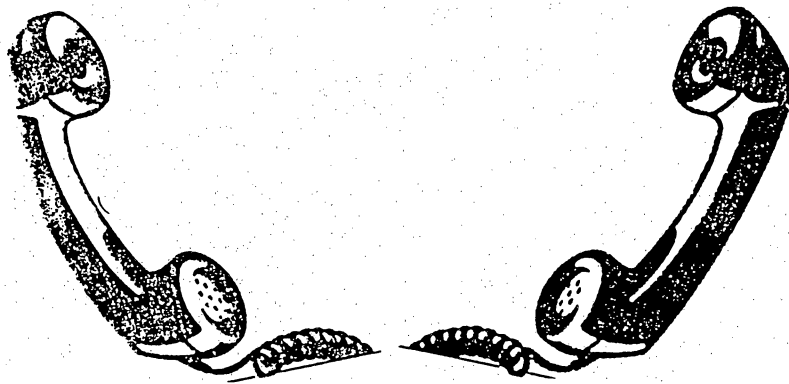Max Carter? •

No, Shorter. S-h-o-r-t-e-r.
How do I get a number in Riverside?

Dial 1, the area code, and 555-1212. •
The number is 388-0191. •

But I don't kow the area code.
Do I have to dial 1 first?

Yes, you do. •
It's 203. •

Thanks.
Thank you.

(Walker, 1992, p. 87)

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Power Telephoning

1. Get permission to use phones.

2. Copy and fill out the phone form on Student Work Sheet 1-6.

3. State your name, grade, and school or organization.

4. If you don't know the name of a contact, ask for someone in public relations or public information.

5. If your contact isn't there, ask when he will be there. Write down the time. Call back at that time. Or leave your name, phone number, a time when he can reach you, and a brief message about why you're calling.

6. What if your contact doesn't call you back? Bug him! Call again and again.

7. What if your contact does answer the phone, tell him your name, grade, and school or organization again. Then move on to the purpose of your call.

8. Write down exactly what your contact tells you.

9. While you have your contact on the phone, get his correct name, title, address, ZIP code, and phone extension.

10. Leave your name, address, and phone number with your contact, so he can get in touch with you again.

11. When you have the information you need, thank your contact, then hang up. File the phone form where you can find it again.

(Adapted from Lewis, 1991, p. 22-23)

Telephoning Tips

1. Get permission to use phones at your home, school, group, or club. It might sound routine, but it's important.
2. Copy and fill out the phone form on Student Work Sheet 1-6, unless you're a seasoned phone buff.
3. When someone answers your call, state your name, grade, and school or organization. Even if you're doing a project on your own, you'll probably get better service if you mention your school name.
4. If you don't know the name of a contact, ask for someone in public relations or public information. This will usually land you in the right department.
5. If your contact isn't there, ask when he will be there. Write down the time. Call back at that time. Or leave your name, phone number, a time when he can reach you, and a brief message about why you're calling. Most officials will return calls.
6. What if your contact doesn't call you back? Bug him! Call again and again. Persist until you get the information your need, but always be polite. Never speak rudely. It will only hurt your cause. Remember, it's not your problem if someone else is rude. But don't worry. Most officials will think you're terrific.
7. Whem your contact does answer the phone, tell him your name, grade, and school or organization again. Then move on to the purpose of your call- What you want to say or ask.
8. Write down exactly what your contact tells you. You might have to ask him to repeat things. Most people talk faster than you can write. Even though you may be able to instantly memorize states on every player in the National Football League, you'll probably forget details of your phone conversation within five minutes of hanging up. so write it down.
9. While you have your contact on the phone, get his correct name, title, address, ZIP code, and phone extension. You may have talked to several people on your way to the right person. Maybe the first person put you on hold, then switched you to another person, who switched your to another person...You don't want to go through that all over again.
10. Leave your name, address, and phone number with your contact, so he can get in touch with you again.
11. When you have the information you need, thank your contact, then hang up.
12. File the phone form where you can find it again.

(Lewis, 1991, p. 22-23)

Focus Sheet 1-6b

Skill Building *Use this model to practice calling a business and asking about office hours. Use the information in the chart.*

Winfield Telephone Company	—	9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. daily Mon.-Fri.
New York News	—	9:30 a.m. to 5:30 p.m. daily Mon.-Sat.
World Airlines	—	8:30 a.m. to 7:30 p.m. daily
Winfield Electric Company	—	8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. daily Mon.-Fri.

Student 1: Winfield Telephone Company. Good morning.
    Student 2: Good morning. I'd like to visit your office today. What are your office hours?
Student 1: We're open from 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. daily, Monday through Friday.
    Student 2: Thank you very much.
Student 1: You're welcome. *Continue...*

2

Skill Building *Use this model and the information in the chart to practice calling a business and asking a specific question. Ask as many questions as you can using* when, what time, *or* how much.

Olympia Theater	Roma Restaurant	New Fashion School	New York News	World Airlines
Shows—7:30· 9:30 Tickets—$3.00	Days—Tues.–Sun. 12: noon– 12:00 midnight	Course—Sept.–May Fee—$2200	ad—$3 for 3 lines	London — $435 Bogota — $387 Paris — $672 Tokyo — $1354

Student 1: Olympia Theater. Good afternoon.
    Student 2: Good afternoon. I need some information. What time is your first show this evening?
Student 1: At 7:30.
    Student 2: Thank you very much.
Student 1: You're welcome. *Continue...*

(Yorkey, Barrutia, Chamot, Diaz, Gonzalez, Ney & Woolf, 1978, p. 531)

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Student Work Sheet 1-6

PHONE FORM

"Hello. May I please speak to _____ or someone in public relations
or public information?"   CONTACT'S NAME

"My name is _____ and I'm from _____."
             YOUR NAME   YOUR SCHOOL/GRADE/ORGANIZATION

1. PURPOSE (what you're going to say or ask): _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

2. INFORMATION (write down what your contact tells you): _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

(Attach more paper if you need it.)

"Thank you very much."

_____

YOUR NAME   DATE OF CALL

SCHOOL/GROUP PHONE

                                                SCHOOL/GROUP ADDRESS

CONTACT'S NAME   TITLE

CONTACT'S PHONE

                                                CONTACT'S ADDRESS

(Lewis, 1991)

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Test Sheet 1-6

Name: _____

Direction: Fill in each with an appropriate question or answer.

Dialogue 1

1. A: Help, I can't get up.

   B: _____

2. A: Operator, I'm calling about an accident.

   B: _____

3. A: I am at the corner of Almeda Boulevard and Second Street.
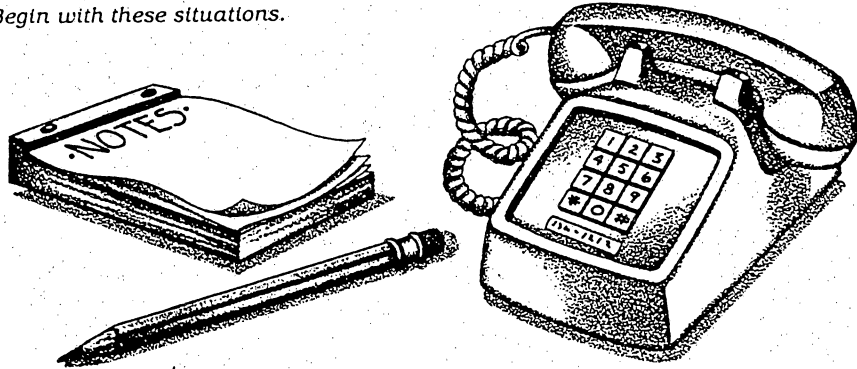
   B: _____

Dialogue 2

4. A: How do I get Information in Oregon?

   B: _____

5. A: Information, what city please?

   B: _____

6. A: How do you spell the last name?

   B: _____

7. A: What's the address?

   B: _____

Dialogue 3

8. A: Lucky Travel Agency. Good morning.

   B: _____

9. A: What kinds of brochures do you need?

   B: _____

10.A: O. K. I will send them to you. May I have your name and address?
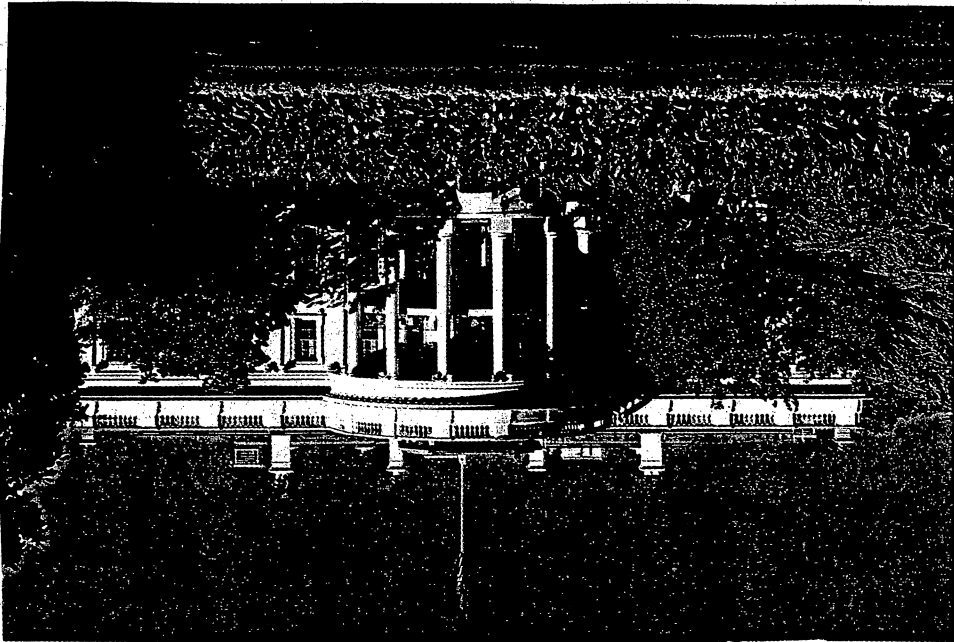
   B: _____

Now make conversations with your partner.
Begin with these situations.

1. You call a friend. Her brother says she isn't at home. You say who you are and leave your number. The brother repeats your number. You thank him and say good-bye.

2. You call your mother at work. The operator says her line is busy. You say you'll hold. The operator says the line is still busy. You leave a message.

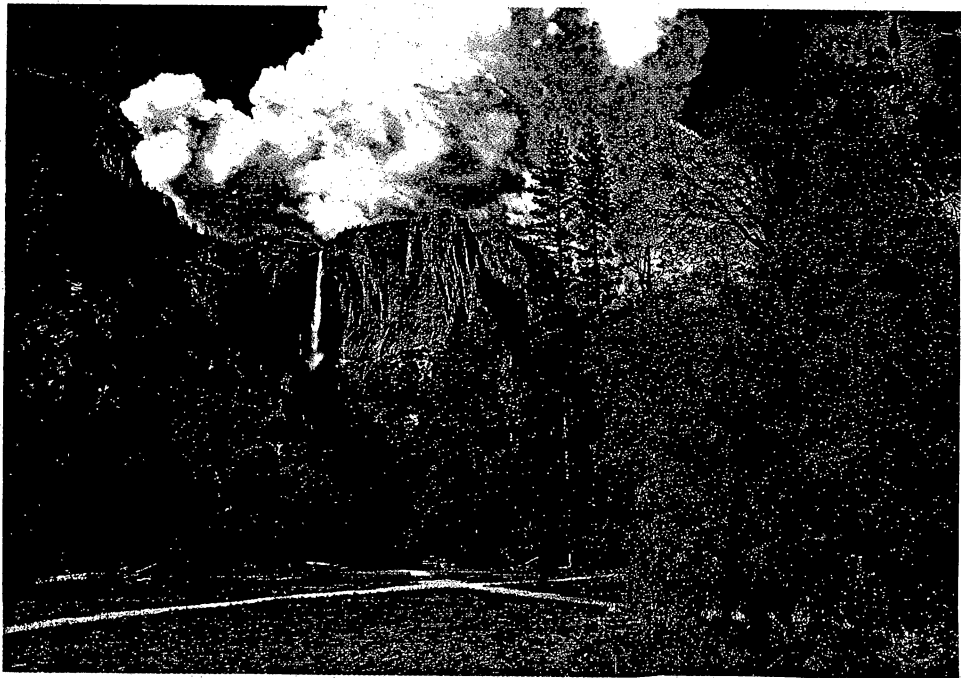(Walker, 1992, p. 86)
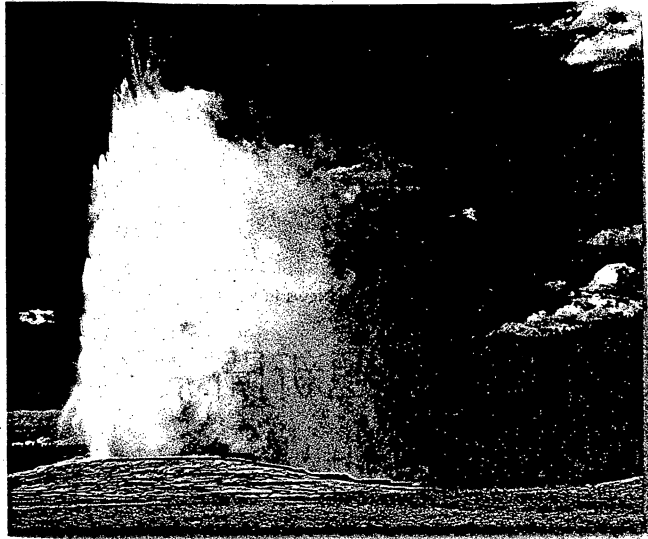
141

APPENDIX C: MATERIALS FOR UNIT TWO
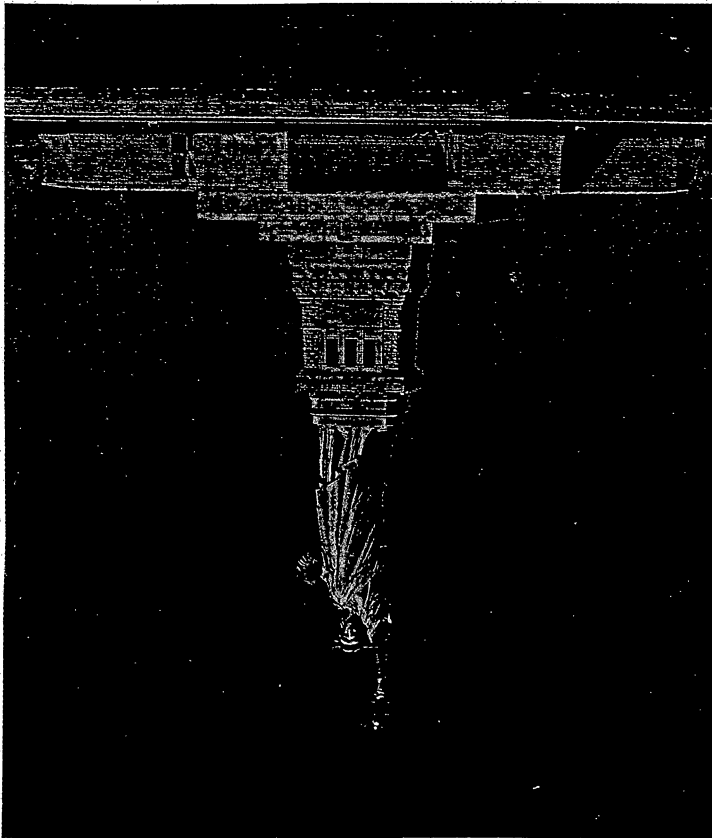
Poster 2-A

Poster 2-C

Talking Together:

Visiting the U.S.A.

by John Voigtmann

Conversation I

Shirley and Susan are former classmates~~~~ computer company. They decided to take a trip together to the United States.

I you could visit the United States, what would you do? Where would you go? Would you visit the big cities and enjoy their urban energy? Or would you *tackle* the vast American countryside with all of its unique charm and splendor?

Every year 52 million tourists visit the United States. They travel everywhere from New York to Los Angeles to Honolulu. They see everything from the Statue of Liberty to Disneyland to Hawaiian beaches.

Planning a trip always takes lots of time and energy, especially when you are going to a place as big as the United States. There is so much to see and there are so many places to go. Just thinking about it can be overwhelming.

Whatever happens, don't lose heart. Decide in advance on the places you want to visit. Allow yourself plenty of time. You don't want to rush from one sight to another. If you plan your trip well, you'll have the time of your life in the U.S.A.!

05 **Susan:** Let's go over our *itinerary* one more time before we give it to the travel agent to make all the reservations.

Shirley: Okay. I'm glad we planned our itinerary ahead of time. It wasn't easy, though. Remember all those tourist booklets, travel *brochures* and atlases we had to look through?

10 **Susan:** It was a lot of hard work, but since we have only two weeks, everything must be well planned.

Shirley: I guess you're right. Well, first of all we'll fly into New York and stay there for four days, sightseeing and shopping. Next we go to Florida. I know both of us want to see Disney World. We'll need a
15 few days for that plus a day on the beach. That takes care of our first week.

Susan: Then we're off to Yellowstone. We can fly into Billings, Montana, then rent a car and drive down to Yellowstone. I hear that's a beautiful drive.

20 **Shirley:** The brochure on Yellowstone says they have three-day camping tours available complete with guide and camping equipment.

Susan: Yeah, I'd be afraid to camp out by ourselves with all those bears!

Shirley: We'll spend the last three days in Los Angeles. Oh, I forgot to tell
25 you something. We won't need a hotel in L.A. because my cousin lives there. I talked to her on the phone yesterday, and she said she'd love to have us for a few days. She wants to show us around and take us to Chinatown and Universal Studios.

30 **Susan:** That's great! I'm so excited already!

Shirley: Not so fast. We still have to call the travel agent, make the plane reservations, find hotels in New York and Florida and reserve a camping tour at Yellowstone!

(continued)

Conversation II

(On top of the Empire State Building)

Shirley: Wow! You can see all of New York from up here! The city stretches for miles!

Susan: From up here, everything looks so peaceful and quiet. But I know that down on the streets everything is *hectic* and noisy.

Shirley: It's hard to believe that this tiny island of Manhattan can support all these people and buildings.

Susan: Look! There's the Statue of Liberty. It's so beautiful standing in the harbor. And look! There's the United Nations building. Imagine all the important decisions that are made there!
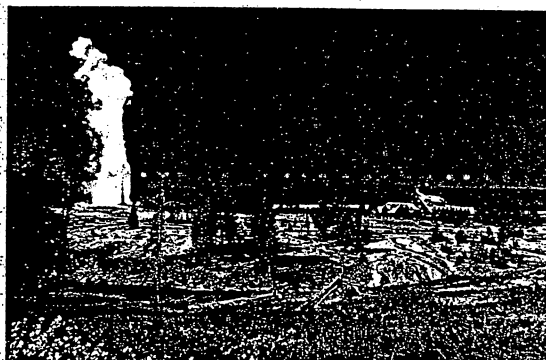
Shirley: I like the World Trade Center towers. I have never seen anything so huge!

Susan: I like Central Park the best. It's like a forest in the middle of a *gigantic* city.

Shirley: This is the best way to sightsee. You can see all the famous places at once!

© Wyoming Travel Commission

Conversation III

Susan: I loved New York City, and Florida was a lot of fun, but I think Yellowstone National Park is my favorite so far. Just look at those majestic mountains! Just breathe that fresh air!

Shirley: This sure is a beautiful place, but I still prefer the city. Fancy hotels, busy streets, entertainment—that's what I thrive on.

Susan: Well, I prefer the countryside. No human architect can compare to mother nature! The geysers are incredible.

Shirley: I'll agree with that. Cities are great and exciting, but we can also enjoy the natural beauty around us. I can't get over how big this country is. The countryside goes on forever! Can you imagine what the first settlers thought about this *immense* beauty?

Susan: They must have been amazed by it all.

Shirley: I'm amazed, too.

Activities

1. Talk to someone who has visited the U.S.A. and ask them in English about their trip.

2. Get together with a friend and discuss what places you would like to visit in the U.S.A. Make a sample itinerary of your trip.

3. Which do you like better: the big, exciting city, or the peaceful, beautiful countryside? Discuss with a friend the advantages and disadvantages of visiting each of these places.

© Andrea Pistolesi /Image Bank Taiwan

(continued)

Focus Sheet 2-1a

Do you understand?

1. What three sources of information did Shirley and Susan use to help them plan their vacation?

2. What four places are they going to visit?

3. What is Susan's favorite part of New York City? Why?

4. Which do you like better: the big, exciting city, or the peaceful, beautiful countryside? Discuss with a friend the advantages and disadvantages of visiting each of these places.

(Voigtmann, 1993, p. 32-33)

Travel Tips

by Ruth Seamans / illustration by Jean Lin

2⃝ At last, it's vacation time! Weary workers will hit the road and escape from their day-to-day routine. Unfortunately, vacationers 05 often let their guard down when they leave home. We all want to forget our daily cares when traveling. Keeping a few common-sense tips in mind can help all 10 of us have a safe and enjoyable trip.

* Before departing, get up-to-date information on the areas to which 15 you are traveling. It's good to be aware of possible *hazards* or unrest in countries you plan to visit.
* Buy traveler's checks and be sure to sign them immediately. Keep receipt copies separate 20 from your checks. And *stash* the receipts somewhere other than your wallet or purse.
* Don't count your money in crowded public places. If you're shopping, carry only as much money as you think you'll need. Take it from 25 your wallet or pocket in small amounts.
* Don't leave your valuables and cash in your hotel room. Use the hotel safe. It's free, and that's what it's for.
* When you leave your hotel room for the day, 30 don't put out the "Maid, please make up this room" sign. This announces to the world that you're not around.

3⃝

* Before you set out on a walking tour through an unfamiliar city, ask someone at your hotel 35 which areas to avoid. Tell hotel personnel your plans and ask them for their advice.
* Never leave valuables in a rented car.

* Fat wallets and *dangling* purses are invitations to *pickpockets* and *purse snatchers*. Carry your 05 wallet in your front pocket. Hang your purse over your shoulder away from the street and keep your hand on it.
* There's safety in numbers. If you're interested in exploring, don't do it on your own. Take along a companion. And tell some- 15 one where you're going and when you plan to return.
* Keep your credit card emergency numbers separate from your wallet. Be sure you have the correct numbers for the countries to which 20 you are traveling.
* Keep a photocopy of your travel documents in a safe place. That way you can replace them more easily if they are lost or stolen.
* Pack all your valuables in your carry-on 25 luggage. Never put them in your check-in luggage. ⌗
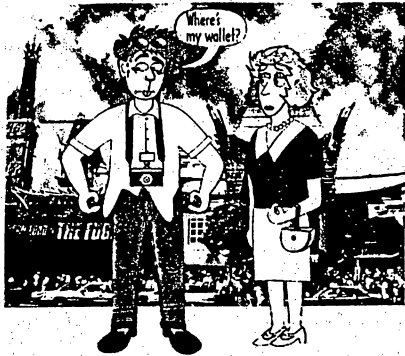
WORD BANK

hazard (n)	['hæzɚd]	冒險；危險
stash (v)	[stæʃ]	儲藏以備將來之用
dangle (v)	['dæŋgl]	搖擺
pickpocket (n)	['pɪkɪpɑkɪt]	扒手
purse snatcher (n phr)	['pɚs 'snætʃɚ]	搶匪

MORE INFORMATION

let one's guard down (v phr)	放鬆警覺性
common sense (adj)	常識的

(Seamans, 1994, p. 12)

Tips on Planning a Vacation

by Angela DiMoff

"**C**an you believe it, Barney? We're finally going on our vacation!" exclaimed Clara.

"Yeah, this trip to Hollywood is a dream come true," replied Barney.

"We've saved up for two years. I'm so excited to finally be in a real airport!" said Clara. "I'm a little nervous about traveling that far on an airplane, though. This is my first trip out of Horse Cave, Kentucky."

"Now don't you worry, darling," comforted Barney. "I'll protect you. Besides, I read up on Hollywood and know the best places to visit."

"It's time to *board* the plane now," said Clara. "Are you sure we have everything we need?"

"Yep, I'm sure!" answered Barney.

The flight to California went pretty well. Clara only got airsick twice. Unfortunately, the airline sent Clara's suitcase to Las Vegas. She didn't pack a carry-on bag, so all of her valuables and necessities were in her luggage. To add to the confusion, Barney lost his baggage claim *stub*. It took him 45 minutes to *convince* the airline to give him his suitcase.

The beachside resort canceled their reservation because Barney forgot to pay the room deposit. It was 1:30 in the morning by the time the couple found the affordable Pink Palace Motel. They felt exhausted.

05 Clara's luggage was delivered to her the following afternoon. But she hadn't prepared for the cool January weather in California. She couldn't wear the shorts and tank tops she'd packed. The couple also forgot to pack their rain jackets and umbrellas. When they went to 10 the zoo, it rained, and they got soaking wet.

Then someone picked Barney's pocket and stole his wallet. He wasted a lot of time because he didn't have the correct phone numbers to inform the credit card companies 15 of his stolen cards. Luckily, Clara carried most

(continued)

of their money and traveler's checks in her purse, so not much was lost.

The one-day tour they joined to view movie stars' mansions turned out to be a rip-off. They only drove past two homes. The pair also got lost three times trying to get to Chinatown. Later they argued about what musical play to attend. When they finally decided, the tickets were sold out.

By the time Barney and Clara's trip ended, they felt more than ready to return to the quiet Kentucky countryside. Traveling to Hollywood for their vacation had been much too troublesome.

"Clara, next time let's stay home and watch travel programs on TV," said Barney.

"Better yet," replied Clara, "next time let's get some tips from someone who really knows how to travel."

Plan your next vacation carefully by taking note of the following travel tips.

1. Read up on your destination ahead of time. Make sure you have an idea of the places you want to visit when you get there.
2. Obtain current maps of the city and surrounding areas.
3. Plan an *itinerary*. That way you can make the most of your time.
4. Always pack a carry-on bag, just in case your baggage is lost or sent to the wrong city. Label all your luggage clearly. Keep baggage claim stubs.
5. Pack clothing suitable for the climate. But be prepared for all kinds of weather.
6. Carry motion sickness pills and other medicines for minor illnesses.
7. Take along important addresses and phone numbers. Keep a copy of credit card numbers and traveler's check numbers separate from your wallet.
8. Choose local tours carefully. They can be rip-offs.
9. Don't carry a lot of cash. Use traveler's checks. Keep your wallet and purse close by to prevent theft.
10. *Reconfirm* flight and hotel reservations. Make deposits to hold rooms.
11. Plan ahead to attend special events. Don't count on getting tickets at the last minute.

If you follow these tips, you're sure to have a better time than Barney and Clara did on their "dream vacation."

WORD BANK

board (v)	[bord]	登(機)
stub (n)	[stʌb]	票根；存根
convince (v)	[kən'vɪns]	使相信；說服
itinerary (n)	[aɪ'tɪnəˌrɛrɪ]	旅行路線或計劃
reconfirm (v)	[ˌrɪkən'fɝm]	再確認

MORE INFORMATION

read up on something (v phr)	對某事特別研究
tank top (n phr)	無袖上衣
soaking wet (adj phr)	全身濕透的
pick someone's pocket (v phr)	扒某人的口袋或皮包
rip-off (n)	花了冤枉錢
take note of something (v phr)	留心某事

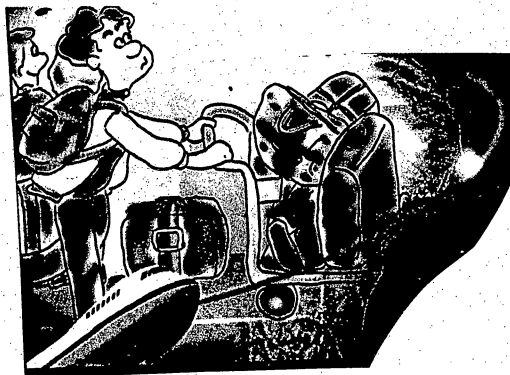(DiMoff, 1995, p. 6-7)

Student Work Sheet 2-1a

Direction: **Discuss what places you would like to visit in the U. S. A. ; list five places and make a travel plan for your group.**

	Date	Places	Attractions
1.	_____	_____	_____
2.	_____	_____	_____
3.	_____	_____	_____
4.	_____	_____	_____
5.	_____	_____	_____

Direction: *Please discuss and list the important documents and stuff you should prepare for an overseas travel.*

Documents   **Stuff**

1. _____   _____

2. _____   _____

3. _____   _____

4. _____   _____

5. _____   _____

6. _____   _____
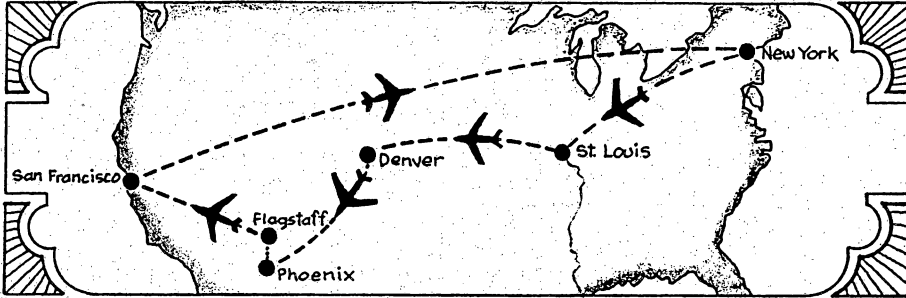
7. _____   _____

8. _____   _____

9. _____   _____

10. _____   _____

Reading advertisements

A COAST TO COAST TOUR

NEW YORK ST. LOUIS DENVER PHOENIX GRAND CANYON SAN FRANCISCO

15 Days from $800, inclusive from NEW YORK

Schedule

Day 1, Tuesday to Day 3, Thursday. Your tour starts with a sightseeing tour of New York (Manhattan, Chinatown included). Visit the Statue of Liberty, museums, and other sights. **Day 4, Friday**—fly to St. Louis and enjoy a tour of the waterfront area, The Gateway to the West, and an evening on a Mississippi riverboat. **Day 5, Saturday**—arrive in Denver in the morning. Visit museums to see famous exhibits on American Indians, afternoon tour of The Mint. **Day 6, Sunday**—fly to Phoenix. Go by bus to Flagstaff through Canyon Country. **Day 7, Monday and Day 8, Tuesday**—Two unforgettable days exploring the natural magnificence of the Grand Canyon. **Day 9, Wednesday**—fly to San Francisco. Evening in Chinatown. **Day 10, Thursday to Day 14, Sunday**—Sightseeing includes a fabulous bay cruise, an afternoon in Golden Gate Park, lunch in Chinatown, museums, shopping, and much more. **Day 15, Monday**—Nonstop flight back to New York.

PRICE INCLUDES

• Flights from New York to St. Louis, Denver, Phoenix, San Francisco, and back to New York. • Bus tours and transportation by Tourways Bus Company. • Fourteen nights hotel accommodation • Continental breakfast • Sightseeing tours.

GLOSSARY
cruise—pleasure trip on a boat
ex•hi•bit—a special show, usually about one kind of thing
ex•plore—go through a place, looking at it carefully
fab•u•lous—very special, very good
in•clude—place in the same group of people, ideas, things
tour—a trip for enjoyment
un•for•get•table—very hard to forget

---

1. Read the tour advertisement above. Then write the answers to these questions on your paper.

   a. How many days is the tour?
   b. What cities does the tour include?
   c. How long does the tour stay at the Grand Canyon?
   d. What interesting things can you see in St. Louis?
   e. How much does the tour cost?
   f. Does the price include hotels? Does it include dinners?

(Iantorno & Papa, 1989, p. 10)

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Student Work Sheet 2-1d

Itinerary

Type of transportation: _____

Dates of travel: from _____ to _____
                          MONTH   DAY   YEAR   MONTH   DAY   YEAR

Day 1 of trip.   Where will you start from? _____

                 What is your destination? _____

Day 2 of trip.   Where will you start from? _____

                 What is your destination? _____

Day 3 of trip.   Where will you start from? _____

                 What is your destination? _____

Day 4 of trip.   Where will you start from? _____

                 What is your destination? _____

Day 5 of trip.   Where will you start from? _____

                 What is your destination? _____

Day 6 of trip.   Where will you start from? _____

                 What is your destination? _____

Day 7 of trip.   Where will you start from? _____

                 What is your destination? _____

Day 8 of trip.   Where will you start from? _____

                 What is your destination? _____

Day 9 of trip.   Where will you start from? _____

                 What is your destination? _____

Day 10 of trip. Where will you start from? _____

                 What is your destination? _____

(Walker, 1992, p. 30)

Poster 2-D

機場登記		**Airport Check-In**
衣掛袋	1.	garment bag
掛包	2.	carry-on bag
旅客	3.	traveler
票	4.	ticket
搬運工	5.	porter
㨌車	6.	dolly
衣箱	7.	suitcase
行李	8.	baggage
安全檢查門		**Security**
安全人員	9.	security guard
金屬探測器	10.	metal detector
X光掃描器	11.	X-ray screener
輸送帶	12.	conveyor belt

登機		**Boarding**
駕駛艙	13.	cockpit
儀器	14.	instruments
駕駛員	15.	pilot
副駕駛員	16.	copilot
空中機板師	17.	flight engineer
登機証	18.	boarding pass
機艙	19.	cabin
機上服務員	20.	flight attendant
行李箱	21.	luggage compartment
托臬	22.	tray table
走廊	23.	aisle

(Parnwell, 1989, p. 56)

Conversation A

(At the airport)

Clerk:	May I see your passport, please?
Barbara:	Here you go, miss.
Clerk:	All right. These are your boarding passes. Your seat numbers are 5A and 5B. You'll board your flight at Gate 16S.
Don:	Thank you. What time do we board.
Clerk:	Boarding begins about a half hour before departure.

Conversation B

(Immigration)

Officer:	Passport, please.
Barbara:	Just a minute. Don, do you .... oh, here it is.
Officer:	How long do you intend to stay in the United States?
Barbara:	About two weeks.
Officer:	Where are you going to stay?
Barbara:	Hilton Hotel in Los Angeles.
Officer:	What is the purpose of your visit?
Barbara:	Just for sightseeing.
Officer:	Have a nice day!
Barbara:	Thank you very much, sir.

Conversation C

(Customs)

Officer:	Please show me your passport and declaration card.
Don:	Yes, sir.
Officer:	Anything to declare specially?
Don:	No, I don't.
Officer:	What are these?
Don:	Instant noodles.
Officer:	Unfortunately, you are not allowed to bring them in the United States. I have to confiscate these. Please give this declaration card to that officer at the exit.
Don:	Yes, sir.

(Lin, 1991, p. 48-50)

Focus Sheet 2-2b

ISSUED BY **TRANS WORLD AIRLINES, INC.** SOLD SUBJECT TO CONDITIONS OF CONTRACT ON PASSENGER'S COUPON		PASSENGER TICKET AND BAGGAGE CHECK	ORIGIN **NYC**		DESTINATION **NYC**		AIRLINE FORM SERIAL NUMBER **015:5300:294:062**

NAME OF PASSENGER **Ms. K. Irwin**   NOT TRANSFERABLE   CONJUNCTION TICKET(S)

ISSUED IN EXCHANGE FOR   DATE OF ISSUE **6/1/78**

FROM/TO	CARRIER	FARE CALCULATION
NYC		
CDG	TWA	YHE21
NYC	TWA	

RESTRICTIONS/ENDORSEMENTS				ORIGINAL ISSUE CARRIER	FORM & SERIAL NO.	PLACE	DATE	AGENT'S NUMERIC CODE
7/15/78 NOT VALID BEFORE	3		TICKET DESIGNATOR				TOUR CODE	
8/6/78 NOT VALID AFTER	3							

X/O	NOT GOOD FOR PASSAGE	FARE BASIS	CARRIER	FLIGHT/CLASS	DATE	TIME	STATUS	ALLOW
FROM	New York City	Y	TW	479 Y	7/15/78	10:00 AM	OK	20K
TO	Paris	Y	TW	478 Y	7/30/78	2:00 PM	OK	20K
TO	New York City	—	—	VOID	—	—	—	—
TO	VOID							

PCS. WT.	UNCK. WT.	PCS. WT.	UNCK. WT.	PCS. WT.	UNCK. WT.	FORM OF PAYMENT
BAGGAGE CHECKED UNCHECKED

Check

FARE **U.S. $623.00**
TAX **U.S. $3.00**   TOTAL **$626.00**

---

boarding pass 登機證

Flight 班次	Date 日期	To 目的地	Class 艙等
CI 0006	08JAN	LAX	C

Gate 登機門	Boarding Time 登機時間	Seat 座號	Seat 座號
006	15:30	🚭	11B

Name 姓名   **HUANG SHUHSIEN**   Seq. No. 編號 **168**

Dynasty Class

Carrier 航空公司   **CHINA AIRLINES**

CHINA AIRLINES

(Yorkey, Barrutia, Chamot, Diaz, Gonzalex, Ney, Woolf, 1978, p. 396)

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Student Work Sheet 2-2

Admission Number

696899510 02

Immigration and
Naturalization Service

**I-94
Arrival Record**

1. Family Name

2. First (Given) Name — 3. Birth Date (Day/Mo/Yr)

4. Country of Citizenship — 5. Sex (Male or Female)

6. Passport Number — 7. Airline and Flight Number

JAL

8. Country Where You Live — 9. City Where You Boarded

10. City Where Visa Was Issued — 11. Date Issued (Day/Mo/Yr)

12. Address While in the United States (Number and Street)

13. City and State

**WELCOME
TO THE
UNITED STATES**

DEPARTMENT OF THE TREASURY
UNITED STATES CUSTOMS SERVICE

CUSTOMS DECLARATION

FORM APPROVED
OMB NO. 1515-04

Each arriving traveler or head of family must provide the following information
(only ONE written declaration per family is required):

1. Name: _____ Last _____ First _____ Middle Initial

2. Number of family members traveling with you _____

3. Date of Birth: __ Month / __ Day / __ Year   4. Airline/Flight: _____

5. U.S. Address: _____

		YES	NO
6.	I am a U.S. Citizen	☐	☐
	If No, Country: _____		
7.	I reside permanently in the U.S.	☐	☐
	If No, Expected Length of Stay: _____		

8. The purpose of my trip is or was
   ☐ BUSINESS   ☐ PLEASURE

9. I am/we are bringing fruits, plants, meats, food, soil, birds, snails, other live animals, farm products, or I/we have been on a farm or ranch outside the U.S.   YES ☐ NO ☐

10. I am/we are carrying currency or monetary instruments over $10,000 U.S. or foreign equivalent.   YES ☐ NO ☐

11. The total value of all goods I/we purchased or acquired abroad and am/are bringing to the U.S. is (see instructions under Merchandise on reverse side; visitors should report value of gifts only): $_____ US Dollars

SIGN ON REVERSE SIDE AFTER YOU READ WARNING.

WARNING

MERCHANDISE — U.S. residents must declare the total value of ALL articles acquired abroad (whether worn or used, whether dutiable or not, and whether obtained by purchase, as a gift, or otherwise) which are in their or their family's possession at the time of arrival. The value of repairs and alterations made abroad must also be included. Visitors to the U.S. must declare the total value of all gifts they are bringing with them.

CURRENCY AND MONETARY INSTRUMENTS — The transportation of currency or monetary instruments, regardless of the amount, is legal, however, if you take out of or bring into the United States more than $10,000 (U.S. or foreign equivalent, or a combination of the two) in coin, currency, travelers checks or bearer instruments such as money orders, checks, stocks or bonds, you are required by law to file a report on Form 4790 with the U.S. Customs Service. If you have someone else carry the currency or instruments for you, you must also file the report. FAILURE TO FILE THE REQUIRED REPORT OR FALSE STATEMENTS ON THE REPORT MAY LEAD TO SEIZURE OF THE CURRENCY OR INSTRUMENTS AND TO CIVIL PENALTIES AND/OR CRIMINAL PROSECUTION.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS — To prevent the entry of dangerous agricultural pests the following are restricted: Fruits, vegetables, plants, plant products, meats, meat products, birds, snails, and other live animals or animal products. Failure to declare all such items to a Customs/Agriculture Officer can result in fines or other penalties.

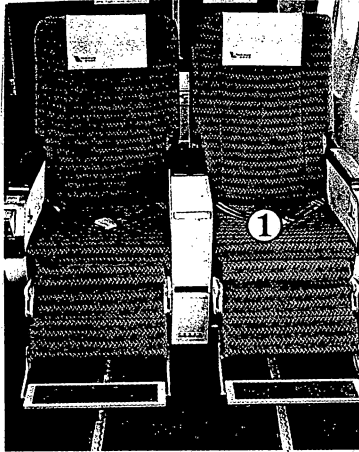- **IF YOU HAVE ANY QUESTIONS ABOUT WHAT MUST BE REPORTED OR DECLARED ASK, A CUSTOMS OFFICER.**

SIGNATURE
I have read the above statements and have made a truthful declaration.

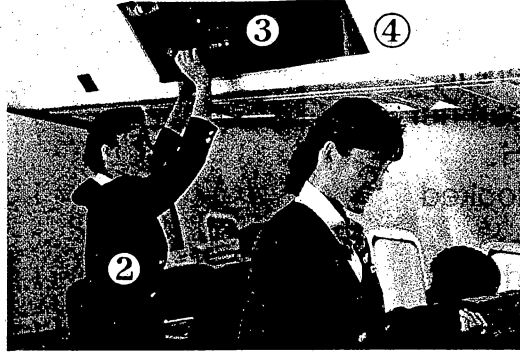If the value of articles and repairs acquired abroad is over $1400 per person then list the items below and show the price paid or fair retail value.

DESCRIPTION OF ARTICLES	PRICE	CUSTOMS USE
TOTAL		

Customs Form 6059B (Back) • U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE 1983-407-308

Test Sheet 2-1

Direction: You just arrived in America. Please fill out the immigration and customs declaration form.

Admission Number

69689510 02

Immigration and
Naturalization Service
I-94
Arrival Record

1. Family Name

2. First (Given) Name | 3. Birth Date (Day/Mo/Yr)

4. Country of Citizenship | 5. Sex (Male or Female)

6. Passport Number | 7. Airline and Flight Number

J A L

8. Country Where You Live | 9. City Where You Boarded

10. City Where Visa Was Issued | 11. Date Issued (Day/Mo/Yr)

12. Address While in the United States (Number and Street)

13. City and State

WELCOME TO THE UNITED STATES

**DEPARTMENT OF THE TREASURY
UNITED STATES CUSTOMS SERVICE**

CUSTOMS DECLARATION

Each arriving traveler or head of family must provide the following information (only ONE written declaration per family is required):

1. Name: _____ Last _____ First _____

2. Number of family members traveling with you _____

3. Date of Birth: ___/___/___ 4. Airline/Flight: _____

5. U.S. Address: _____

	YES	NO
6. I am a U.S. Citizen If No, Country:	☐	☐
7. I reside permanently in the U.S. If No, Expected Length of Stay:	☐	☐

8. The purpose of my trip is or was
☐ BUSINESS   ☐ PLEASURE

	YES	NO
9. I am/we are bringing fruits, plants, meats, food, soil, birds, snails, other live animals, farm products, or I/we have been on a farm or ranch outside the U.S.	☐	☐
10. I am/we are carrying currency or monetary instruments over $10,000 U.S. or foreign equivalent.	☐	☐

11. The total value of all goods I/we purchased or acquired abroad and am/are bringing to the U.S. is (see instructions under Merchandise on reverse side; visitors should report value of gifts only): $_____

SIGN ON REVERSE SIDE AFTER YOU READ WARNING.

WARNING

MERCHANDISE

CURRENCY AND MONETARY INSTRUMENTS

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS

DESCRIPTION OF ARTICLES	PRICE	CUSTOMS USE
TOTAL		

IF YOU HAVE ANY QUESTIONS ABOUT WHAT MUST BE REPORTED OR DECLARED ASK A CUSTOMS OFFICER.

Test Sheet 2-2

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

6. _____

7. _____

(Brougham, 1994, p. 51)

Travel by Air

Use the following words to fill in the blanks in the paragraph below. Not all of the words will be used.

airport	hangar	tail
control	propeller	steward
airplane	passenger	fuselage
luggage	customs	runway
stewardess	rotor	passport
officer	pilot	engine

AN AIRPORT

An _ _ _ _ _ _ _ is a busy place. Many people work there. For example, if you

are coming from a foreign country, you will have to go through _ _ _ _ _ _ _

and show your _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ to a customs _ _ _ _ _ _ _. Also many

people work in the _ _ _ _ _ _ _ tower to help guide _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _s

down the _ _ _ _ _ _. Many people also work in the _ _ _ _ _ _ where they

repair planes and make sure that the jet _ _ _ _ _ _ _s are working well. Of

course, there are workers inside of the planes too. Men, called _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _s,

and women, called _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ e s, help the

_ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _s to be comfortable. They also help them with any extra

_ _ _ _ _ _ _ that they have. However, the most important person working on

the plane is the _ _ _ _ _ _. All of the workers at an airport help to make flying a

safe and easy way to travel.

(Schimpff, 1981, p. 55)

Transportation
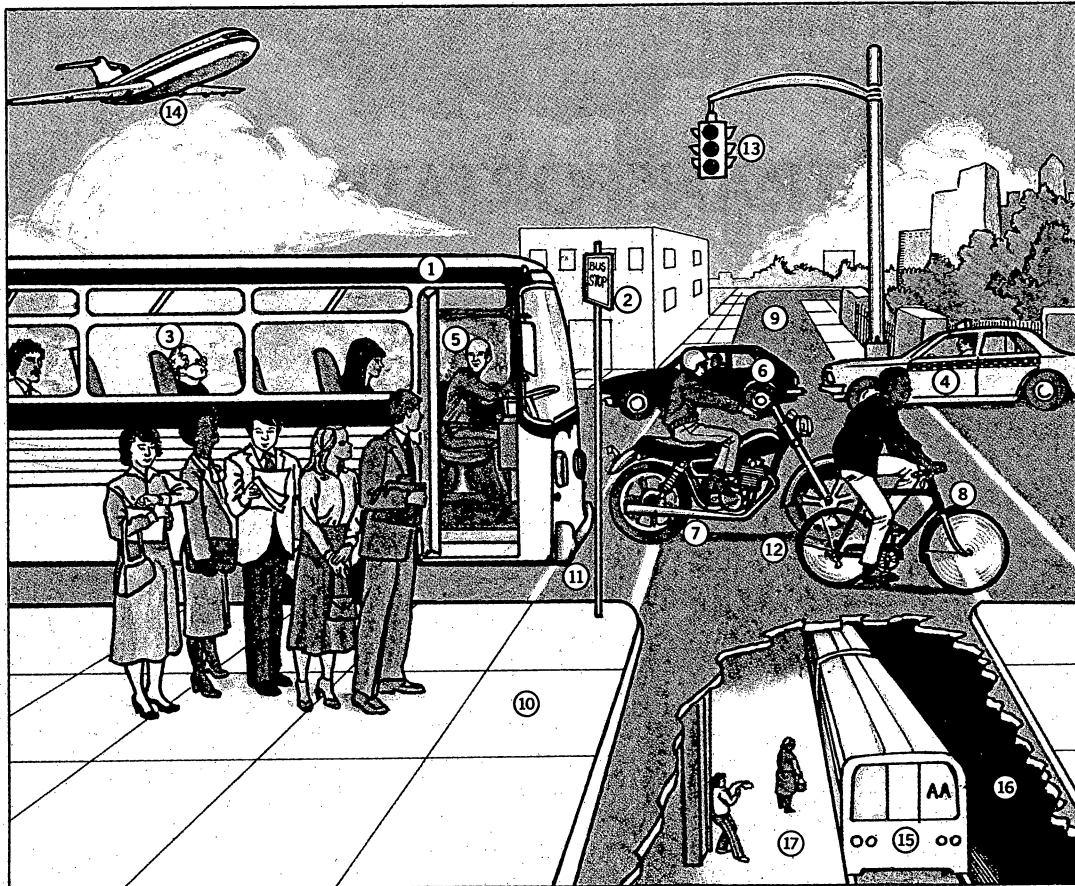
1. bus
2. bus stop
3. passenger
4. taxi
5. driver
6. car
7. motorcycle
8. bicycle
9. street
10. sidewalk
11. crosswalk
12. intersection
13. traffic light
14. airplane
15. subway
16. station
17. platform

(Freeman, 1982, p. 130)

Poster 2-F
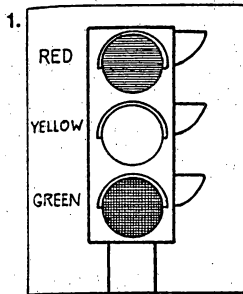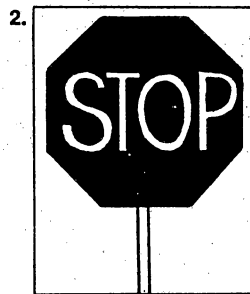
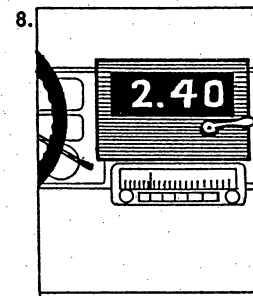| 1.	2.	3.	4.
traffic light	Stop sign	Yield sign	One-Way sign
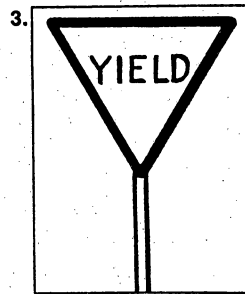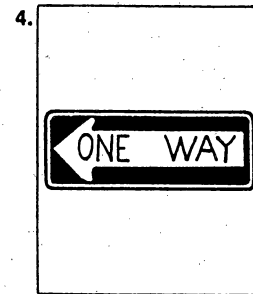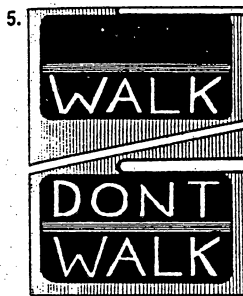
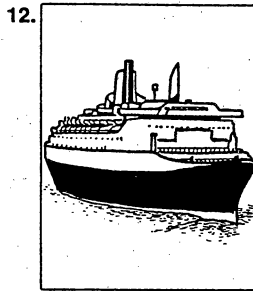| 5.	6.	7.	8.
Walk sign/ Don't Walk sign	No Parking sign	parking meter	taxi meter
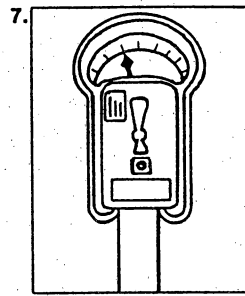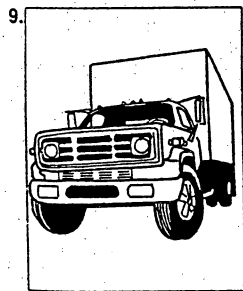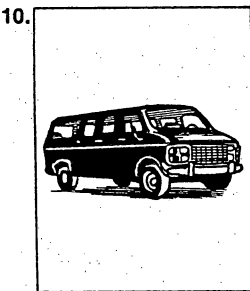
9.	10.	11.	12.
truck	van	helicopter	ship
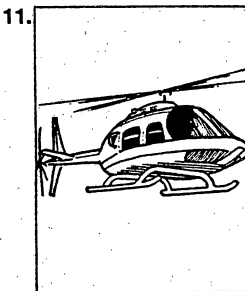
13.	14.	15.	16.
information booth	token	ticket	time table
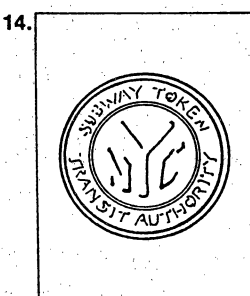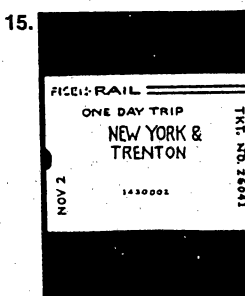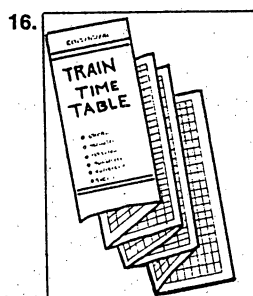
(Freeman, 1982, p. 131)

Focus Sheet 2-3a

Conversation A

(phone rings)

Receptionist: Good afternoon. Dollar Rental Agency. May I help you?

Don: Yes. I want to reserve a car. Can I pick it up at Dallas International Airport next Friday afternoon?

Receptionist: Let me check the computer. I'll see what's available. How long will you be needing the car?

Don: Just over the weekend.

Receptionist: Dollar offers a 25 percent discount for one-week rentals. Why don't you stay a few extra days?

Don: No, thanks, ma'am. Two days is long enough.

Conversation B

Receptionist: We only have mid-size cars and mini-vans available next weekend.

Don: mid-size car will be fine.

Receptionist: All right. Now, let me tell you about renting a car. The rate for a mid-size car is & 45.99 per day. But you'll be renting on Saturday and Sunday. Those days only cost $23.99 each. Then there's insurance. That costs $ 11.99 per day.

Don: Excuse me, ma'am. I don't understand what you're saying. Please slow down!

Receptionist: Sorry, sir. The rate is $45.99 per day on weekdays. On Saturday and Sunday it's $23.99 per day. Insurance costs &11.99 per day. And we need a credit card number to reserve a car for you.

(continued)

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Conversation C

Don: Is there a fee per mile?

Receptionist: No, all cars at Dollar have unlimited mileage.

Don: Great! so, I can pick the car up at the airport?

Receptionist: Yes. May I have your name, please?

Don: Don Brandt. That's B-R-A-N-D-T.

Receptionist: Credit card?

Don: Visa. The number is 400-326677-1822. It expires 10/96.

Receptionist: O.K., Mr. Brandt, when you arrive in Dallas, go to the Dollar rental counter. They will have a car reserved in your name. They will give you all the rental information. Thank you for renting from Dollar.

Conversation D

(Friday evening in Dallas)

Don: Hello. I'm here to pick up may rental car. My name is Don Brandt.

Man: Good evening, Mr. Brandt. Yes, we have a mid-size car reserved for you. I will need to see your driver's license, please.

Don: Here it is.

Man: Thank you.

Renting A Car

(continued)

Conversation E

Man: All right. You are renting a car for two days. The rate is $23.99
        per day. Do you want insurance?

Don: No, thanks. I already have some.

Man: O.K. Please read these papers and sign your name at the bottom.
        Return the car by 5:00 P.M. on Sunday. If you are late, you must
        pay for an extra day.

Don: Well, I'll return the car on time. Thank you.

Man: The car is parked outside in space C-32. The keys are in the car.

What Do You Remember?

How long will Don stay in Dallas?

_____

Will someone pick him up at the airport?

_____

What kind of car did he rent?

_____

What is the rental rate per day? On weekends?

_____

What time must Don return the car to the airport?

_____

(Adapted from Brougham, 1995a, p. 48-50)

New York-Albany-Syracuse- Rochester-Buffalo-Niagara Falls-Detroit

Train Number			63	69	73	71	75	65	49	79
Train Name			The Niagara Rainbow	The Adirondack	The Empire State Express	The Henry Hudson	The Washington Irving	The Salt City Express	The Lake Shore Limited	The DeWitt Clinton
Frequency of Operation			Daily	Daily	Daily	Daily	Daily	Daily	Daily	Daily
Type of Service			⊠ ◌	⊠	✓ ⊠	⊠	⊠	✓ ⊠	⊯ ✗ ◌	⊠
Km	Mi									
0	0	*(Conrail)* New York, NY *(ET)* (Grand Central Terminal) Dp	8 40 A	9 15 A	12 40 P	2 40 P	4 40 P	5 40 P	6 40 P	8 40 P
53	33	Croton-Harmon, NY ⑲	R 9 37 A	R 10 03 A	R 1 28 P	R 3 28 P	R 5 28 P	R 6 28 P	R 7 37 P	R 9 28 P
119	74	Poughkeepsie, NY ⑲ *(Highland)*	R 10 21 A	R 10 48 A	R 2 13 P	R 4 13 P	R 6 13 P	R 7 13 P	R 8 21 P	R 10 13 P
143	89	Rhinecliff, NY *(Kingston)*	10 37 A	11 04 A	2 29 P	4 29 P	6 29 P	7 29 P	8 37 P	10 29 P
185	115	Hudson, NY	11 02 A	11 27 A	2 52 P	4 52 P	6 52 P	7 52 P	9 02 P	10 52 P
230	143	Albany-Rensselaer, NY Ar	11 45 A	12 05 P	3 30 P	5 30 P	7 30 P	8 30 P	9 45 P	11 30 P
230	143	Albany-Rensselaer, NY Dp	12 05 P		3 40 P			8 40 P	10 00 P	
245	152	Colonie-Schenectady, NY	12 26 P		3 55 P			8 55 P		
257	160	Schenectady, NY	㉙		㉙			㉙	㉙	
286	178	Amsterdam, NY	12 54 P		4 20 P			9 20 P		
383	238	Utica, NY	1 55 P		5 17 P			10 17 P	11 52 P	
406	252	Rome, NY *(Griffiss AFB)*	2 11 P		5 31 P			10 31 P		
460	286	Syracuse, NY	2 42 P		6 02 P			11 05 P	12 45 A	
599	372	Rochester, NY	4 15 P		7 32 P				2 20 A	
695	432	Cheektowaga, NY ㉙ ●								
705	438	Buffalo, NY *(Central Tml.)*	5 32 P		8 40 P				3 50 A	
708	440	Buffalo, NY *(Exchange St.)* Ar	5 37 P		8 45 P					
748	465	Niagara Falls, NY	6 40 P		9 45 P					
938	583	St. Thomas, Ont. ●	9 28 P							
1115	693	Windsor, Ont. ● *(Amtrak Sta.)*	11 10 P							
1120	696	Detroit, MI *(Amtrak Sta.) (ET)* Ar	11 30 P							

Student Work Sheet 2-3

Using the map, tell a tourist how to get to these places.
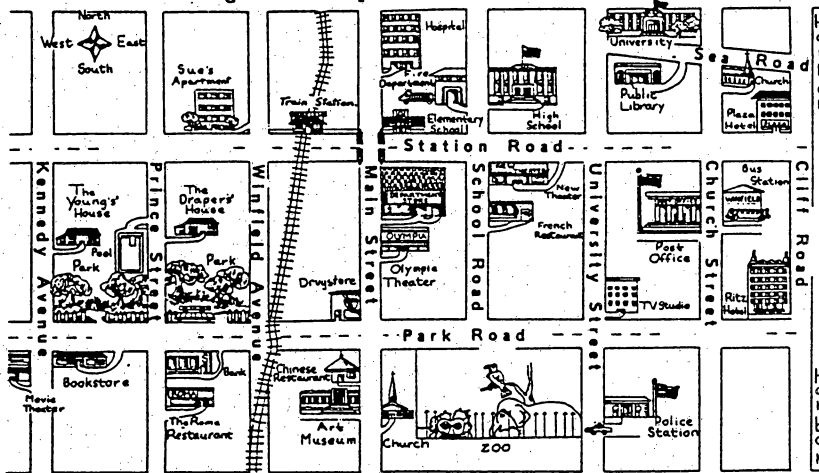
1. Give directions from the art museum to the public library.
   Cross to the other side of this street. Turn north and walk straight ahead. Cross Park Road and walk straight for one block. That's Station Road. Turn right at the traffic light there. Walk along Station Road for two blocks. Then turn left on University Street. Walk one block. The library is on Sea Road across from the university.

2. Give directions from the bus station to the bank.

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

3. Give directions from the Plaza Hotel to the drugstore.

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

4. Give directions from the train station to the TV studio.

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

5. Give directions from the Youngs' house to the high school.

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

(Yorkey, Barrutia, Chamot, Diaz, Gonzalex, Ney, Woolf, 1978, p. 123)

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Bus Schedule
For information call 555-6000

Bus Station	Small Street & Third Avenue	Riverside Drive & Second Avenue	University Avenue & First Avenue	Main Street & First Avenue	School Road & First Avenue
6:15 A.M.	6:23 A.M.	6:30 A.M.	6:48 A.M.	6:56 A.M.	7:10 A.M.
6:45	6:53	7:00	7:20	7:32	7:45
7:15	7:23	7:30	7:50	8:02	8:15
7:45	7:50	7:55	8:20	8:32	8:45
8:15	8:23	8:30	8:50	9:02	9:15
8:45	8:53	8:55	9:20	9:32	9:45
9:15	9:23	9:30	9:50	10:02	10:15
9:45	9:53	10:00	—	—	—
10:15	10:23	10:30	10:50	11:02	11:15
11:15	11:23	11:30	11:50	12:02 P.M.	12:15 P.M.
12:15 P.M.	12:23 P.M.	12:30 P.M.	12:50 P.M.	1:02	1:15
1:15	1:23	1:30	1:50	2:02	2:15
2:15	2:23	2:30	2:50	3:02	3:15
3:15	3:23	3:30	3:50	4:02	4:15
3:45	3:53	4:00	4:20	4:32	4:45
4:15	4:23	4:30	4:50	5:02	5:15
4:45	4:53	5:00	5:22	5:32	5:45
5:16	5:23	5:30	5:52	6:02	6:15
5:46	5:53	6:00	6:20	6:32	6:45
6:12	6:20	6:25	—	—	—
6:42	6:50	7:00	7:18	7:25	7:35
7:12	7:20	7:25	—	—	—

▶ **Use the bus schedule to answer these questions.**

1. If you take the 6:15 A.M. bus from the bus station, what time will you arrive at Main Street and First Avenue? _____

2. If you miss the 6:15 A.M. bus at the bus station, how long must you wait for the next bus? _____

3. When does the last bus get to School Road and First Avenue? _____

4. What is the last stop for the 6:12 bus from the bus station? _____

5. Which bus must you take from the bus station if you need to arrive at University and First Avenues by 10 A.M.? _____

(Scheraga, 1991, p. 22)
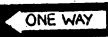
Test Sheet 2-5

ACROSS

2. This is a _____ sign.

5. R R on this sign means _____.

8. The shape of this sign is a _____.

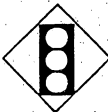9. This sign is _____ in shape.

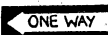11. This sign warns a driver that there may be farm machinery on the _____ ahead.

14. This sign has eight sides and is called an _____.

16. This sign warns a driver about a traffic _____ ahead.
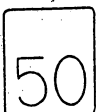
17. This is a traffic _____.

18. This sign marks a _____ crossing.

20. This sign warns a driver not to _____ faster than 50 km per hour.

21. This is a speed _____ sign.

DOWN

1. This sign is square in shape with a _____ inside of it.

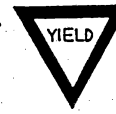3. This sign is a _____, a figure with 5 sides.

4. Traffic signals are used to _____ drivers about conditions on the road.

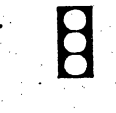6. This sign has the shape of a _____.

7. This sign has the shape of a _____.
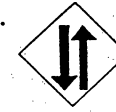
10. This sign marks a bicycle _____.

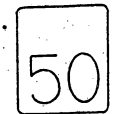12. A traffic signal tells the driver when to stop and _____.

13. This sign warns a driver to _____.

15. This sign warns a driver about two-way _____.

18. This sign warns a driver about the _____ limit.

19. This sign warns a driver about a _____.

(Yorkey, Barrutia, Chamot, Diaz, Gonzalez, Ney Woolf, 1978, p. 127)

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Focus Sheets 2-4

Conversation A

Barbara: What are we going to do today?

It's so exciting to be in Los Angeles! You took me to so many cool places already, Don.

Don: How about going to Hollywood today?

Barbara: Great idea! Do you think we'll see a movie star?

Don: Probably not. But you never know.

Barbara: Oh, I hope we do! How can I come to Los Angeles and not see a movie star?

Conversation B

Barbara: What is Hollywood like? Is it like the movies? It must be a very interesting place. There must be lots of expensive restaurants and fancy stores there.

Don: You'll find more of that stuff in Beverly Hills. Hollywood is different.

Barbara: How would you describe it?

Don: It's, uh, interesting. You'll have to see for yourself.

Conversation C

Barbara: I especially want to see that Chinese theater there. It's really famous. You'll have to take my picture in front of it.

Don: I'll do that. You can stand in a famous movie star's footprints.

Barbara: Do I need to take anything with me?

Don: Just a scarf and sunglasses.

Barbara: Why do I need those?

Don: If you wear them, people will think you're a movie star!

(continued)

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Conversation D

(later)

Barbara: This is Hollywood? Are you sure?

Don: Yes. We're standing on Hollywood Boulevard. It's one of the most famous streets in the world.

Barbara: But this looks like an ordinary city street. It's nothing special.

Don: Sure it's special. It's Hollywood. And look at all the interesting people walking around.

Barbara: They're interesting all right. I see lots of people in funny clothes. And some have weird hairstyles. But where are the movie stars?

Don: I told you we probably won't see any here. But we can look at their stars in the sidewalk.

Conversation E

Barbara: How many movie stars have stars in the sidewalk?

Don: I don't know. Several hundred, I think. Oh, look! Here's Bill Cosby's star!

Barbara: That's great. He's one of my favorite actors. Who else has stars here?

Don: I don't know. Let's look at a map. We can buy one in a store here.

(continued)

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Focus Sheet 2-4

Conversation F

Don: Excuse me, do you have maps of the stars in the sidewalk?

Man: Sure we do. What kind do you want?

Don: Well, what kind do you have?

Man: This map is in color and has lots of information about all the movie stars. This one just has a map of the stars on the sidewalk.

Don: I'll take that one. How much is it ?

Man: Five dollars.

Don: Five dollars?   For this?

Man: Hey, this is Hollywood, man!
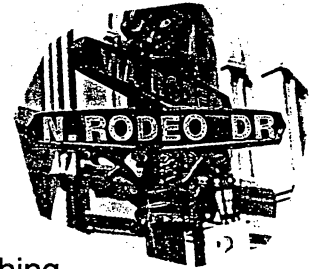
Conversation G

(at Chinese theater)

Don: Here we are!

Barbara: This place is beautiful! Take my picture. Do you think we'll see any movie stars here?

Don: No, but we can see a movie.

Barbara: They still show movies here?

Don: It is a movie theater.

Barbara: I thought it was a museum.

Don: Not really. But there are some famous footprints outside it.

Barbara: (sigh) I really wanted to see a movie star. I thought everyone saw movie star in Hollywood.

Don: I'm afraid you won't. Movie stars don't even live here.

Barbara: Where do they live?

Don: Well, some of them live in Beverly Hills. Let's go there!

Focus Sheet 2-4

Conversation H

Don: This is Beverly Hills! I'll take you to Rodeo Drive.

Barbara: You mean the one with all the stores on it?

Don: That's the one. But let's look at the movie stars' homes first.

Barbara: This isn't very exciting. A lot of the houses are just ordinary little white houses with green lawns.

Don: But with big prices. Do you know how much it costs to live in Beverly Hills?

Barbara: I can guess. Anyway, the houses that are big and expensive are behind big and expensive fences. You can't even see the houses.

Don: The stars do that on purpose. They don't want people coming to see them all the time.

Conversation I

Don: I'm sorry. I know you're disappointed.

Barbara: That's OK. I know you want to show me everything,

Don: Let's go to Rodeo Drive now. I'll take your picture beside some of the fancy stores.

Don and Barbara went to Rodeo Drive. "Wow!" said Barbara. " Look at all the fancy stores! Come on, let's window-shop." "That's fine with me," said Don. "That's all we can afford to do!" " How do you know?" said Barbara. "I don't see any prices." "That's how you know it's expensive," said Gary. "If you have to ask how much something is, you can't afford it. I can't even afford this street sign." "But movie stars can afford to shop here," said Barbara. "I hope we can see a movie star here." "OK, " said Don. "Let's go to the wax museum. That's the only place you can be sure to see movie stars!"

(Adapted from Brougham, 1996, p. 43-50)

DAILY TRAVEL AND ACTIVITY RECORD

DATE_____WEATHER _____

Time of day our travels began_____and ended _____

We traveled from_____to _____

   Via Routes: _____

         Speedometer Start_____

         Speedometer Finish_____

         Miles Traveled Today_____

* * * * * * * * * *

ACTIVITIES AND SPECIAL HIGHLIGHTS OF THE DAY

_____

_____

_____

_____

EXPENSES

AUTO			MEALS		
Mileage	Gals.	Cost		Cost	Rating
			Breakfast		
			Lunch		
			Dinner		
			Groceries		
			Snacks		
Days Total					

LODGING

Location _____ Facility _____ Cost _____

Comments _____

_____

MISCELLANEOUS EXPENDITURES

Item	Cost	Item	Cost

FINAL TALLY OF THE DAYS EXPENSES

     AUTO_____

     FOOD_____

     LODGING _____

     MISC._____

                 Total_____

Focus Sheet 2-5a

Conversation A

Barbara: It's 2:00 now. Can we rest for an hour and then go sightseeing?

Don: That sounds good. (sits down on the bed) Good, the bed is comfortable.

Barbara: While you rest, I'm going to go down to the lobby.

Don: What for?

Barbara: I want to get some brochures. I also want to get an entertainment guide. Those will help us plan our time here.

Don: O.K. I'll just relax while you go downstairs. Take your time.

Conversation B

Barbara: Excuse me, where are the sightseeing brochures?

Lady: Right over there nest to the wall.

Barbara: Thank you. Wow! Look at all of them.

Lady: Yes, there's a lot to see in San Francisco. Have fun!
         Don't worry, I will.

Conversation C
(later)

Barbara: Hi, Henry. I'm back.

Don: While you were gone, I looked at the guidebook.

Barbara: What did you read about?

Don: I read about Fisherman's Wharf. We can go there first.
       There are some interesting shops there and a lot of great
       restaurants.

Don: So what are we waiting for? Let's go!

Conversation D

Don:	Here's the cable car stop. And here comes the cable car!
Barbara:	This is a pretty steep hill. Will we have trouble getting to the top?
Don:	Cable cars can go up the hills easily. But if he cable car is too full, sometimes people have to get off.
Barbara:	There aren't many people on this one. Let's get on. How much is the fare?
Don:	It's $1.00 per person. O.K., let's get on. Watch your step.
Barbara:	Why are those people standing on the outside? Don't they want to sit down?
Don:	Some people like to stand on the outside. They can get on and off faster.
Barbara:	It looks dangerous to me.
Don:	It looks fun to me.

Conversation E

(later)

Don:	O.K. Let's get off here. We can walk down to the wharf from here
Barbara:	What a beautiful view! There's the Golden Gate Bridge. Let's go see that, too.
Don:	We'll put it on our list.
Barbara:	What's that big building over there?
Don:	I don't know. I'll look at the map. Oh! That's Ghirardelli Square.
Barbara:	But what is it?
Don:	It used to be a chocolate factory. Now it's a mall. The building is full of shops and restaurants. Ghirardelli is still a famous brand of chocolate. Let's go get some.

(continued)

Focus Sheet 2-5a

Conversation F

(at Fisherman's Wharf)

Barbara: Here we are. Look at the big crab on the sign.

Don: Look at all the big crabs in these stalls.

Barbara: Let's walk around. I want to see everything.

Don: I know.

Barbara: I never saw so much fresh seafood before.

Don: I didn't know there were so many different kinds of fish.

Barbara: Everything here smells fishy, too.

Don: Well, it is a wharf.   I kind of like the smell.

Barbara: I do, too. But looking at all this seafood makes me a little hungry.

Don: Me, too. Let's eat.

Conversation G

Don: Well, there are plenty of restaurants here. Choosing one won't be easy.

Barbara: Some of them have menus in the window. Let's look at a few.

Don: Here's one that looks good. They have crab, salmon, shrimp...

Barbara: And look at the prices!

Don: On second thought, it doesn't look so good.

Barbara: Well, if you want to eat at a cheap place, we'll have to eat at McDonald's. San Francisco is an expensive city.

Don: I know. But there must be a restaurant down here that's cheaper. I don't want to spend a month's salary on dinner.

Barbara: What about this price? They have daily specials for $ 12.99. Tonight's special is crab.

Don: Sounds good. And the price is good, too!

Focus Sheet 2-5a

Conversation H

(at the hotel)

Barbara: Well, I can look at all these brochures. We can plan for the next several days.

Don: Good. You do that. I'm going to take a nice, hot shower.

Barbara: O.K. I'll finish making out sightseeing list.

Don: You do that. But remember, don't try to see everything in one day.

(later)

Barbara: There. Our whole week is planned.

Don: Tell me about tomorrow.

Barbara: Tomorrow we can walk up to Chinatown and look around. We can have Chinese food for lunch. Then we can go over to Coit Tower. From the top we can get a beautiful view to the city. Then...

Don: Wait a minute! I told you not to try to see everything in one day.

Barbara: I didn't. Wait until you hear the next day's schedule!

What Do You Remember?

How much was the cable car fare?

_____

What is Ghirardelli Square?

_____

What is on the Fisherman's Wharf sign?

_____

What did Barbara want to see at Fisherman's Wharf?

_____

(Adapted from Brougham, 1995b, p. 43-52)

SAN FRANCISCO

If you're goin' to San Francisco

Be sure to wear some flowers in your hair

If you're goin' to San Francisco

You're gonna meet some gentle people there

For those who come to San Francisco

Summer time will be a loving there

In the streets of San Francisco

Gentle people with flowers in their hair

All across the nation

Such a strangewibration

People in motion

There's whole generation

With the new explanation

People in motion, people in motion

For those who come to San Francisco

Be sure to wear some flowers in your hair

If you come to San Francisco

Summer time will be a loving there

If you come to San Francisco

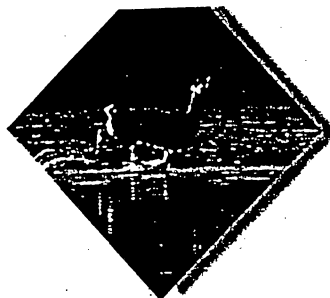Summer time will be a loving there.
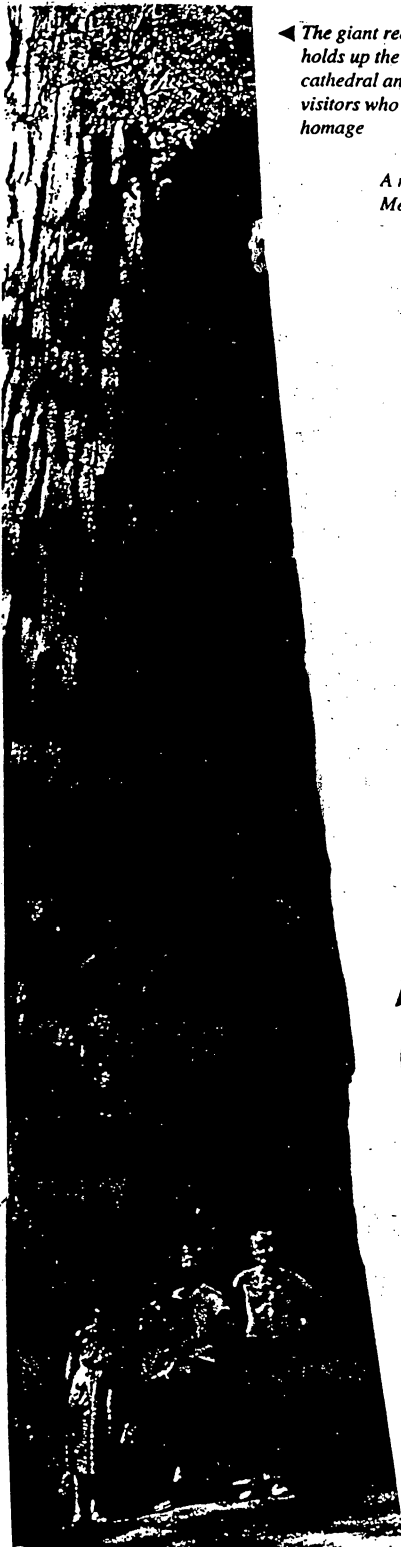
◀ *The giant redwood sequoia holds up the sky in nature's cathedral and dwarfs the visitors who come to pay homage*
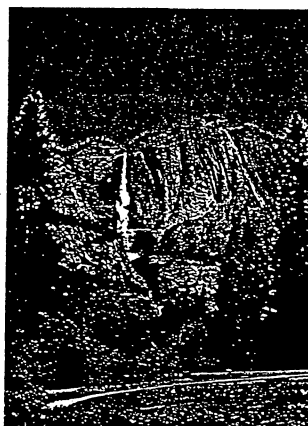
A mule deer crosses the Merced River▶

YOSEMITE:

One of Nature's Most Spectacular Creations

text and photos by Christopher P. Baker

This view of Yosemite Falls is one of the most recognized panoramas in the entire system of U.S. national parks

On an Indian summer morning three hikers labor uphill along a trail that climbs through the conifers 05 and granite boulders far above Tenaya Lake, nestled high in the Sierra Nevada wilderness, about 350 kilometers southeast of San Francisco. The sky is 10 cloudless, the air so pure and magnesium sharp that every leaf and flake of bark is *delineated* as if with a needle. Directly ahead is the 900-meter-deep 15 *nave* of Yosemite Valley, the dramatic centerpiece of 1,900-square-kilometer Yosemite National Park.

Almost every day in spring, summer and autumn, about 10,000 people crowd into the 1.5-kilometer-wide by 11-kilometer long valley to *marvel* at one of Mother Nature's most inspired creations—an enormous unroofed cathedral *flanked* by walls of glistening granite. From the valley's uneven rims erupt seven waterfalls, including Yosemite Falls, which tumbles and free falls 1,400 meters (Niagara is only 50 meters) to join the river Merced. The classic picture of Yosemite Valley, the staggering panorama looking east from Discovery View,

(continued)

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Resting at the base of Yosemite Falls. Hikers need to be in good shape if they want to trek all of the more than 1,100 km of trails in Yosemite National Park

is recognized throughout the world. To the right, the 186-meter Bridalveil Falls leaps from a high cliff. To the left, the sheer 1,080-meter face of El Capitan dominates. And in the distance soars Half Dome, the massive rock wall that the great naturalist John Muir called "sublime."

18 ▶ I was one of the three hikers who had set out from gem-like Tenaya ³⁰ Lake. Only five or six hikers had passed us the whole morning. That night, we camped in the backcountry, with ³⁵ the cathedral-like hush of the wilderness to ourselves. Old hands tell

me of secret valleys where you can walk a whole week and not ²⁰ see a soul.

The Miwok Indians, who used the glacier-carved gorge as a seasonal *sanctuary* as long ago as 2,000 B.C., had their own ²⁵ name for the mountains: *Inyo* (Dwelling Place of the Great
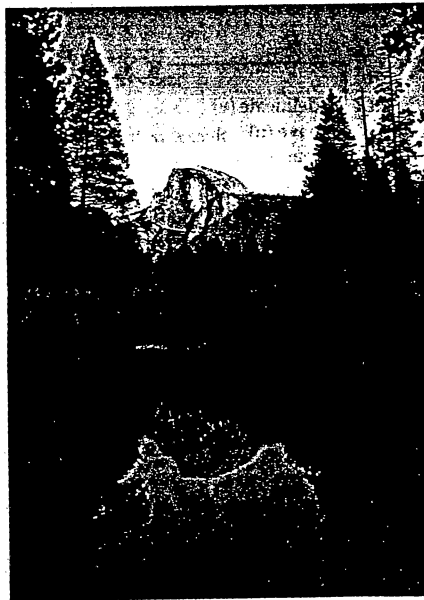
Half Dome reflected in the waters of the Merced River

Spirit). In 1851, the Mariposa Battalion chased the Indians out. When a 30-year-old Scottish wanderer named John Muir walked ⁰⁵ into Yosemite in the summer of 1868, what he found appalled him. Cattle grazing where deer had once browsed, and the crowing of roosters and barking of ¹⁰ dogs had replaced the nocturnal calls of coyotes. In 1869, Muir tramped behind 2,000 sheep—he called them "hoofed locusts"—as they ate their destructive way up ¹⁵ from the valley to Tuolumne Meadows at 2,600 meters.

"The harm they do goes to the heart," wrote Muir. Muir fell in love with Yosemite's sounds and ²⁰ smells, its wildlife and weather, its cathedral walls and temple spires. Stopping the destruction became his great passion.

19 ▶ Muir's concern was taken up ²⁵ on October 1, 1890, when the U.S. Congress created Yosemite National Park. Today, there are 50 national parks. Yosemite isn't ³⁰ nearly as big as Yellowstone. Nor as deep as the Grand Canyon. Nor does it shelter as many bears as the Great Smoky Mountains. Still, Yosemite is the "Mona Lisa" ³⁵ of national parks.

More than 1,100 kilometers of trails lace Yosemite's wild high country. Here, you cannot fail to fall in love with the mirror-⁴⁰ bright lakes, alpine meadows and forests of jigsaw-puzzle-barked ponderosa pines, sugar pines, sweet-smelling incense cedar, and nature's champion *titan*, ⁴⁵ the sequoia. I remember well my first bewildering look at a sequoia, its trunk as wide as a city street, its massive cinnamon-red shaft *fluted* like a Grecian ⁵⁰ column. Star of the show is the Mariposa Grove's *venerable* Grizzly Giant, which stands 61 meters tall and has a *girth* of nine and a half meters.
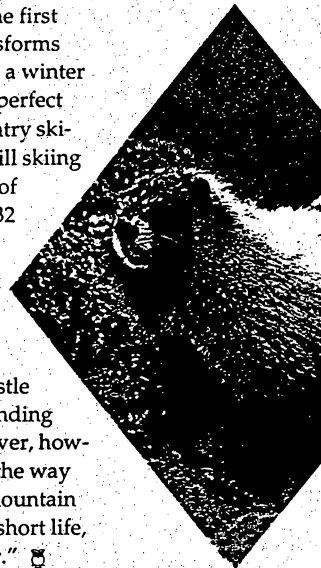
(continued)

One summer day while hiking near May Lake, a plump water blackbird perched on a river boulder startled me by suddenly 05 diving into the rapids and striding about on the river bed, emitting bubbles from its nose. The next day, I had my first close-up en- 10 counter with a bear. While walking alone on a trail below Tuolumne Peak, I heard a deep-throated bellow.
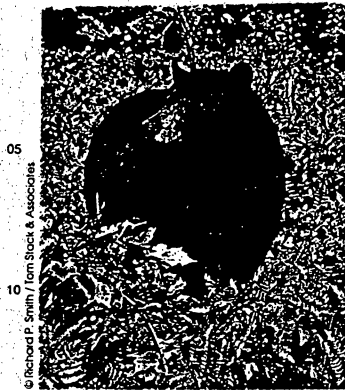
Black bears live in many large wooded areas of North America

2❯

Less than 20 meters ahead, I saw a black bear clawing at a stump that must have been full of beetles and bugs. I froze. The glossy-coated beast was at least one meter tall at the shoulder on all fours. Their lazy appearance *belies* formidable speed and power. It could easily have outrun or outclimbed me, so there was no point in flight. It turned and stared at me. We faced each other for a few seconds—the bear looking far less *disconcerted* than I— before it turned and simply ambled away without a backward glance.

Yosemite has an estimated 350 black bears. A far more likely event than seeing one ambling along or <u>shooing</u> its cubs up a tree, however, is spotting a grayish coyote stalking a family of mule deer, particularly in the early evening when the midday heat is spent and the prowling is more *conge-nial* among the cool rocks and meadows. Hikers might even catch sight of a rare mountain lion or bighorn sheep in more remote high country spots.

2❯

Every season has something to offer. Long, *balmy* summer days are perfect for renting a bicycle or taking a guided horse-back ride out of Tuolumne Meadows, the hub of the high country. (Be warned, though, that Yosemite is a realm of uncer-tain weather, as I found out on my first pilgrimage twelve years ago; though it was June on the calendar, snow lay deep in the shade of the trees.) On full moon nights, after a magical <u>alpenglow</u> evening, you can even search for the lunar rainbow at the base of Yosemite Falls. In late autumn,

the trails are largely uncrowded, and the sun's rays comb through yellowing 05 willows and crimson maples, which herald the *impending* arrival of winter. The first snowfall transforms 10 Yosemite into a winter wonderland, perfect for cross-country ski-ing or downhill skiing on the slopes of 15 Badger Pass, 32 kilometers from Yosemite Valley.

Eventually, the snow melts into music, the birds break out in song, and *drowsy* marmots awaken from hibernation to whistle from boulder-top lookouts, reminding one of the wisdom of Muir: "Never, how-ever weary, should one faint by the way who gains the blessings of one mountain day; whatever his fate, long life, short life, stormy or calm, he is rich forever." 🐾

Marmots can whistle to sound an alarm when visitors get too close

(Baker, 1995, p. 32-34)

VOCABULARY FOCUS

delineate (v)	[dɪˈlɪnɪˌet]	刻劃
nave (n)	[nev]	中央部份
marvel (v)	[ˈmɑrvḷ]	驚嘆
flank (v)	[flæŋk]	立於側面
sanctuary (n)	[ˈsæŋktʃuˌɛrɪ]	避難所；聖所
titan (n)	[ˈtaɪtṇ]	巨人
fluted (adj)	[ˈflutɪd]	有凹槽的
venerable (adj)	[ˈvɛnərəbḷ]	歷史悠久的；莊嚴的
girth (n)	[gɝθ]	腰圍；周圍尺寸
belie (v)	[bɪˈlaɪ]	使誤解
disconcerted (adj)	[ˌdɪskənˈsɝtɪd]	狼狽的
congenial (adj)	[kənˈdʒinjəl]	愜意的
balmy (adj)	[ˈbɑmɪ]	溫和的
impending (adj)	[ɪmˈpɛndɪŋ]	逼近的
drowsy (adj)	[ˈdrauzɪ]	睡眼惺忪的；愛睏的

MORE INFORMATION

conifer (n)	針葉樹
coyote (n)	小狼
sequoia (n)	紅杉
shoo (v)	發出噓聲趕走
alpenglow (adj)	彩霞滿天的

Yellowstone National Park

■ by Ruth Seamans

28

I made my first trip to Yellowstone National Park as a child. I have always loved animals, and the name Yellowstone brought many to mind. I was not disappointed! Elk grazed in meadows. Moose waded in the *marshes*. And deer ran 05 across the road—sometimes right in front of the car! Bison calmly clipped the grass beside the highway. But where were the bears? In my mind, Yellowstone should have been full of bears! Smokey the Bear or Yogi Bear should have been waiting for me. Eventually, an ordinary black
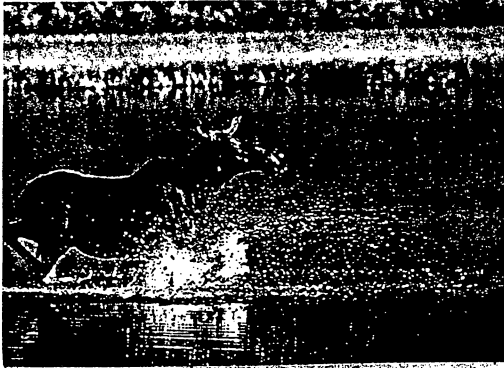

► Bison may look tame, but they're not. Take photos from a safe distance

bear did make an appearance, much to my 05 delight.

More than 2.5 million visitors crowd into Yellowstone each summer. It's America's first and probably best-loved national park. The area has more *geysers* and hot springs than any other 10 area in the world. In fact, only three other places in the world—New Zealand, Iceland and Siberia— have any geysers at all. Yellowstone's 10,000 hot springs, mud pots 15 and steam *vents* fascinate visitors, too. Creamy white lime-stone deposits, emerald green pools, and red and yellow minerals provide wonderful 20 photo opportunities.

Many moose make their home in and around Yellowstone Park

▲ *Mammoth Hot Springs Terraces are spectacular*

(continued)

▲ *Old Faithful is the most famous geyser in the park*

29

Nothing draws more visitors to Yellowstone than Old Faithful geyser. It's been erupting about every 70 minutes for more than 100 years—and probably a lot longer than that. Crowds gather around the site at "show time" and wait patiently. When the geyser erupts, it sends *scalding* water nearly 200 feet into the air. A typical display lasts from two to five minutes.

Like me, most visitors hope to see a bear. Unfortunately, most go home disappointed. Sighting a bear is rare these days. Over the years, the park's bears became used to feasting at hotel garbage dumps. They waited at roadsides for handouts. People didn't obey park rules about not feeding them. The bears had become a *nuisance* and a danger to visitors. In the early 1970s, the Park Service closed the open garbage dumps. They moved panhandling bears to uninhabited areas of the park or destroyed them.

Visitors who feel their visit isn't complete without bears can see some at the Grizzly Discovery Center. Located near the west entrance of Yellowstone, the center is a *sanctuary* for five bears. The bears take turns playing outside, where visitors can watch them roll and wrestle. All of these bears have problems and cannot live in the wild. Kenai, the youngest, is almost deaf. Three others were born in captivity

▼ *Grizzly bears of all sizes live in the park*

and don't know how to find food in the wild. The fifth is a nuisance bear that couldn't keep away from the garbage dumps. The Grizzly Discovery Center educates people about grizzlies and raises funds to help protect them in the wild.

31

Yellowstone isn't just for summer visitors. Winter gives the park a whole new look. But hotwater *runoff* from geysers keeps the rivers free of ice. The wildlife spend the winters near the hot springs and rivers, where grass survives year round. Snowmobile *enthusiasts*, skiers and snowshoers all *venture* into the park in winter. Most head for Old Faithful Lodge. The grand old hotel happily provides a hot meal or a steaming cup of coffee to frozen visitors.

Bears, geysers, hot springs . . . I didn't even mention the beautiful canyons, the 1,000 miles of great hiking trails, Yellowstone Lake, the wonderful blueberry pancakes at Old Faithful Lodge and magnificent Yellowstone Falls. When you visit, plan on an *un-"bear"-ably* good time!

▶

Lower Yellowstone Falls is twice as high as Niagara Falls

WORD BANK

|		
marsh (n)	[marʃ]	沼澤；濕地
geyser (n)	[ˈgaɪzɚ]	間歇泉
vent (n)	[vɛnt]	孔；出口
scalding (adj)	[ˈskɔldɪŋ]	滾燙的
nuisance (n)	[ˈnjusn̩s]	令人討厭的人、事、物
sanctuary (n)	[ˈsæŋktʃuˌɛrɪ]	保護區
runoff (n)	[ˈrʌnˌɔf]	流沖物
enthusiast (n)	[ɪnˈθjuzɪˌæst]	熱衷者
venture (v)	[ˈvɛntʃɚ]	冒險

MORE INFORMATION

limestone (n)	石灰石
panhandling (adj)	乞討的

(Seamans, 1995, p. 20-21)

Try It Out

Look at the following photos. Write the correct phrase under each picture.
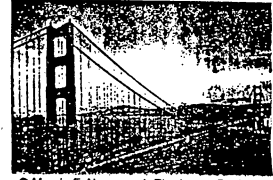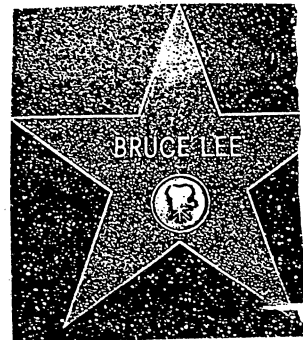
Test Sheet 2-7

SAN FRANCISCO

If you're goin' to San Francisco

Be sure to wear some _____ in your _____

If you're goin' to San Francisco

You're gonna _____ some _____ people there

For those who come to San Francisco

_____ time will be a _____ there

In the streets of San Francisco

Gentle people with _____ in their _____

All across the _____

Such a _____

People in _____

There's whole _____

With the new _____

People in _____, people in _____

For those who come to San Francisco

Be sure to wear some_____ in your _____

If you come to San Francisco

_____ time will be a _____ there

If you come to San Francisco

_____ time will be a _____ there.

APPENDIX D: INFORMAL OBSERVATIONAL CHECKLISTS

Student Name _____ Date _____

Informal Observational Checklist
STUDENT SUMMARY

Directions: Summarize your ratings about the student based on the checklists you have completed. The categories listed below refer to the categories on the checklists. Record any comments that might be helpful.

	Needs Improvement	Satisfactory	Excellent
LISTENING			
Listening Comprehension	☐	☐	☐
Listening Behaviors	☐	☐	☐
Listening Responses	☐	☐	☐
Comments:			
SPEAKING			
Speaking Skills	☐	☐	☐
Speaking Behaviors	☐	☐	☐
Participation	☐	☐	☐
Comments:			
STRATEGIC READING BEHAVIORS			
Before Reading	☐	☐	☐
During Reading	☐	☐	☐
After Reading	☐	☐	☐
Reading Interests	☐	☐	☐
Reading Behaviors	☐	☐	☐
Comments:			
THINKING ABOUT READING			
Comments:			
THINKING ABOUT WRITING			
Comments:			

(Arnold, Smith, Flood & Lapp, 1992, p. 167)

INFORMAL OBSERVATIONAL CHECKLISTS
CLASSROOM RECORD

CLASS _____   DATE _____

STUDENT NAME	LISTENING			SPEAKING			STRATEGIC READING BEHAVIORS			COMMENTS
	Needs Improvement	Satisfactory	Excellent	Needs Improvement	Satisfactory	Excellent	Needs Improvement	Satisfactory	Excellent	

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