

An Introduction to English Teaching, a Textbook for English Educators

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An Introduction to English Teaching

A Textbook for English Educators

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Teaching English became a professional and academic field from a half century ago. Many researches for teacher education and teacher training have been conducted in order to raise the English as well as the foreign language trainers' knowledge and capabilities in carrying out effective lessons in classroom. During second millennium of speedily globalized world, teaching English as a common communication tool has become even more significant than half century ago. For introducing the history, research methodologies, and teaching pedagogies of teaching English as a Second/ Foreign/International Language, this book is composed as a reference for present English teachers under trend of globalization.

This book can be a study, which deals with the preparations and professional developments for professional English teachers, which contains diverse ideologies for teaching pedagogies. Based on sufficient theoretical schools of Teaching English, provided by this book, you might be able to find appropriate pedagogies of teaching and methodologies of conducting researches and fieldworks in order to interpret the terminology of English Teaching according to your own personality. At the same time, you will obtain an access to comprehend the other English teachers' particular ways of teaching.

Beside indentifying the terms and types of Teaching English as a Second Language and as a Foreign Language, this book explains for you what are the general issues in the area of teaching English. The history of teaching English from the Ancient time to the beginning of our third millennium will be described. Traditionally, how English were originally taught and alternatively it was recommended in the present time will be mentioned in this book. After reading this book, you should be able to acquire most of the important familiarities of this academic ground and updated theoretical and empirical discoveries of English Teaching.

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Chapter I

English Teaching

Teaching English became a professional and academic field a half century ago. Many researches for teacher education and teacher training have been conducted in order to raise the English teachers' as well as the foreign language teachers' knowledge and capabilities in carrying out effective lessons in classrooms of English learning. During the 3rd millennium of speedily globalized world, teaching English as a common communication tool has become even more significant than two decades ago. For introducing the history, teaching **methodologies**, and **pedagogies** of teaching English as a Second/ Foreign Language, this book is composed as a reference for English teachers.

This book can be a study, which deals with the preparations and professional developments of English teachers, containing diverse **ideologies** for English teaching. Being an English teacher, based on your characteristic, you might be able to find appropriate **pedagogies** of teaching and interpretations for English teaching fitting your personality. At the same time, you will have an access to understand the other English teachers' particular ways of teaching. Besides identifying the terms and types of Teaching English as a Second Language, or as a Foreign Language, this book explains to English teachers what are the general issues in the area of teaching English nowadays. The history of teaching English from the Ancient time to the beginning of our second millennium will be described. Traditionally, how English was originally taught, and alternatively how it was suggested in the present time will be mentioned. After reading this book, you should be able to acquire most of the important familiarities of the academic ground and updated theoretical foundations in the field of teaching English.

1. Terms and Types

There are many terms of teaching English that had been developed during past five decades. According to the researches and papers of linguists and scholars doing experiment for looking for better pedagogies of teaching, some terms emphasizing the functions and purposes of learning and teaching English have been evolved. The following will help us identify that the term of teaching

English have been interpreted in various ways due to the role of English under different political situations and levels of acceptances by different peoples with different characteristics and proficiencies. So far, we can discover that teaching English can be portrayed as **Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL)**, **Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)**, and **Teaching English as Other Language (TESOL)**. The following will advise us what these classifications of terms stand for.

Basically, the term ESL (English as a Second Language), is used commonly in the immigrant countries such as USA or Canada, where many immigrants' mother tongue is not English. That is, for the immigrants in **inner circle** and **outer circle** of areas resided by native-speakers, they must learn this mainstream language. The reason is that it is a main language spoken in the outside societies and communities, and official institutions. Although the learners' and their parents' native language, as well as their first language, is not English, they still have to learn English in order to immerse and make themselves integrated within the immigrant areas. This term of ESL can not be applied, if the learners consider English as their third or fourth language, instead of a second language.

When linguists create the term of **TESOL** (English for speakers of other languages), which is the abbreviation of teaching English to Students of Other Languages, they usually use it to emphasize the methodologies of learning and professions of teaching English. Especially, most typically we can scrutinize that it is applied by teacher-training institutions and instructor-education programs for English teachers, or language-learning organizations for learners of **expanding circle**.

It does not argue that the learners must study English as a Second Language after first language as well as their tongues, but it can be an auxiliary tool for gaining information, traveling and some other non-official purposes, instead of using it as an official or primary educational language. Likewise, **TEFL** (English as a Foreign Language) is focused on the purposes or studies of English by teachers and English learners with a different mother tongue. The precise interpretation for TEFL is that they treat English as a tool of communication in the world of various countries, instead of using it as an official language, or primarily educational language.

Most generally, the term **TEFL** is applied to emphasize that English language learning in nations, where English is not the most important language. On the other hand, English is allowed to

apply anywhere in their own countries freely, for purposes of governmental administrating behaviors, school education, communications in diverse events, or interaction in commercial institutions for doing business and marketing activities. Why this term **TEFL** is composed of the word “Foreign” is especially for reminding the users in non-immigrant countries, that there are invisible controversies on the issue of using English as a common tool of international communication. Under the different races’ political administrations, governmental systems and controlling power of their own first languages, English can only be applied as a foreign language, instead of the second language with priority above the other foreign languages.

Besides the above terms **TESL**, **TESOL** and **TEFL**, **TEIL** (Teaching English as an International Language) is another term that has been developed. Teaching English as an International Language means that people should treat English as a common tool of communication. Obviously, it emphasizes that this international language is associated with a language that has a large number of native speakers, so that it achieves its universal status. In fact, Mandarin, English, Spanish, Hindi and Arabic have also achieved this status of world-wide acceptances, where native speakers are a lot and the language is politically powerful enough. That is to say, a language can achieve its “**Global Status**” as well as “**World Status**,” where its role is reorganized as correspondingly significant in every country and every people. The following will explain to readers with more details how English is regarded and treated in different vicinities. How English teachers in different nations value the current position of English..

1. 1 English outside English-speaking Countries

Teaching English as a Foreign Language implies that English is taught in an area where it is not ruled by English people, colonized by England, or culturally and ethnically influenced by The great British for a great deal. Both learners and teachers’ studies for learning and teaching different language besides mother tongue are allowed to occur in a student's home, as well as an important part of the normal school curriculum, or as an alternative communicative approach in governmental conferences. When people of **Anglophone** countries visit the typical areas of English outside English-speaking countries, such areas of **Expanding Circle** (Refer to Figure of Braj Kachru), Taiwan, France, Japan Korea or Germany, they can experience listening to their mother tongues with various kinds of local accents and **pidginized** sound of the residents’ mother tongues. From

the writers' perspectives, this type of English communication should be interesting and enjoyable. English learners might be able to communicate in a fluent and naturally smooth fashion. Non-native speakers in this area after all merely treat English as the other people's language.

In fact, the purposes of learning English as a Foreign language in **Expanding Circle** usually might be just for passing exams as a required part of one's admission for entering an educational institution, or for future career improvements, such as working for a governmental or foreign commercial institutions that view English as a language of priority. Of course, people outside English-speaking countries can apply what they had learned for purposes of travelling, internet interactions, and any forms of communicating within any **multilingual** societies for established international relations or doing business. In spite of this, English has no authentic or significant status (what linguists calls the "**Expanding Circle** countries") in the areas outside English-speaking countries. It can be regarded as a supplemented lesson at school, but not a necessarily executed subject, where students need to meet high standard of using it as well as native speakers. Teachers of EFL normally assume that their learners should more literate in their own mother tongue. In Expanding Circle, however, English should be at least an appropriate foreign language to learn when the students have more time. Plus, when their governments are willing to prop up this language and have additional funds for developing this EFL field of English teaching and learning.

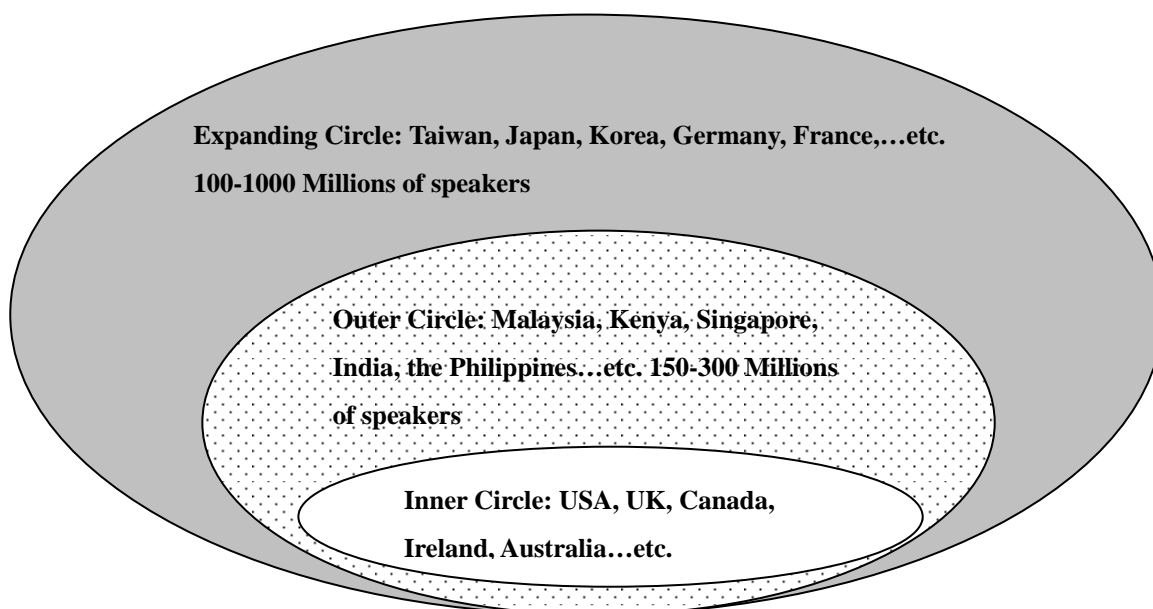


Figure: English in inner, outer, and expanding circles (Braj Kachru's categorization of areas in which English is used.)

1. 2 English within English-speaking Countries

Besides areas that speaking English as a Foreign Language, the rest of a huge group includes English's heritages and their immigrants into colonized areas of the Great British. Application of English as **monolingual** or **bilingual** language in the **Anglosphere** can be easily observed. The terminology of **Anglosphere** here refers to the entirety of English-speaking nations. These nations have the Anglo Saxons' and English heritages' common historical, political, and cultural characteristics associated with the United Kingdom.

A Linguist Braj Kachru calls these nations are ones in the "**Inner Circle**," where English is usually a mother tongue of its citizens. These countries comprise early colonies of the United Kingdom, for example, North America Continent such as America (later being independents and named United States), Canada, and Australian Continent such as Australia, and New Zealand. Furthermore, applications of English can also expand into the groups of refugees, immigrants and their children moving to the terrains, where English tradition is in the mainstream society.

Inner Circle Speakers in the United Kingdom, the United States, Australia, New Zealand, Ireland, Malta, Anglophone Canada and South Africa, and some of Caribbean territories speak Standard English as first language as well as a mother tongue. So far, the total number of English speakers in the **Inner Circle** has achieved to the number of 380 million.

From a broader view, the title of English within English-speaking countries, can also applied for the use of English in "**Outer Circle**" nations, which had been colonized by British before. A typical area that can also titled as "Within English-speaking Areas" are India and Hong Kong. People in **Outer Circle** colonized by British would admit the status of English to be significant and even can remain its position of official language even if it is not spoken as a first language at home by most of the population who are not British heritages.

In other words, **Outer Circle** includes countries where English is not the native language. Nevertheless, is vital for historical motives to play a part in the nation's societies and communities with diverse functions. It can be accepted as an official language or primarily second educational language. India, Nigeria, the Philippines, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Malaysia, Tanzania, Kenya,

non-Anglophone South Africa and Canada can be titled as **Outer Circle**. The total number of English speakers in the **Outer Circle** is measured to range from 150 million to 300 million.

1. 3 Variety of English

"English" is becoming a term related to various types of dialects based on the origin of using English as a communication tool of communities in different forms. For example, British English, American English, and Canadian English are regarded as more classical standard patterns of English. Moreover, **Japanese English**, **Konglish** (Korean English), and **Singlish** (English of Singapore) are associated with Asian language accents and costumed usages. The researches for variety of English usually focused on the characteristics of Theoretical Linguistics differences, caused by pronunciations, grammatical structures or **semantics** of words.

Students of **English-majors** in countries outside English-speaking countries usually will base on their need and select an ideal **native-speaking** county for overseas studying. Students in previous British colonies, such as India and Hong Kong for example, are more likely choose learning British English in countries of British colonies, such as England, New Zealand, and Canada. Contrastingly, English learners in the Philippines, Taiwan, Korea where many American soldiers stayed before, are more likely to learn American English in the states.

In a globalized world, many scholars in the field of English teaching and educators in schools of expanding nations tend to emphasize teaching English should be defined as teaching **English as an International Language** (EIL), also known as English as a nowadays **Lingua Franca** (ELF). English should be used as a tool of common communication. Instead of a cultural norm of intellectual development for individuals, who are not living in inner circle within which British English is not only a mother tongue but also a criterion of living mode. Contrastingly, English outside **inner circle** develops its varieties of English, based on grammatical structures, pragmatics usages, and pronunciation of the characteristics of the speakers' first language.

A typical example of variety of English is American English, which can be also interpreted as **AmE**, **AE**, **AmEng**, **USEng**, United States English, U.S. English, and American. It is actually a system of dialects of the English language, spoken mostly in America. Since two thirds of **native-speakers** of English live in the immigrant country, United States, English has become the

most common language. In truth, the U.S. federal government has not authoritatively pointed English to be American's Federal governors' official language yet. English is still considered the authentic **de facto** language (de facto is a Latin phrase that means "by the fact.")

In constitution, it is in practice but not necessarily ordained by law of the United States, because of its prevalent applications in societies and communities of American people. So far, inside states of America, English has been given an official status by thirty of the fifty state governments. To predict the status of English in the US, in twenty years there might be forty states that will later continue to declare English as their official language in state.

The use of English in the United States was mostly from British colonization of the eastern thirteen states. The first generation of English-speaking immigrants came to North America around 17th century. At that time, there were also speakers of Spanish, French, Dutch, German, Norwegian, Swedish, Irish, Russian and numerous Native American languages. Hence, the language of American English can be found characteristics of many European's languages.

For example, English in Singapore, Singlish is a typical variety of English-based creole used in Singapore, where most of the residences are from Hochu and Chawchu of China. After the world's globalization, **Singlish** has become the first language of most young Singaporeans. Although educated Singaporeans are able to code-switch between Singlish and Standard English, the fossilized and **pidginalized** accents and structures similar to the structures in Cantonese and Hokkien dialects can be easily observed.

The vocabulary of **Singlish** involves languages of most Singaporean citizens and English. Besides English, Bahasa Melayu, Hokkien, Teochew, Cantonese, Tamil, Bengali, Punjabi are all components that compose this variety of English. Its **phonology** system and **syntax** resembles dialects of southern China. Through mass media of television, radio and commercial activities supported by inner circle, elements of American English and Australian slang have been additional components of Singlish.

These years, because **Mandarin** Chinese is educated most Singaporean Chinese heritages in school, Mandarin characteristics can be found in Singlish. In fact, the Creole of neighboring Malaysia, **Manglish** is also similar to Singlish. Both of the English varieties are evolved due to the need of using English to communicate in the society which regards English communication as an

authoritative way under the past control by British's governments and the current trend of **globalization**. Besides, many more English varieties have developed in each area on this globe. For example, Canadian English combines British and American rules. Australian English involved sounds and structure rules of aboriginal people. Hong Kong English can be found the fossilized accents and characteristics of Cantonese and Mandarin.

1. 4 Simplified English

The international intercourse pattern of "**Simplified English**" has been recommended by many scholars. For example, Grace Hui-chin Lin in *A Case study of Communication* published in 2009 suggested that for international communication under the trend of globalization, the strategic communication should be promoted. Moreover, a linguist Charles Kay Ogden (1889-1957) has suggested that his systemized Basic English as an auxiliary international language of 850 words is an adoptable system that covers everything necessary for day-to-day purposes. Besides, **Globish** is a classification of simplified English formalized by Jean-Paul Nerriere.

Globish contains **Standard English** grammar, and a list of 1500 English words. Based on Nerriere's interpretation, **globish** is "not a language," but rather it is the common foundation that non-native English speakers implement in the context of international trade. When working as vice president of international marketing at IBM, Jean-Paul Nerriere first discovered the alternative modes that **non-native English speakers** used to communicate with each other in international situations. Hence, he organized language rules and training in books to make non-native English speakers better interact by his Globish as a **Lingua Franca**.

In Europe, most people are familiar with **Ido**, which is a constructed language comprised through the purpose becoming a universal second language for speakers of diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Unlike English, **Ido** is a natural but sometimes an asymmetrical language. It was specifically designed for grammatical, orthographic, and lexicographical regularity, and to help no one who might be advantaged in a situation due to native fluency in a widespread standard from. It is classified as a consciously and intentionally created **International Auxiliary Language** (conIAL). Many other language reformations follow the ideologies of Ido. For example, Novial appeared later but have since faded into its obscurity.

Additionally, the language of **Novial** means new **International Auxiliary Language**. It is a way to smooth the progress of international communication and friendship. This student was organized by Professor Otto Jespersen, a Danish linguist who beforehand had ever participated in the Ido movement. **Novial**'s foundation of language is based on the **Germanic** and **Romance** languages and its grammar is basically similar to English.

So far, **Ido** is one of the three auxiliary languages surviving after being developed in the early 1900s in Europe. In truth, Ido is greatly based on the Doktoro Esperanto, created by L. L. Zamenhof 's book *Unua Libro* in 1887. **Ido** first appeared in 1907 as an outcome of a need to reform errors in Esperanto. **Ido** was created after Esperanto to be more wide-propagating language.

2. English on the Globe of the Second Millennium

McLuhan mentioned phenomena of **globalization** have brought considerable benefits for human beings who inhabit the petite **global village**. Consequently, people in the world with different histories, races, and languages welcome globalization era. Wallerstein (1979) also argues that people on the earth are longing for and pursuing a unified living style with a new international order, from economic, political, and cultural perspectives.

In order to accomplish this, multitudinous international organizations are set to solve global problems together by different nations and develop living qualities of entire human kind and other creatures on the earth. For that reason, in the beginning of the second millennium, many globe associations can be easily observed, such as World Wild Animal Fund, United Nation, World Health Organization, and World Trade Organization. These international organizations propose convenient and speedy channels of intercontinental communication, reunion, and support.

On the other hand, how our English teachers should carry out to facilitate their students to accommodate with the approaching innovative humankind order and be a global village dweller? Can globalization carry any growth for our surrounding area? The following passages will have a discussion about the profits might brought from **globalization**, impact of the updated trend of globalization, how teachers should adjust in their syllabus because of this new development and style of living, and how they can get ready for their students to connect with emerging intercontinental associations.

In order to make ourselves and our students integrate into the petit world, it needs to be

emphasized that international issues must be included in the course guide of English edification for accommodating the imminent **global village**. To facilitate it, English education should take global culture into consideration in order to aid our students to be habitual **world citizens**.

2. 1 Global Village

Phenomena of globalization have brought considerable benefits for human beings who inhabit the petite **global village** (McLuhan, 1959). Accordingly, people in the world with dissimilar histories, races, and languages greet globalization epoch. In fact, inhabitants on the globe are longing for and pursuing a unified living style with a **single social order** (Wallerstein, 1979) that is expected to be reorganized.

For doing this, innumerable international organizations are set to untie global dilemmas mutually and develop living values of entire human being and other living things on the earth. Hence, McLuhan (1959) declaim, occurrence of globalization is a great advantage for us, because people in all colors can get along more naturally from perspectives of economy, health, education, industry, politics,...etc.

Recently, people in five continents believing assorted religions are all greeting this unending globalization of **neo-liberalism**, which exhibits a single living formula and a benefit-exchanging rule. After quite a lot of dangerous and imprudent weapon contests among human beings in 20th century, we are awaiting to survive on earth more tranquilly and homogeneously. Furthermore, world citizens nowadays demand that the ambiguous borders with the other nations can be tolerant because of human's advanced union and evolution in upgraded **neo-liberal** epoch.

In order to reach human being's idyllic networking, countless intercontinental associations had been situated to decode worldwide problems reciprocally by different nations and improve the living quality. For that reason, global citizens should all be permitted to join world unions, such as World Wild Animal Fund (WWAF), United Nation (UN), World Health Association (WHA), and World Trade Organization (WTO), which put forward means and speedy channels of intercontinental announcement, conciliation, and collaboration.

Inclinations of **globalization** have transported benefits or influences for human beings in divergent districts who exist in the universal town, where their fates are connected with each other. In consequence, people from unlike nations even if they have assorted types of attitudes and responses toward the globalization epoch, mostly their proclivities and feelings toward lives turn to be hopeful and similar. The reason is that, in reality, most of the people in the new-born universal

village are investigating for a unified living style with a global manner. Meanwhile, people from different cultures are trying to appreciate each other through journeys, religious congregations, academic conferences, or business interactions. Many developing nations anticipate themselves to be more sophisticated and civilized, and to be built up as highly-developed countries such as Europe, Japan, and America.

Through the status of globalization, the communication in English naturally becomes fundamental and inescapable because it is people's general tool of universal contact. In order to update the **English as a Foreign Language** (EFL) curriculum to accommodate to the neo-liberal order in the simplified international social order, particularly for adult English learners in university, English teachers are taking worldwide perspectives into consideration when they write the curriculum.

Based on the theories of **global educators**, "A student does not need to travel outside U. S. borders to meet the peoples or understand the issues of the global village." (Durtka, Dye, Freund, Judy, Harris, Kline, LeBreck, Reibold, Tabachnick, Tantala, Wagler, 2002, p. 5) A scholar can gain knowledge of the world in his/her own classroom near home. What's more, in this day educators are staying their conscientiousness of designing a curriculum related to all subject matters encompassing global challenges, global cultures, and global connections (Durtka, Dye, Freund, Judy, Harris, Kline, LeBreck, Reibold, Tabachnick, Tantala, Wagler, 2002).

The reason is that students have their basic human right of knowing their new surrounding and new societal disciplines. New age group would be able to incorporate themselves into this restructured new planet easier and more promptly after taking English courses reflecting on global education.

2. 2 Global Education: Foundation of Contacting the World

In society, for those being able to play a part in the world's organizations in the **globalized village**, speaking in English is a required capability for every single participant who would like to correspond with the others in various forms of universal settings. When people gradually scrutinize the English learning curricula at universities and private schools in, for example, Taiwan of Asia Area, they might perceive many Taiwanese adult learners are now opening their mind and starting to learn English, so that they can be easily accepted by the world's scholastic, business, or political associations.

In Taiwan, the adult learners' purpose of learning English is that they wish to take care of the

members from all over the world, like their own siblings and families. On the other hand, they also long for conversing well in order to learn from the people of more advanced areas, or assist those from less wealth countries. For instance, Taiwan long for to unite with WHA (World Health Association) since there are several serious diseases in Taiwan these recent years.

It is impossible for Taiwanese to independently resolve the infection diseases without cooperating with other countries, where their medical techniques are maturely developed. As a result, Taiwanese need to cooperate with members from other places to control the problem and prevent the virus keep spreading, such as virus of Bird Flu or SARS (Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome). In reality, the outbreak of Bird Flu in 2006 or SARS in 2003 already made many medical doctors and nurses in hospital and students in medical universities in Taiwan become more aware of their aptitude of English communication with collaborators in the international medical associations.

Indisputably, incalculable institutions and organizations ally with different fields, which Taiwanese elites desire to join. How can the new age group in Taiwanese universities with specialized knowledge fulfill their obligation of entering a certain world society they think they belong to after their graduation from school? How will the Taiwanese university students be able to grow to be a constituent in the **global communities**, which might be a great support for their livelihood?

It can be observed that not only many elites in universities of Taiwan are well-informed in their professional fields, but also most of them are to a certain extent conversant in international communication and diverse nations' cultures. They are trying to attain their ambition of being a well-liked member in **global communities**. As English educators used to teach in quite a few colleges in Taiwan, the researchers of this book discover that the globalization's impact on Taiwan's university EFL classrooms can be displayed or revealed through young people's apparent urgent needs of learning how to express the professional terms, expert contents, and equally importantly, their comprehension of **globalization** and the world's various traditions.

In reality, all of the above subjects should previously have appeared in the adults' EFL classrooms in Taiwan in the very start of the 3rd millennium. The reason is that policy makers, governmental strategy followers and **curriculum** designers in universities of Taiwan mostly have enough awareness of the world's trend and they have an understanding of how a formal English education of a contemporary university in this **global era** should be similar to.

2. 3 Global Education: English VS. Diverse Cultures

People of different occupations have to be familiar with conversation topics related to their own specialties and also globalizations in order to communicate with friends from other countries. Both teachers and language learners in universities of Taiwan would contribute to making their homeland develop sooner and better because of their anticipation and preparation for the coming **global epoch**. From the point of view of English educators, this book declare that students in university should be informed with details about what the most noteworthy globalization issues are and how to properly keep up a correspondence with people from each corner in the world.

In the non-violent the third millennium, our university students should learn and think about how they can be an outstanding member in this global village through professional knowledge achievement, outstanding English communication, and abundant understanding of cultures and customs in different nations. In this day, not only English teachers of the **globalization era** should have taught language but they should also have already paid enough attention to what is happening in various global communities.

In summary, not only English educators should include the language, global issues or world's common problems into their EFL curriculum but also they have to inform students about world's **multi-cultures**, different types of government systems, and dissimilar concepts of religions existing in human beings in order to prepare for their future participation in multitudinous worldwide organizations.

Actually, the government and citizens of Taiwan are trying to accommodate themselves to this contemporary international situation in a globalized world. The most obvious effort that Taiwan government has made on this issue was an educational policy administrated in 1999. This was an educational amendment that made English as one of the main subjects of obligatory education beginning in the fifth grade of elementary school. Before this revision, Taiwanese English learners mostly started their English learning from their first year in junior high school.

Furthermore, besides tests of **Educational Testing Service** (ETS), such as **Test of English as a Foreign Language** (TOEFL), and **Test of English for International Communication** (TOEIC) that students can take in several universities of Taiwan, the Taiwan Ministry of Education also provides **General English Proficiency Test** (GEPT) as a method of preparing for Taiwanese to enter some more international organizations, such as WHO and WTO. As it can be seen, the

government of Taiwan anticipates that Taiwanese officials, businessmen, educators, etc, will be able to join **global organizations** and exchange ideas in fluent English.

From the financial aspect, Taiwan has been upgraded to one of the fully developed countries because Taiwanese have completed a great deal of international trade and conducted countless charity conventions. However, many scholars in Taiwan are worried when they look into the prospects of Taiwan's future economic development under modern and industrialized forms of **globalization**. Some of Taiwan's prestigious scholars, including Chemistry Nobel Prize winner, Dr. Lee Yuan Tseh, are worried about Taiwan not making further economic progress easily because of its lack of energy resources.

In fact, at the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation meeting on Oct. 22, 2002, Dr. Lee represented Taiwan, and said that oil supplies will run out within forty years if the current supply and demand only depends on oil countries. Also, he forecasted that there will be an energy crisis in not only Taiwan but also the globe within the next twenty years. At this meeting, the United States, Mexico, and many others from the Asian-Pacific region concluded that investigation and research on alternative power sources may not see any real progress within the next twenty years, but nuclear power might be a transitory solution for this problem.

Additionally, as it can be inferred from the listing of conference participants, the attending scientists, officials, and scholars from different nations used English to inspect **global problems**, work out solutions for their own countries, and for other countries that might have the same problems. For instance, the energy crisis is not only a problem for Taiwan but also a major problem for many Asian and Pacific nations. One nation's destiny is related to each other. "Substantively, the world is seen as interrelated systems in which technological, ecological, economic, political and development issues can no longer be effectively addressed by individual nations because the issues become global as they spill over borders and regions" (Becker, 1979; Hanvey, 1976; Kniep, 1986b).

2. 4 Example of Taiwan and Our Global Village

In truth, besides the energy crisis being a factor that Taiwan can not make progress rapidly, one other factor is that nowadays, only high technology can make a country industrialized and **globalized** and keep up with most of highly developed countries. From a long term perspective, if Taiwan's old-fashioned productions can not be upgraded and transformed into more advanced technology classes, such as computer industries, environmental-protection (chemistry) companies,

or semiconductor industries, sooner or later, Taiwan can not survive well because its rank of **globally-upgraded** industrialization would be very low compared with other industrialized nations.

Beyond doubt, Taiwan's economy can not improve smoothly and rapidly as it did twenty years ago because Taiwan has been established into a developing country mainly dependent on its low-cost labor force. Unfortunately, the global low-cost laboring resource can be sufficiently and inexpensively offered from Mainland China and South East Asia. As a result, in the modern trade market, many products for daily use once made in Taiwan ten years ago are now mostly made in China.

In reality, Taiwan is just a tiny island, which lacks natural raw resources and pretty much depends on the imported materials. Therefore, how Taiwan can survive in this competitive **global village** is that the Taiwanese must develop high-tech industry and make its economy advanced in a practical way. Then it will be competitive compared with other wealthy or highly industrialized countries. In fact, this is the reason why Taiwan government is trying to establish Formosa as a computer-based hi-tech Green Valley. The Taiwanese people do anticipate their country to grow and flourish, which helps them create a firmer identity.

Consequently, for attaining this point, with English as an international communication tool, foreign employers and employees from all over the world would be much more willing to bring their techniques and skills to cooperate with Taiwanese companies, which assist Taiwan to produce high-technology commodities, such as Asus' laptops and Buick's cars. These are fashionable products that can be exported to other countries, which can increase Taiwan's foreign income for a great deal.

Indeed, the abundant cooperation between Taiwanese and foreigners in the Hsinchu Science Park, eastern Silicon Valley, implies that there is an imperative necessity that students majoring in business, science and technology in the universities of Taiwan need to receive the training in English and be aware of the concepts of **globalization**. From the perspectives of English teachers of Taiwan, one pedagogy most educators regard as important is using English to resolve the "global" problems. For instance, from a perspective of pollution, in order to catch up with the **global** scientific progress and world improvement in economy, Taiwan's current advancement in industrialization has been accompanied by the destruction and pollution of the environment, and this problem must be solved as soon as possible.

In fact, in 1970s, Taiwan's speedy industrialization these years reflected a phenomenon of factory pollution and one of the major factors of occupational diseases in Taiwanese people (Cheng & Wang, 1976). These days, this problem does not become as serious as a decade ago though, because many of these high pollution industries are gradually transferred to China; however, the anti-pollution system needs to be developed and established sooner in order to cease the occupational disease found on foreign labors.

Recently, most plastic products are produced in China, and it is uncertain when and where China would transit their pollution industries and advance their manufactures goods. It is believed it is time to transcend this conflict and maintain a sound balance between environmental harmony and technological development. We believe that people need to find a way to resolve the health problems triggered by **globalization** in order to protect the human health in our limited environment because there is no second earth to spoil.

What is more, this book argues that Chinese people should not create their "economic miracle" by sacrificing the environment and shortening their lives. Hence, scholars, scientists, as well as English teachers, have a great responsibility to foster the reasonable global economic growth, which means the **globalization** needs to be led with a peaceful, reasonable, and correct way, and not to trade people's precious lives for modernization, industrialization, and economic achievement.

Noticeably, being university **EFL** teachers, we think what we can devote ourselves and resolve the problems caused from **globalization** to incorporate global issues into the **EFL** curriculum for all university English learners with different majors. In this way, we can contribute to solving issues caused by rapid **globalization** by raising students' worldwide awareness of the issues in English, such as environmental protection and occupational diseases, and let students learn to interact in the international communities of their fields. Awareness and discussion of problems and their potential solutions, such as the destruction of world rain forests, are highly important, and encouraging such dialogues in English learning classrooms in Taiwan's university classrooms would prepare learners for their potential roles in the global community.

Hence, an important scholar of **global education**, Korsgaard (1997) argues that education and training needs to respond meaningfully and creatively to social change, brought on by globalization. In order to make national and global improvement in a harmonic atmosphere, university students with different majors have to be prepared for the upcoming tasks in schools. I assume, in the future, our university students are going to cope with the global controversy, cooperate, and resolve

globalization problems with international acquaintances that are facing the same challenges as they perform.

When designing **EFL** curriculum for university students from the perspective of globalization, both teachers and students have to accumulate enough knowledge in different domains. Scholars in education, history, and social sciences have to set forth ways in which schools should prepare young people for life in a **global age** (Alger& Harf, 1986, Gilliom, Remy& Woyach 1980; Hanvey, 1976; Kniep, 1986; Lamy, 1987).

When preparing to teach university students in different departments and colleges, we need to carry out studies and research projects to explore different typical controversies and teach according to students' interest and our own knowledge foundation. It can be believed that the following topics related to wide-ranging issues should be incorporated in Taiwan's academia **EFL** classrooms. First of all, environment protection is a typical **global** discussion model topic that especially Taiwanese students need to be aware of since on their island. There are many high pollution industries, which are not accompanied with anti-pollution system to shun polluting the earth. Ideally, through discussing in English about our awareness and solutions of environment pollution, students may find a way to raise industry benefits while reducing pollution to the smallest amount.

Secondly, food shortage is an illustration topic that especially teachers and learners in wealthy countries need to be aware of. Many people are wasting their food and live luxuriously. Making them more aware of the need for more efficient use of resources is critical. Ideally, through discussion of the issue of hunger in class, the emergency of food shortage in poor countries would be noticed, and perhaps, be resolved.

Moreover, for university students who are interested in global science or chemistry and physics, the **curriculum** and **pedagogy** designers should offer them a topic like Global Warming and the Changing Climate. From a stimulating story of the polar bears' population decreasing as a typical example, we could make students aware how much effort and money they have to compensate for using machines that release carbon dioxide. Furthermore, for university students who are interested in intercontinental relationships and those whose major is social science, we can offer them a topic like Peace and Conflict between American and Persian. From an unbiased angle, let students learn the truth and exchange information that they find from different mass media. They can be trained of American and Persian conflicting perspectives from the Persian Gulf War and Event of 9-11 through teaching materials, lectures and discussions and grasp Information about the

war, opinions about the war, and emotional reactions to the consequences of the war (Knowles, 1993). In school, they may confidently find their positions after they have deeply analyzed from their perspectives and support American or Persian views. Then they can do role play, acting as Americans and Persians to illustrate to their teacher and classmates their reasons of fighting and also explain why they are representatives as roles of real justice. Additionally, “World Diverse Cultures,” “Political Trends,” and “Peace between China and Taiwan” are also potential topics for university students to discuss and present for classmates.

In the same logic, for university students who are interested in financial system and who major in business management, they have to become skilled at topics, such as Energy Crisis, Environment Degradation Caused by Industrialization, Rich/Poor Gap, Import and Export of Energy and Materials, and Employment Exchange. Since these issues are closely related to world financial trends, students have to be familiar with present information and tidings of these compound realms, learning to perform their wisdom by figuring out an answer and contributing this answer to the conferences of **global institutions**. For instance, university students can explore issues such as how they can set a world social safety net, and make resources like food and water accessible in a poor corner of an undeveloped country. Additional issues such as how we can increase business cooperation opportunities with countries that are less wealthy than Taiwan, and make their national incomes, and nutritional, educational, and health care level, be raised.

For students of institutions of higher education whose major is science, they need to deepen their knowledge by discussing with teachers and classmates about topics like Climate Change around the Globe, AIDS (Acquired immune deficiency syndrome), Population Control, Air and Water Pollution Control, Battery and Plastic Bags Recycling, Nuclear Garbage Solution, Rescuing Extinguishing Animal, and Solutions for Forests, Grasslands, Dry Lands...etc. EFL curricula with global topics stimulate students with scientific major to endeavor to resolve a certain catastrophe that they think is vital for human beings. For instance, adult students may be aware of the increasing patient number of AIDS in Taiwan from their in-class discussion. They might be willing to make efforts and be volunteers to alleviate people from **human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)** infections.

Moreover, through the EFL materials found on the website of World Health Organization and the resources of AIDS from libraries and bookstores, students of specific science majors (Biology, Medicine, or Pharmacology, for example) can learn how to transmit information to their friends or submit papers to global health institutions, such as “World AIDS Campaign” and “International

Treatment Access Coalition”. They are trained to shield themselves and also all people around the earth from contamination by HIV by using condoms and avoiding high jeopardy of infection of HIV from homosexual and heterosexual behaviors that are not protected by lawful matrimony.

There are innumerable general problems existing in poles-apart nations, which make the needs to understand these problems of globalization so imperative. Our large-scale problems are mostly caused by industrialization, world injustice, and conflicts existing in human beings. What EFL teachers can do to solve these arduous global problems is facing them and finding cooperative approaches among countries. As EFL teachers, we should assume global topics are inescapable and inevitable because they endow university students with “common senses” in such a globalized world and enable them to contribute to solving these universal crises.

That is why, as EFL teachers who want to contribute to **globalization**, a question might appear: How do we show appropriate international topics for language learners? For this point, Merryfields has a response; the most important contextual factors are teachers’ beliefs, values, practices, and their acquaintances of **globalizations** and resources to teach it, and their perceptions of student characteristics (Merryfields, 1998).

As a result, what we must accomplish is to carry out more practical research and make ourselves a qualified coach who is able to instruct such global topics. In other words, EFL teachers have to build up their familiarity of natural science, economics, and social science because universal topics engage with so many distinct, yet interconnected fields.

To bring this chapter to a close, Britzman and Dipppo (2000) queried: What are faculties of education doing to prepare future teachers to respond to crises in the world? EFL teachers need to have an accountability to stimulate, inspire and educate their students, and tutor them and give them capabilities in this **universal rural community**. After all, the aim of EFL instruction is to train people to become improved human beings and communicators in order to function peacefully and efficiently in the up-to-the-minute world. The challenge, consequently, is on both teachers and students in university EFL classrooms.

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Chapter II

Language Acquisition and Teaching Methodologies

In the fields of Teaching English a Second or Foreign/International Languages, there are several basic foundations of teaching Methodologies. They are primarily **Structuralism, Constructivism, Behaviorism, Rationalism and Cognitive Psychology, Interactive Approaches, and Computer Assistant Language Learning.**

More than thirty major subject matter areas can be included in language learning. They might be named as fields of early childhood language acquisition, non-native language pedagogy, **language testing, literacy studies**, reading processes and instruction, writing **bilingualism**, reading processes and instruction, translation, **pragmatics, discourse analysis, specific languages, lexicology, interpersonal behavior** and communication, **sociolinguistics, communication strategies, nonverbal language studies**, and more. Based on our explorations and organizations for the methodologies of language teaching and learning that appeared in the history, this paper will give the English educators an overview of significant methodologies of language teaching.

From chronological perspectives, this paper is to provide our reader a basic concept what types of language teaching pedagogies have appeared in our history of teaching English or teaching other languages. The theoretical foundations for how these pedagogies and methodologies are based and discovered will be also provided and interpreted. Moreover, before the noteworthy pedagogies and methodologies are introduced, three schools of how human acquire their language proficiencies were revealed. Basically, from 1900s to early 2000, there are controversies how human learn their languages. From the theoretical foundations of **structuralism and behaviorism, rationalism and cognitive psychology**, and updated interactive discourse, this study will give an overview of each school that looks at this issue differently.

Based on two books of Richard, Platt, Platt's (1998) Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics and Brown's (2000) Principles of Language Learning and Teaching, this study attempts to simplify the intricate and complicated foundations of language acquisition and language teaching appearing in English education and Linguistics history. In fact, most schools of language attainment, and systems of teaching pedagogies and methodologies have

risen and been discussed in the twentieth century.

1. Three Schools of Language Acquisitions

The field of language acquisition centers its research question on how the language learners attain their language proficiency. Based on different perspectives many scholars had revealed their findings how an individual from a baby to an elder child is able to build up the capability of language production and recognize and comprehend what others communicate with them. There are three schools of scholars emphasizing from views of **Structuralism** and **Behaviorism**, **Rationalism** and **Cognitive Psychology**, and **Constructivism**, which are evaluated as the most crucial in the academic history of Teaching English as a Foreign/Second Language. Being professional English educators, they need to be familiar with these schools and consider their advantages and disadvantages.

1. 1 First School, from 19th century, 1940s, to 1950s, Structuralism and Behaviorism Schools

During this period of time, the typical themes of language teaching are mainly description, observing performance, analyzing the surface structure of language and reinforcement for students' learnt acquisition based on **Structuralism** and **Behaviorism** schools of thoughts (Brown, 2000). From the Structuralisms' point of view, our language is learned from principles of observation of human language, recognizing the differences among different structures, identifying the structural characteristics of languages, based on the interrelationships of different structures, and applying the accumulations and experiences into generating language.

On the other hand, among psychologies, a behaviorist paradigm also focused on publicly observable responses to explain how human can acquire and apply languages. This school of behaviorism tends to explain that through human's typical behaviors the content of the language application can be evolved during a type of behavior taking place.

More specifically, the typical behaviorist models mean empirical approaches to studying human behavior, especially studying how the languages are generated. In truth, according to Skinner (1957), **Behaviorism** is an important influence on psychology, education, and language teaching, especially in explaining how language is automatically produced by an individual through his/her need to react to a stimulus in daily life. This school argues that there is no need to have an

intention or a purpose of creating language, but the language will be naturally evolved through human nature. That is, the language talent should be displayed after a person is born without too much training.

On the other hand, the language should be learned and absorb naturally. It is not an automatic reflection. Thoughts appearing in mind are associated with our verbal behavior in mind since verbal behavior is the main sign of thought that can be observed outwardly.

1. 2 Second school, from 1960s to 1970s, Rationalism and Cognitive Psychology Schools

At this time, many topics of language teaching and learning were emphasized through the acquisition aspects of **Rationalism** and **Cognitive Psychology**. Chomsky (1964) states that it is not possible human language can be scrutinized merely through stimuli or responses to the others. Different from reasons of automatically reaction, experiences, observation or merely accumulation of language in mind, rationalism and cognitive psychology schools argue that human develop their ability of language through thinking and **cognitive ability**.

Chomsky (1964) emphasizes that sufficiency and **self-cognitive development** of language is a principle based on how an individual can select and produce language. Similarly Brown (2000) interprets their theoretical foundation as “Cognitive psychologists asserted that meaning, understanding, and knowing were significant data for psychological study.” (p.10) According to Brown (2000), this school of cognitive psychologist, like generative linguistics, attempts to find out underlying enthusiasm and deeper structures of human activities by using rational approach.

1. 3 Third school, Constructivism from 1980s to 2000

According to Brown (2000), scholars studying first and second language acquisition have demonstrated constructivist perspectives through studies of conversational discourse, **socio-cultural factors** in learning, and integrationist theories. Therefore, the emphasis for practical language application is obvious in this school. The typical themes of the language teaching in this school are mainly **interactive discourse, social-cultural variables, cooperative group learning, Interlanguage variability, and international approaches**. Obviously, language learners who are taught through above pedagogies of English teaching should be assumed to be fluent and understandable when communicating in English.

2. Pedagogies and Methodologies in the 19th Century

There are many teaching methodologies have been deducted and created as pedagogies of teaching English from the early 19th century. From a post-contemporary point of view, pedagogies half-century ago can be titled as a “traditional” fashion for teaching language. The reason is that they less encourage student-centered, interactive, and immersing environments of teaching English. In the later 19th century, the humanized pedagogies start to emerge, so that the field of teaching English started to develop more maturely and practically.

2. 1 Grammar Translation Method

This methodology is a conventional way that Latin and Greek were taught in Europe. In the 19th century, this methodology started to be applied for teaching French, German, and English. A classical lesson of grammar translation method is to emphasize the reading proficiency rather than to train the interaction ability. Generally speaking, it might be similar to the pedagogies applied in **cram-schools** in Asia, where preparing for interaction-free standardized test is regarded as a significant issue for both parents and students. The result might influence the test takers’ future career for a great deal.

2. 2 Natural Approach

It was developed in the later 19th century. The use of objects and actions in teaching the meanings of words and language was built up. The spoken language was emphasized. It highlights that language should be taught following the natural principles of first language. Actually, these above natural approaches led to the “**Direct Method**,” titled by Terrell (1977). It also agrees that the natural communication is more important than formal grammar, and language learners’ errors during interaction can be tolerant. The reason is that too many interruption and correction might obtrude students’ confidence and emotion of learning language. Accordingly, any informal acquisition of language rules even Interlanguage appearing in learners’ language production should not be unforgivable.

2. 3 Direct Method

In Krause’s (1916) the Direct Method in Modern Language and Linguistics, we can discover the characteristics of this teaching method. This is a method that reacts against **Grammar Translation Method**. It draws attention to the learner’s practical speaking ability. Teaching

grammar rules might be not indispensable. Both teacher and students should use as much as target language as they can. In fact, the title of direct method means that most meanings can be conveyed “directly,” because they can be related to learners’ applications of action, objects, mimes, gestures, and any other type of non-verbal method.

2. 4 Situational Language Teaching

It guides to extensive textbooks created for explaining grammar usages. Situational Language Teaching actually was evolved by British language teachers between 1930s and 1960s. Nowadays, it can be applied in grammatical teaching and preparation for **standardized test** that focused on the accuracy of English grammatical structures. The belief in dissimilarity between the oral approach and the direct method was that the methods so formulated are based on theoretical foundations guiding the range of content, progression of difficulty of exercises and the management of textbooks and exercises.

2. 5 Constructive analysis

In 1980s and 1989s, **Constructive analysis** was mentioned by quite a lot of scholars (e.g. James, 1980; Odlin, 1989). It is a technique comparing the linguistic system of two languages, for instance the pronunciation system or the grammatical structure. Actually, early in 1950s and 1960s, it was developed and practiced. Also, it was an application of **constructional linguistics** to teaching English. It is based on the foundations that the main difficulties in learning a new language are mainly due to the intrusion from the mother tongue; therefore, the difficulties which might appear during teaching and learning can be forecasted in advance. It has led to better teaching performance in teaching pronunciation. These years, it is frequently applied to in teaching discourse and communication.

2. 6 Audio-lingual Method

This pedagogy emphasizes that teaching speaking and listening should be in the earlier stage of teaching reading and writing. It dejects the teaching through mother tongue and encourages that most of the English teaching should apply the target language to instruct. When the instructors utilize **target language** to lecture, students will be able to attain their occasion where they can accumulate the knowledge of the target language. Harmer (2001) emphasizes that **audio-lingual methodology** seems to banish all forms of language processing that help students sort out new language information in their own minds. That is to say, when students are accumulating their

knowledge of the target language, they are at the same time recognizing the differences between the target language and their mother tongue.

2. 7 Total Physical Response

Asher (1977) developed this language teaching method in which teaching contents are instructed through orders, commands, and instruction demanding the learners' or even teacher's **physical response** through body languages and gestures. For instance, the students might be called for opening a window or a door when learning the grammatical structure of a sentence of "Would you please make the door open?" Through body actions and gestures, students can learn in a very clear way. Body language as well as the **physical response** would lead students to have a deep understanding on the target structure and meaning. This method is especially suitable for teachers to teach a beginning level course.

2. 8 Student-Centered Learning

From 1980s, language education based on the concept of students' cooperation is accentuated. **Pair** discussion or **group brain storming** activities are regarded as more significant than the teachers' tutoring. It is a much supported language teaching principle; therefore till the 21st century, it is still growing. Under the format of **student-centered** learning, students should participate in the activities that the teachers conducted for them in class.

Students' performances of a certain type of task and their feelings of the learning are considered especially imperative. Teacher's role in the class should be an adjunct one instead of a major one. Teachers are students' consultants, advisers instead of authentic professors. In fact, many types of language methodologies can be conducted through **student-centered** learning, such as community language learning, silent way and totally **physical response**.

2. 9 Total Communication

In the original state of his educational methodology, **Total Communication** was originally a method developed for teaching hearing-damaged children based on concurrent applications of sign language and spoken language. Many scholars have devoted themselves to this field (e.g., Lowenbraun, Appelman, & Callahan 1980; Mayer, & Lowenbraun, 1990; Moores, 1996; Schlesinger, 1986; Scouten, 1984).

In truth, **Total Communication** is the beginning an approach to deaf education that aims to make use of a number of modes of communication such as signed, oral, auditory, written and visual aids, depending on the particular needs and abilities of the child. However, it can also be applied in a more comprehensible communication in non-native speakers' language classrooms.

2. 10 Interactive Approaches

Based on River (1987, 2001) and Brown's (2000) research, in the classroom conducted through interactive approaches, the language teachers can play as a controller, director, manager, facilitator and a recourse provider. Through student and student interaction and the teacher and student interaction, a class might be more effective due to the frequent interactions appearing in the class. In truth, the final goal of language learning is for gaining proficiency of really interacting and communicating. Therefore, many prestigious professors support this type of practical and authentic type of language teaching.

Wilga River (1987, 2001) of Harvard University is the senior female scholar that devotes a great deal of her researches into the field of interactive approach. She defines interactive pedagogies through the following statements:

Through interaction, students can increase their language store as they listen to or read authentic linguistic material, or even the output of their fellow students in discussions, skits, joint problem-solving tasks, or dialogue journals. In interaction, students can use all they possess of the language-all they have learned or casually absorbed- in real life exchanges...Even at an elementary stage, they learn in this way to exploit the elasticity of language. (p. 4-5)

Professor River uploaded her created ten principles of interactive approach on-line and English teachers intend to raise learners' practical ability of applying English can follow the ten principles as follows.

Principle 1: The student is the language learner.

Principle 2: Language learning and teaching are shaped by student needs and objectives in particular circumstances.

Principle 3: Language learning and teaching are based on normal uses of language, with communication of meanings (in oral or written form) basic to all strategies and techniques.

Principle 4: Classroom relations reflect mutual liking and respect, allowing for both teacher personality and student personality in a non-threatening atmosphere of cooperative learning.

Principle 5: Basic to use of language are language knowledge and language control.

Principle 6: Development of language control proceeds through creativity, which is nurtured by interactive, participatory activities.

Principle 7: Every possible medium and modality is used to aid learning

Principle 8: Testing is an aid to learning.

Principle 9: Language Learning is penetrating another culture; students learn to operate harmoniously within it or in contact with it.

Principle 10: The real world extends beyond the classroom walls; language learning takes place in and out of the classroom.

Prof. Wilga M River (2001) interprets **interactive approaches** maturely and professionally. She emphasizes that English teachers have responsibilities to teach through interaction and make that their learners are learning in an effective and interesting environment. Her metaphor created for clarifying **interactive approaches** is philosophical. She notes,

As fashions in language teachings come and go, the teacher in the classroom needs reassurance that there is some bedrock beneath the shifting sands. Once solidly founded on the bedrock, like the sea anemone the teacher can sway to the rhythms of any tides or currents, without the trauma of being swept away purposelessly. It is fun to sway to new rhythms, but as we ourselves choose, not under the pressure of outsiders who do not understand the complexities of our situation. Teachers need the stimulation of new thinking and new techniques to keep a fresh and lively approach to their teaching, but without losing their grip on enduring truths of learning and teaching that have proved to be basic to effective language experiences. (p. 1)

Brown interprets **interactive approaches** through the theoretical description, in his Chapter 13 of *Teaching by Principles*, he defines interaction as:

...the collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings, or ideas between two or more people, resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other. Theories of communicative competence emphasize the importance of interaction as human beings use in various context to “negotiate” meaning or simply stated, to get an idea out of one person’s head and into the head of another person and vice versa. From the very beginning of language study, classrooms should be interactive. (p. 213)

Indeed, from researchers’ point of view, **interactive approaches** have emerged in an obvious way. More significantly, they are accepted and applied by many English teachers in language institutions in Taiwan such as Hess or Sesames Street. Nowadays, English teachers in non-native areas are trying to look for different ways of interactions in order to raise students’ ability of practical communication in international situations.

Therefore, this is the reason why one of researchers’ students in English major at National Sun Yat-sen University of Taiwan, who would like to be a teacher in her future, regarded Brown’s *Teaching by Principles, An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy* as a bible for an English teacher. The student’s statement might not be an exaggeration, since Dr. Brown agreed with Prof. River’s ideal philosophy and developed interactive pedagogies in teaching listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

2. 11 Computer Assisted Language Learning

Computer assisted language learning (CALL) was developed because of the speedy development of computer science technology. Many teachers’ language instructions in school are assisted with computer equipments for their students. Basically, the power point presentation is one of the most typical ways of computer assisted language learning. Language learning through laptops, smart board, internet...etc, in class is much welcomed by both teachers and students. The dynamic and self-motivated type of learning can be stimulated because of the efficiency and effectiveness brought by new technologies.

Many curricula and pedagogies introducing how a CALL class can be accomplished have been being created because it is currently required by not only teachers and administrators of school but also students and parents. Besides, software for **translation** (e.g., Oxford Dictionary and Dr. Eye),

on-line study (e.g., Live ABC), and even on-line **interactive lectures** provided by many language institutions are also formed these years. This type of learning makes students learn in an independent and interesting way. With its characteristics of individual learning, students do not have to wait for their classmate understanding the same content. Instead they are able to control their own step of learning and enjoy the speedy progress assisted by the computer technology.

3. Conclusion

In the era of **globalization**, many language learners set their learning objectives on interacting with foreigners through English in order to be integrated in the world as a universal citizen. Therefore, in Taiwan many language institutions are established in order to provide the language learners' need of learning English communication. Generally speaking, recent teaching methodologies as well as the language pedagogies mostly focus on an immerse environment or a more active training way through which students can apply English as a real tool of communication instead of learning for taking examination.

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Chapter III

English Pronunciation

English teaching practice often assumes that most of the challenges English learners might encounter in their study are a result of non-native like language formats of English. A native speaker of Japanese, for example, may encounter many more complicatedness than a native speaker of German and French as European languages are associated with each other than Asian language. Hence, English teaching is a much significant issue in areas such as Japan, Korea, and Taiwan, where they were not colonized by the British nor they are not close to England.

1. Pronunciation

Compared with many languages such as French or Japanese, English does not have more consonant sounds. Nevertheless, the interdental, /θ/ and /ð/ appear in English frequently. These two unique consonants are rare in other languages, especially, in Asian languages such as Mandarin or Cantonese. With a way of phonological reduction, non-native speakers can use a [t] or [d] sound, [s] or [z], [f] [v] and even [ts] or [dz] to replace them. The facilitated **phonological system** can be accepted by non-native speakers since they still need to figure out a way to communicate in English.

Another two consonants might be also difficult for Asian, people from Japanese, Korean, China and Thai may have troubles when distinguishing [r] and [l]. Many of them might use [l] all the time in their verbal communication in English.

About English's Vowel phonemes, the accurate number of distinct vowel sounds depends on the variety of English in each area. Generally speaking Americans keep thirteen **monophthongs** and three **diphthongs** in their pronunciation. Speakers in Japan and Arabic keep use fewer vowels, so they might have more problems with both hearing and pronouncing different vowel phonemes in English.

About syllable structure, English includes a cluster of more than two consonants before the vowel and more than three after the vowel. For example, street, glimpsed. These kinds of complex consonant structures are problems for learners of many nations. For instance, Japanese, usually

contains at least a sound of vowel after a consonant. When Japanese people say supermarket, they usually would pronounce it as /supamakido/. In order to pronounce in a more accurate and native-like way, many learners are taking pronunciation courses.

2. Phonological Reduction

The application of English as a global language has resulted an unavoidable combination of English and the mother tongue of the language learners. The result of above phenomenon has also made the formation of a phonological system involving the phonemic features of the two languages, such as the variety of bilingual phonology of Chinese-English **phonology**. The objective of this chapter is to raise awareness of English learners in Taiwan and China, with a description of realism in language learning and at the same time a creation of intelligible phonological system for English communication.

In the literature review the researchers will argue that it is unrealistic to expect learners to accomplish **native-like norms** in pronunciation in their living environments where English is not spoken as an official language. It is emphasized based on Taiwanese learner's linguistic background as well as the contexts that involve nonnative-nonnative discourse participants, the reduced vowels and consonants in non-native speaker's phonological system should be regarded as reasonable and tolerable.

This chapter will introduce a reduced but intelligible **phonological system** for Chinese language learners to orally communicate. The suggested reduction system is created from the researchers' phonological angle as local Taiwanese speaking English, French, Taiwanese/Mandarin, and a little bit Hakka and Japanese. The chapter will indicate that phonology by reducing the number and accuracy of phonemes of vowels and consonants should be a short cut to influent oral communication. It is recommended that the suggested pronunciation framework be effective, valuable and realistic knowledge of Chinese/English bilingual phonology.

The goal of learning English should be practically applied in the international situation in a globalized world. MaKay (2002) emphasized that teaching English as an international language requires researchers and educators to thoroughly examine the learners' specific uses of learning English within their particular speech community. Hence, this chapter from a realistic perspective emphasizes that teaching pronunciation in this epoch that everybody viewing English as a **global language** should also accept the variations of **Pidginalization** in different area.

A pronunciation teacher should examine the learners' difficulty in pronouncing difficult

phonemes and try to correct their way of articulating. Nevertheless, if the learners are adult learners or they just can not revise the way of production, a model of phonology reduction should be provided to help the speakers interact in English and speak fluently when they need to use English.

From the above phonological view of tolerable **Englishes** that can be developed in different areas and different races, this chapter argues that a framework of phonological reduction should be developed for both teaching and learning pronunciation. According to the researchers' observations and experiences from daily life and the analyzed data of scholars in the phonological field, the model of vowel and consonant reduction can be formed as a reference for both English teachers and learners. The functions of this model are for alternative approach of communication and comprehension.

According to Çelik (2008) "The goal of native-like pronunciation should be abandoned..." (p.162) Many elder English learners in non-native speaking countries might have the same reflection because standard-like pronunciation is difficult to build in non-native speaking environments. Even though they might spend a lot of time and money on correcting their articulation habits, their accents usually are still there and the way of how their pronunciations remain to be non-native like and they are not standard.

Jenkins (2000, 2002) mentions that a "**Lingua Franca Core**" for pronunciation can work out to enable non-native speakers of English to communicate in their own communities. Similarly, Nihalani (1997) also argues that it is necessary that we form a model of pronunciation for International Language.

According to the linguist Crystal's (1998) prediction, English is becoming a **global language**, which means it should be applied as a mother tongue in many countries such as non-native speaking ones. From a sympathetic viewpoint, Jenkins (2000, 2002) and Nihalani (1997) state that trying to articulate in a **native-like** way by non-native speakers is not a realistic and achievable goal for adult learners in non-native speaking countries.

Therefore, both of them suggest that creation models of **phonological reduction** for native speakers should be significant and necessary. From this perspective, the researchers of this study deeply feel that it is their responsibility to create a model of Taiwanese learners, as they have taught English and done research as linguists for several years.

English in Singapore has been developed into a particular system of Singlish, which includes the accents of Chinese dialects of Hokkien, Teochew, Cantonese and Malay peoples. As it can be observed, people in Singapore speak Singlish very fluently and quickly, which is based on a certain

type of **phonological** system with many accuracy reductions in vowels and consonants. It is maturely formed and evolved since Singapore has been using English as their official language for a long time.

Actually, the **phonological reduction** framework can be easily found in Singlish, which has become a customary form of pronunciation in Singapore. In a globalized world, when English might be becoming an important language as a mother tongue like David Crystal has predicted, the systemized model of phonological reduction like pronunciations in Singlish might appear in many nations.

English has been a major subject in foreign-language education in Taiwan; therefore, many people are able to communicate and apply English for different purposes. They may use it for traveling, for international conferences and for doing international trade. However, it is not an official language, so the systemized **Englishes** in Taiwan has not been created by Taiwanese people. In this speedily globalized world, there is a need that the systematic phonological reduction should be provided and instructed for adult learners since they did not really receive sufficient English education when they were young, but they currently need to talk in English for their particular purposes under the trend of **globalization**.

For the above reason, the researchers of this study suggest that the **Pidginalization** of Chinese/Taiwanese English should be regarded as tolerable and acceptable, because the adult learners might not be able to achieve their English close to native like in a short time. When the elder generation is forced to accurately pronounce a language that is not their tongue, it might make that generation feel embarrassed since many sounds have been fossilized in the habits of pronunciation. This is the reason why this book emphasizes that some obstacles in vowels and consonants should be cast away with a framework of **pidginalized** pronunciation. In the later part of this chapter, an example system for Taiwanese people who speak Mandarin, Holo, Hakka, and tribe languages, will be introduced and provided.

3. Bilingual Phonology in the Age of Globalization

Grosjean (1982) estimated that about half the world's population is bilingual. Therefore, more or less, many people speak English with accents which influence the "intelligibility" of their speeches. Smith and Rafiqzad have provided definition for the term "intelligibility" in phonology as the "...capacity for understanding a word or words when spoken/read in the context of a sentence being spoken/read at natural speed." (p. 61) Their definition implies that there is possibly a

breakdown which makes the interaction stopped due to the vagueness caused by phonological errors. “It is important to identify the extent to which intelligibility in native and non-native speakers’ interaction can break down at the **phonological** level.” (Çelik, 2008, p. 164)

Investigation for the most advantageous number of phonological features can be called bilingual phonology. That is to say, researchers of bilingual phonology should try to explore, besides the overlapping **phonetics** in the speakers’ universal language structure, how many other native-speaking like vowels and consonants that the non-native speakers can articulate. When the linguists need to adopt a systematic formula for high rate speaking and natural tone of **pidginized English** in Taiwan, how they can make the most judicious decision and create the model of phonological reduction? Which phonetics must be reserved and which ones need to be ignored in order to help speakers facilitate their communication?

This chapter argues that a better model should be researched and developed if any linguist has time and budget to build an updated one. According to Meskhi (2002) “**Phonology** is a branch of linguistics that studies phonemes or the sounds of a language in abstraction, i.e. sounds differentiated from their concrete realizations in speech. The major characteristic or function of phonemes is their differentiating or sense distinctive function.” (p. 5) In order to reserve the correct meanings and realizations from the sounds, the researchers of this study suggests that the model of facilitating pronunciation for the speakers should not too far deviate from the Standard English. The alternative model of articulation should be not only unproblematic for articulation but also understandable. The model in the following might be the most updated one in Taiwan.

4. Phonological Reduction Model

Phonological Reduction defined in this chapter from perspectives of Sociolinguistics and English as an International Language means that the number and accuracy of the phonetics in Standard English, including British and American English in general, can be reduced due to the non-native speakers’ need of applying English in real communication. It contains vowel reduction and consonant reduction. The following tables are created through the methods of comparison and contrast between **phonological systems** of United Kingdom (UK) and American Pronunciation (AP).

The third item TP/MP means the suggested reduced **phonological** system that the teachers and adult learners can adopt from UK and AP systems, or adapt them into a **pidginized** system. Since Taiwan is an area that was colonized by Japanese, some of the following examples might consider

about the Japanese pronunciation. Through strategies of adopting varieties from firstly, free variation, secondly, collapsing difficult sounds and finally, generalizing vowels/consonants varieties, the following models are developed and proposed.

If two sounds occur in the same setting, they do not create a diverse word form. They are merely a dissimilar articulation of the same word. This can happen in pronunciations between British English and American English. In order to create a model of phonological reduction for Taiwanese, dissimilarity as well as one of the variations closer to Taiwanese and Mandarin should be adopted.

Table I: Free Variations between UK and AP

<u>Examples</u>	<u>UK</u>	<u>AP</u>	<u>TP/MP</u>	<u>Consonant/Vowel</u>
Tomato	/ tə'mato /	/ tə'meito /	/ to'mato /	Vowel Reduction
Dance	/ da:ns /	/ dæns /	/ da:ns / or /dɛns /	Vowel Reduction
War	/ wɔ /	/ wɔr /	/ wɔ /	Consonant Reduction
So	/ səʊ /	/ so /	/ so /	Vowel Reduction
Goal	/ gəʊl /	/ goʊl /	/ go /	V&C Reductions
Lot	/ lot /	/ lat /	/ lat /	Vowel Reduction
Pure	/ pjʊə /	/ pjʊr /	/ pjʊə / (Japanese)	Consonant Reduction
Curtain	/ 'kə tən /	/ 'kɜr tən /	/ ka'den /	Vowel Consonant and Intonation Reductions
Often	/ 'ɒf tən /	/ 'o,fən /	/ 'o,fən /	Consonant Cluster Reduction
Contest	/ 'kɒn,tɛst /	/ 'kʌn,tɛst /	/ 'kʌn,tɛs /	Consonant Cluster Reduction

4. 1 Collapsing Complicated Sounds

The communication strategy of approximation is applied in pronunciation. When a learner encounters the difficult phoneme, an approximate sound can be applied to keep the communication smooth (Faerch & Kasper, 1983). The bilingual phonology in “Collapsing Close Sounds” recommends that difficult **phonetics** be replaced with the easier ones. The following below are the suggestions.

Table II: Collapsing Complicated Sounds

<u>Complicated</u>	<u>UK</u>	<u>AP</u>	<u>TP/MP</u>	<u>Consonant/Vowel</u>
<u>Examples</u>				
Apple /æ/	/ 'a,pol /	/ 'æ,pl /	/ 'e,po /	Vowel & Consonant Reductions
Early /ɜr/	/ 'ɜ:,lɪ/	/ 'ɜr,lɪ/	/ 'ə,lɪ/	Vowel & Consonant Reductions
Thick /θ/	/ θɪk /	/ θɪk /	/fɪk /	Consonant Reduction
Usually /z/	/ 'ju,ʒəlɪ/	/ 'ju,ʒəlɪ/	/ 'ju,dʒəlɪ/	Consonant Reduction
This /ð/	/ ðɪs /	/ ðɪs /	/ zɪs /	Consonant Reduction

4. 2 Generalization of Vowels Varieties

In order to avoid difficulties in vowels, generalization strategy should be applied. The teachers should work as a consultant and give suggestions to the learners which vowels are interchangeable. Between different pronunciations in the United Kingdom and North America, a simpler sound should be applied. Simply speaking with five major vowels spelled by “A, E, I, O, U,” all vowels with tiny articulating-position differences can be accepted.

Table III: Generalization of Vowels Varieties

<u>Examples</u>	<u>UK</u>	<u>AP</u>	<u>TP/MP</u>	<u>Consonant/Vowel</u>
<u>needs</u>			<u>Replacements</u>	
<u>Generalizations</u>			<u>with</u>	
			<u>Approximations</u>	
'Baggage /æ/	/ a /	/æ/	/ a /	Vowel Reduction
Shopping /o/	/ o /	/ a /	/ a /	Vowel Reduction
Utter / ʌ /	/ ʌ /	/ ʌ /	/ a /	Vowel Reduction
Machine /ə/	/ ə /	/ ə /	/ a /	Vowel Reduction
Stop / ʌ /	/ ʌ /	/ ʌ /	/ a /	Vowel Reduction
Talk / ɔ /	/ ɔ /	/ ɔ /	/ o /	Vowel Reduction
Pole / ɔ /	/ ɔ /	/ ɔ /	/ o /	Vowel Reduction
Stolen / ɔ /	/ ɔ /	/ ɔ /	/ o /	Vowel Reduction
This / ɪ /	/ ɪ /	/ ɪ /	/ i /	Vowel Reduction
Is / ɪ /	/ ɪ /	/ ɪ /	/ i /	Vowel Reduction

4. 3 Generalization of Consonants varieties

For the sake of keeping away from intricacies in consonants, the speakers can resort to generalization strategy, which replaces the rigid **phoneme** with a simpler one. Through examining the individuals' characteristics of difficulties with the phonetic alphabet list in Appendix, the consultant should find a facilitating phone for the speaker's problematic **phoneme**. Consonant difficulties might be more complex due to each person's various types of oral structures and abilities. The following table is provided to replace phonemes that do not exist in Taiwanese/Mandarin phonetic list.

Table IV: Generalization of Consonants varieties

<u>Examples</u>	<u>UK</u>	<u>AP</u>	<u>TP/MP</u>	<u>Consonant/Vowel</u>
<u>needs</u>			<u>Replacements</u>	
<u>Generalizations</u>			<u>with</u>	
	/ v /	/ v /	/ b /	Consonant
Victory				Reduction
Theatre	/ θ /	/ θ /	/ s /	Consonant
				Reduction
Those	/ ð /	/ ð /	/ z /	Consonant
				Reduction
Raise	/ r /	/ r /	/ l /	Consonant
				Reduction
Initial	/ ʃ /	/ ʃ /	/ s /	Consonant
				Reduction

The learning objective of a non-native speaker can not become a native-like speaker due to the fact that their own way influenced by mother tongue of articulation and cultural customs need to be reserved and respected. Thus, this study argues that above formula of phonological reduction can be instructed to learners, especially when adult learners have an urgent need of interacting in English. Moreover, they are more unlikely to be able to articulate native-likely. Çelik (2008) recognizes that pursuing native-like way of pronunciation might not be possible:

The conception of an ego-centric prescription of authentic language use, or real English, primarily designed for use by immigrants in English speaking countries, has recently been challenged extensively for various reasons, ranging from inadequacies of target language culture application in the classroom to the utopian and unrealistic nature of expectations from the learners and to the impossibility of the acquisitions of native speaker phonological systems in non-English speaking countries. (p. 162)

To sum up, for elder learners in Taiwan to perform English knowledge for particular needs in a

globalized world, articulating imperfectly with the format of phonological reduction should be a practical and alternative way of learning and applying English. Spending long years and trying to speak native-likely might be an ideal of Utopian for senior English learners, whose habits of articulation have been already **fossilized**.

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Appendix

THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET (2005)

CONSONANTS (PULMONIC)

	LABIAL		CORONAL				DORSAL			RADICAL		LARYNGEAL
	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Epi-glottal	Glottal
Nasal	m	ɱ	n			ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	ɴ			
Plosive	p b	ɸ β	t d			ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k ɡ	q ɢ		ʔ	ʕ
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Approximant		ʋ	ɹ			ɻ	j	ɰ				
Trill	ʙ		r						ʀ		ʀ	
Tap, Flap		ⱱ	ɾ			ɽ						
Lateral fricative			ɬ ɮ			ɮ̰	ɬ̰	ɮ̰				
Lateral approximant			l			ɭ	ʎ	ʟ				
Lateral flap			ɺ			ɻ̰						

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a modally voiced consonant, except for murmured *ɦ*. Shaded areas denote articulations judged to be impossible. Light grey letters are unofficial extensions of the IPA.

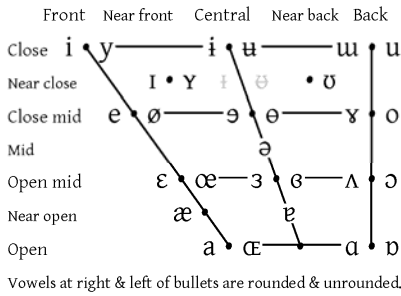
CONSONANTS (NON-PULMONIC)

Anterior click releases (require posterior stops)	Voiced implosives	Ejectives
ʘ Bilabial fricated	ɓ Bilabial	ʼ <i>Examples:</i>
ɰ Laminar alveolar fricated ("dental")	ɗ Dental or alveolar	ɸ' Bilabial
ɲ Apical (post)alveolar abrupt ("retroflex")	ʄ Palatal	t' Dental or alveolar
ɰ Laminar postalveolar abrupt ("palatal")	ɠ Velar	k' Velar
ɰ Lateral alveolar fricated ("lateral")	ɣ Uvular	s' Alveolar fricative

CONSONANTS (CO-ARTICULATED)

- ɱ Voiceless labialized velar approximant
- ʋ Voiced labialized velar approximant
- ɰ Voiced labialized palatal approximant
- ɕ Voiceless palatalized postalveolar (alveolo-palatal) fricative
- ʑ Voiced palatalized postalveolar (alveolo-palatal) fricative
- ɧ Simultaneous x and f (disputed)
- kp ts Affricates and double articulations may be joined by a tie bar

VOWELS



SUPRASEGMENTALS

- ' Primary stress
- ˈˈ Extra stress
- ˌ Secondary stress
- ː Long
- ˑ Short
- Syllable break
- INTONATION
- | Minor (foot) break
- || Major (intonation) break
- ↗ Global rise
- ↘ Global fall

TONE

- Level tones
- ˥ Top
- ˦ High
- ˧ Mid
- ˨ Low
- ˩ Bottom
- Tone terracing
- ↑ Upstep
- ↓ Downstep
- Contour-tone examples:
- ˥˩ Rising
- ˥˨ Falling
- ˥˩˨ High rising
- ˥˩˨˩ Low rising
- ˥˩˨˩˩ High falling
- ˥˩˨˩˩˩ Low falling
- ˥˩˨˩˩˩˩ Peaking
- ˥˩˨˩˩˩˩˩ Dipping

DIACRITICS

Diacritics may be placed above a symbol with a descender, as *ɲ̥*. Other IPA symbols may appear as diacritics to represent phonetic detail: *ʰ* (fricative release), *ʙʰ* (breathy voice), *ʔ* (glottal onset), *ə̯* (epenthetic schwa), *oʷ* (diphthongization).

SYLLABICITY & RELEASES	PHONATION	PRIMARY ARTICULATION	SECONDARY ARTICULATION
ɲ̥ ɻ̥	Syllabic	ɲ̥ ɻ̥	Voiceless or Slack voice
ɲ̥ ɻ̥	Non-syllabic	ɲ̥ ɻ̥	Modal voice or Stiff voice
ɲ̥ʰ ɻ̥ʰ	(Pre)aspirated	ɲ̥ʰ ɻ̥ʰ	Breathy voice
ɲ̥ᵐ	Nasal release	ɲ̥ᵐ ɻ̥ᵐ	Creaky voice
ɲ̥ˠ	Lateral release	ɲ̥ˠ ɻ̥ˠ	Strident
ɲ̥̚	No audible release	ɲ̥̚ ɻ̥̚	Linguolabial
ɲ̥̤	Lowered (β is a bilabial approximant)	ɲ̥̤ ɻ̥̤	Raised (ɻ̥ is a voiced alveolar non-sibilant fricative, ɻ̥ a fricative trill)
ɲ̥ᵂ ɻ̥ᵂ		ɲ̥ᵂ ɻ̥ᵂ	Dental
ɲ̥ᵀ ɻ̥ᵀ		ɲ̥ᵀ ɻ̥ᵀ	Apical
ɲ̥ᵁ ɻ̥ᵁ		ɲ̥ᵁ ɻ̥ᵁ	Laminar
ɲ̥ᵃ ɻ̥ᵃ		ɲ̥ᵃ ɻ̥ᵃ	Advanced
ɲ̥ᵄ ɻ̥ᵄ		ɲ̥ᵄ ɻ̥ᵄ	Retracted
ɲ̥ᵅ ɻ̥ᵅ		ɲ̥ᵅ ɻ̥ᵅ	Centralized
ɲ̥ᵆ ɻ̥ᵆ		ɲ̥ᵆ ɻ̥ᵆ	Labialized
ɲ̥ᵇ ɻ̥ᵇ		ɲ̥ᵇ ɻ̥ᵇ	Palatalized
ɲ̥ᵈ ɻ̥ᵈ		ɲ̥ᵈ ɻ̥ᵈ	Velarized
ɲ̥ᵉ ɻ̥ᵉ		ɲ̥ᵉ ɻ̥ᵉ	Pharyngealized
ɲ̥ᵑ ɻ̥ᵑ		ɲ̥ᵑ ɻ̥ᵑ	Velarized or pharyngealized
ɲ̥ᵒ ɻ̥ᵒ		ɲ̥ᵒ ɻ̥ᵒ	Mid-centralized
ɲ̥ᵓ ɻ̥ᵓ		ɲ̥ᵓ ɻ̥ᵓ	More rounded
ɲ̥ᵔ ɻ̥ᵔ		ɲ̥ᵔ ɻ̥ᵔ	Less rounded
ɲ̥ᵕ ɻ̥ᵕ		ɲ̥ᵕ ɻ̥ᵕ	Nasalized
ɲ̥ᵖ ɻ̥ᵖ		ɲ̥ᵖ ɻ̥ᵖ	Rhoticity
ɲ̥ᵑ ɻ̥ᵑ		ɲ̥ᵑ ɻ̥ᵑ	Advanced tongue root
ɲ̥ᵒ ɻ̥ᵒ		ɲ̥ᵒ ɻ̥ᵒ	Retracted tongue root

Chapter IV

Teaching Grammar and Vocabulary

English teachers have to establish powerful based knowledge of the ways in English sentences and organize them in an accurately grammatical way to express a meaning. Generally speaking, English grammatical rules originate from the dialects involved in English language. That is to say, English contains many dialects, each of which is constructed with its own unique features. Also, the major principles of sentence management in English **grammar** are shared by most of the local customs of dialects. Common rules of dialects can be generated into Standard English rules.

1. Grammar

Grammarians identify the relations of different kinds of parts to each other and find out the universal grammatical principles that are followed by most people on the earth; thus the grammar rules were established. Grammarians in the field of Linguistics and English teaching test a language to discover what kinds of speech units the writers or speakers are constructing might get into utterances and fragments. There are major three grammatical components of grammar.

From view of Roderick A. Jacobs' (1995) book *English syntax, A grammar for English language professionals*, they are 1. **syntax**, the **grammatical principles**, **units**, and relations involved in sentence structure, 2. **lexicon items**, the set of individual words, **suffixes**, and **prefixes**. Moreover, concepts of 3. **semantics**, the meanings associated with the lexicon of a idiom and with the units and relations in sentence structures, are also included in grammatical proficiencies. The above three components that construct grammatical structures need to interact in an ordered and systematical way. The grammatical rules decide how the orders in the sentences should be arranged. Jacob (1995) emphasizes the significance to grammar teaching as follows.

English teachers and other language professional need to e familiar with the grammar of English, grammar being understood as the analysis of the properties characterizing well-formed sentences of the language. The three crucial components of this grammar are **syntax**, the **lexicon**, and **semantics**. Other factors such as pragmatic knowledge influence

language structure, but for English it is useful to start by considering sentence structure and meaning independently of situations in which the sentences might be uttered. The propositional content of a sentence is the core meaning that it has independent of context. The major principles and properties noted are shared by the family of dialects we refer to as English. (p. 7)

How an English teacher teaches grammar depends not only on how well the teacher's grammatical competence is but also what **pedagogies** of the English teacher uses to conduct the grammatical teaching. Many English learners think learning English grammar is to learn a set of rules which are complex and hard to remember. The most different part of English from the other language is its grammatical structures and senses of tenses. English has a comparatively complexities of grammatical structure with tenses. To express the happening time in the sentence, a certain tense has to be used in the verb. Basically, there are nine tenses and two voices. In the category of present tense, there are simple present, present perfect, and present continuous tense. In future tense, there are simple future tense, future perfect and future continuous tense. Similar structures can be also found in the past tense such as simple past tense, past perfect, and past progress tenses. On the other hand, two voices include active voice and passive voice.

1. 1 An Example of Grammatical Teaching

In English language, there is a special type of **Modal Verbs**, including can/could, may/might, must, shall/should/ought to, will/would. Modal verbs come before and modify the *major verb* in a sentence and make clear ideas like *opportunity*, *requirement*, or *compulsion*. The following are several **modal verbs** and their functions.

Might is for saying uncertainty about the present *or* future. For example "I might go to the library tomorrow. "Can is for expressing capability *or* likelihood. For example, "I can speak French and Japanese," or, "Language learners can gain higher input when feeling relaxing and confident." Moreover, if the speakers want to *ask permission* or *make a request*, they can say "Can you come and visit me next week?"

Should is for expressing obligation. For example, "I should go to school and discuss with my classmate for my English quiz," or probability, as in, "The books should arrive tomorrow, because I

order it last Wednesday.” It also has a function for giving suggestions. “I think your hard work should make your future bright.”

Must is for displaying necessity or obligation. For example, “I must go to the hospital and see my grandmother tonight. The modal “Must” also gives powerful recommendation. “You must not drink before driving.” English **modal auxiliary verbs** that have contrast meanings can be like “You must be here at 10 AM” (compulsion)”in contrast with "You do not have to be here in the morning" (freely and optionally).

English has a characteristic that includes articles. Articles of English contain the definite article “the” and the indefinite article “a, an.” In grammatical rules of article, nouns might need or must with or without an article. The article of English is quite different from articles of Chinese, which imply expresses the function, the shape or the materials of the related noun. Depending on the **vowel** and **consonant** pronunciations for the first sound of the noun, “a and an” thus can be decided.

1. 2 A Grammatical Curriculum

In order to design a curriculum focusing on grammatical instruction, the following general grammatical rules are proposed by Schwager and Campbell (2003). In their published text book titled *Better English in 30 minutes a Day*, ten chapters of grammatical regulations are emphasized.

First of all, a good English teacher should teach how to identify nouns. How about a noun in a sentence a common or proper noun? “Common nouns are usually capitalized except at the beginning of a sentence.” (Schwager & Campbell, 2003, p. 1) However, the first alphabet of proper nouns should be capitalized. Moreover, the usages for singular and plural nouns, possessives, personal pronouns, reflexive pronouns should be mentioned in the very beginning of the grammatical curriculum.

Second, how to identify the usage of verbs and tenses should be taught to English learners.

Every sentence must have a verb to describe the action of the subject. Since the subject and the verb are the two most important parts of a sentence, learning to recognize verbs is essential to your progress in becoming a better writer. (Schwager & Campbell, 2003, p. 23)

English learners should learn the usages of present and past tenses, action verbs, linking verbs, past tense, irregular verbs, principal forms of verbs, auxiliary verbs, adverbs, contractions, future tense, perfect tenses, conditional tense and tense shifting.

Thirdly, basic sentence structure should be conveyed to our language learners. That is to say, typical sentence patterns of English should be displayed. For example,

The subject of a sentence is the person or the thing the person or the thing the verb is asking or telling about. The subject may be a noun or a pronoun. Every sentence must have at least one subject and one verb and express a complete thought. (Schwager & Campbell, 2003, p. 49)

From the perspective of learning standard English, without consideration of learning Pragmatics or Sociolinguistics, the usages of sentence structural items, such as subjects and verbs, commands and requests, prepositional phrases, direct objects of action verbs, pronouns used as subjects and objects, compound subjects, objects, and contractions should be taught in the English classroom.

Fourthly, how to expand the sentence through different ways should be an important lecture in grammatical teaching. For example, a sentence can be added details with adjectives. Moreover, there are different points when practicing adjectives, such as kinds of adjectives, position of adjectives, special forms of adjectives, punctuating adjectives before a noun, and comparison of adjectives.

Adverbs also can be proposed to expand a sentence. A good teacher should tell his/her English learners how to add details in a sentence with adverbs. Where can a adverbs be positioned? What are the functions of different types of adverbs?

The fifth point of the suggested curriculum is the main clauses in grammatical training. Based on Schwager and Campbell's (2003) interpretation:

When you studied prepositional phrases and verbal phrases, you learned that a phrase is a group of related words without a subject and a verb. A group of related words with a subject and a verb is called a clause. There are two kinds of clauses, main and subordinate. To identify a main clause, look first for the verb and then for the subject. The main clause, look first for

the verb and then for the subject. The main clause can stand alone as a sentence if the first word is capitalized and the clause ends with a mark of punctuation such as a period or a question mark. The main clause may also contain words or phrases in addition to the verb and the subject. (p. 95)

English learners should learn how to identify main clauses, and connect main clauses with the simple sentence and the compound sentence. What are the functions of a joining main clauses and punctuation when connecting main clauses? Why a good sentence created through clauses should follow the parallel structure?

According to Schwager and Campbell's (2003), the usage of subordinate clauses is isolated as an important lesson of learning grammatical rules. "A main clause is a group of words with a subject and a verb. It is called a simple sentence when the first word is capitalized and it ends with a period, a question mark, or an exclamation point." (p.111) The agreement is the most significant principle in English grammar, so that this point is introduced as a lesson. "Identifying the subject and the verb is the first step in correcting subject-verb agreement errors. The verb agrees in person and number with its subject." (Schwager and Campbell, 2003, p. 129)

Moreover, commas are complex and hard to understand for beginners. The applications can be 1. for coordinating connectives between main clauses, 2. separating adjectives before a noun, 3. enclosing words that interrupt, 4. setting off words in direct address, setting off nonessential words, setting off direct quotations, indicating geographical names, and addresses...etc.

Punctuations and capitalization are also important for grammatical learning. In English, period, question mark, exclamation point, semicolon, colon, quotation marks, hyphen and dash can be applied in structuring sentences. And some capital letters should be always capitalized, such as the first alphabet of a sentence, the first alphabet of a person's first name or last name, the personal pronoun, I, the first alphabet of names of continents, countries, nationalities, states, cities, bodies of water, places, and streets, the first alphabet of the names of the days of week, months, holidays, and the first alphabet of the names of commercial products, the names of companies, organizations, government agencies and offices, the title of a persons, books, magazines, newspapers, articles, stories, poems, films, television shows, songs, papers, schools, colleges, and so on.

Last but not the least, words that sound alike sometimes are difficult for learners who have less opportunity to read English. Many words sound the same; nevertheless, they have different usages and meanings. For example, accept/except, affect/effect, already/all ready, Its/It's, Know/No, Personal/Personnel, principal/ principle, quiet/quite...etc. Schwager and Campbell (2003) emphasize that "Words that sound alike or look alike can cause many problems in spelling." (p. 191)

2. Vocabulary

In English language, there are diverse formats in its vocabulary, such as **phrasal verbs** and **word derivation**. Phrasal verbs may not be easy for English learners to learn since they have more than one or two expressions and multiple syntactic patterns. Phrasal verbs can be applied in distinct ways between American and British English. They are usually two-word phrases consisting of verb + adverb or verb + preposition. For example, ask someone out means invite, blow up means explode, break down means the function and working are stopped.

Schmitt Norbert and Marsden Richard (2006) note that the number of English lexicon is huge, which is basically from Old English and from the Norman combination of Latin-derived terms. This explains why English learners usually have to spend long several years mastering English. In order to accumulate sufficient words in mind and establish vocabulary proficiency, some scholars have proposed pedagogies of teaching and learning.

Based on Zhang's (2009) research, "There is evidence that semantic prosody, a novel linguistic theme, should attract much attention in ESL/EFL (English as a second/foreign language) word learning and teaching." Research suggests that inappropriate word choice arising from ignorance of semantic prosody is frequent among ESL/EFL learners. To pay sufficient attention to this issue, Zhang introduces the notion of semantic prosody and provides an overview of studies of semantic prosody from five perspectives: "**monolingualistic**," "**cross-linguistic**," "**register**," "**lexicographical**," and "**interlinguistic**." From the perspective of semantic prosody, language learners should be able to make themselves integrate into an immersing environment of whole-English.

From views of globalization trend, Lin (2009) emphasized that interlinguistic type of communication through simplified vocabulary can be applied in order to make compensation of limited vocabulary accumulations. Four strategies of communication can be utilized to facilitate

words in order to communicate in a fluent way. In her book, *A Case Study about Communication*, “code-switching,” “paraphrasing,” “restructuring,” and “coinage new words” are proposed.

3. Interactive Approaches for Vocabulary Teaching

The following section introduces a teaching project of writing that argues the issue of interactive approach. Vocabulary acquisition research has been paid attention these years (e.g. Beck, McKeown & McCaslin, 1983; Harley, 1996; Huckin, Haynes, & Coady, 1993; Zahar, Cobb & Spada, 2001). A series of methodologies have been reported, including applying learner dictionaries (Nesi, 1999; Tribble, 2003), using forms of visual glossing (Al-Seghayer, 2001), and so on. This study argues that because the research of vocabulary teaching methods do not have a long history, as Read (2004) mentions, English teachers should pay additional efforts in learning how to raise our students’ vocabulary proficiencies through updated ways that have been provided to be effective.

3.1 Introduction

This study aims to investigate the **pedagogies** of language vocabulary. In addition, it reports the authors’ perceptions for specialized and modernized techniques of teaching vocabulary through interactive approaches that River (2000) suggests and provides the results of a research plan conducted at National Sun Yat-sen University, Kaohsiung, Taiwan where twenty-six learners learned higher-intermediate level vocabularies in a required general English course.

In the class of twenty-six students, the researcher as well as the trainer applied teacher-centered audio-lingual in the first two months and student-student interactive approaches to vocabulary teaching in the later two months (the third and the fourth month). The statistical results showed that the twenty-six students’ performance of memorizing the higher-level vocabularies was significantly different before and after the treatments of **student-centered interactive approaches**. The results of this study imply that teacher-centered approaches should be replaced by student-centered approaches and interactive strategies when teaching vocabulary.

Pedagogies of teaching vocabulary are important under the trend of **globalization** in the past two decades. In the increasing international situations resulted from frequent international interaction for various purposes, the adult language learners’ vocabulary accumulations are confronting a condition of being tested. That is to say, the Taiwanese English learners’ vocabulary proficiency would be examined due to the unavoidable worldwide contract caused by the **globalization**. How can our English communication be carried out in an appropriate, understandable, and a smooth formal way? Vocabulary teaching would contribute to this point if

someone is asking this question that should be considered seriously since it is directly associated with the real world.

This study argues that under the **trend of globalization**, English teachers, especially who are teaching adult learners in universities should fully apply the updated interactive approaches in order to teach their students English vocabulary. The reason is that their students are going to enter the real international societies, where comprehensible and fluent communication should be applied through sufficient vocabulary.

If English teachers are not able to face the challenge of globalization trend, their students will encounter uncertainty when they need to communicate with the right words. Also, the high school education might prove to be unsuccessful. This study argues that in order to accommodate with the **trend of globalization**, university teachers should figure out a dynamic way of teaching vocabulary for their students to really apply and make compensations for traditional vocabulary pedagogies.

3. 2 Vocabulary Pedagogy as a Significant Area

These years, a number of researchers have devoted themselves to the techniques of vocabulary teaching and learning (e.g., Huang & Liou, 2007; Hunt & Beglar, 1998; Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999; Jassaji, 2004). Moreover, Zahar, Cobb and Spada (2001) mentioned that concentration on **second language vocabulary acquisition** (SLVA) has developed speedily in the last ten years. While L2 vocabulary acquisition research is no longer “a neglected area,” (Meara, 1980) a lack of subjective resources for teaching methods of vocabulary remain to a problem in the field of teaching English due to the short history of research concerning the topic of vocabulary **pedagogy**. Hence, this study recommends an interactive approach of teaching vocabulary to the readers and hopefully, the updated teaching strategies can be applied in this article.

3. 3 Interactionism for Vocabulary Pedagogy

Interactionism applied in language teaching has been mentioned by many researchers (e.g. River, 2000). This type of interactive methods argues that the foreign language growth and social and community growth are directly related to each other and that one cannot be comprehended without each other. According to the professor of Harvard University, River (2000) “...Linguistic interaction is a collaborative activity involving the establishment of a triangular relationship between the sender, the receiver and the context of situation.” (River, 2000, p. 4; Wells, 1981, p. 46-7)

Through the interactions, the interlocutors gain an opportunity to double check the meaning in the vocabulary of communication, to reconfirm their expressed meaning being received by the listeners, and to make sure that their patterns of languages can be regarded as appropriate in their society and community. It is important that not only the **interactions** of communication express the speakers' intended meaning, but also the interlocutors can convey in a way that the content of the speaking is understandable and suitable based on the intergroup members' social identity.

Integrationists are "Researchers who believe in interactions focus on the social context of language development and how the relationship between the language learner and the persons with whom he or she interacts influences language acquisition." (Richards, Platt, Platt, 1998) After a series of interacting activities in the target language, the interlocutors should be able to make progress in vocabulary, since the **interactants** need to understand each other's words in order to continue the communication. Hence, this study agrees to above scholars' suggestions that **interactions** should be an effective way of teaching and learning vocabulary.

3. 4 Interacting Formats of Group Work and Pair Work

This study argues that several modernized and updated language pedagogies should be applied to teach vocabulary. Based on River's (1987, 2000) theory, she suggests that small group work would be an ideal type of **interaction**. In her book, *Interactive Language Learning* (River, 1987, 2000) Professor River suggested that interacting activities can be controlled through two forms of interactions, which are small group work and pair work. Within the formats of small group work, gathering information and gate-keeping are two functions that group work can offer.

Furthermore, in pair work activities, behaviors of finding key sentences, discourse role play and the helping encounter can be easily and effectively proceeded. The following parts will explain with details why the interacting formats can function in diverse effectual and resourceful ways for English learning as well as for the vocabulary teaching and learning.

3. 5 Function of Gathering Information through Group Work

"Students in group of three or four then discuss in the foreign language "the three or four most important points to remember in this unit" or "some unresolved questions" (River, 1987, 2000, p. 26). Participants in a small group can learn and cooperate to collect information and knowledge that they are not familiar with. It is convenient for them to hold a seminar inside or outside of the classroom in order to have brainstorming, debate, and resolve problems that an individual is not able to solve independently.

This format of talking can provide functions of gathering lexical resources of certain topics, preparing three or four arguments for or against a subject to be debated with another small group, and solving a given difficulty that requires a group conversation. In light of what mentioned above, group work might be the best pedagogy which provides students with a humanized and effective learning environment, where they can learn with their peers, exchange ideas with group or pair members and resort assistance from their classmates.

3. 6 Function of Gate-keeping through Group Work

Learning with the method of interaction is a good training of participating in the meetings or conference participations in the society. If interactions take place, it must be conducted and controlled based on culturally proper principles of turn-taking or certain patterns of topic assignment. A person can not speak in whatever way s/he likes in the public with a way s/he likes to talk with family or relatives at home. Interaction types of training will provide an opportunity for the interlocutors to learn what forms of talking are suitable ways of talking with a gate-keeper in a group. It would be more formal and peaceful in a group of interaction, if a controller as well as a **gate-keeper** can be selected.

Whenever discussions must be conducted according to culturally appropriate rules of turn-taking or certain forms of topic management, one student per group is assigned the role of gatekeeper. This student makes sure everyone has a say, helps others elaborate their turns, keeps track of time, and performs similar tasks. (River, 1987, 2000, p. 26)

With a **gate-keeper**, maybe a leader of the group, or just anyone who would like to take care of related issues, inside the group of three, four or five, these kinds of group interactions make students learn in a way that they are able to assess each others' levels of vocabulary applied in the interacting activity. They feel more secure since the ranks of word used are comparable and they also obtain an opportunity to be taught by their group members.

3. 7 Function of Discourse Play and Finding a Key Sentence through Pair Work

According to many scholars, activities in pair are the most effective way in English learning (e.g., Storch, 2007; Wigglesworth & Storch 2009; Yoshida, 2008). Numerous English teaching experts have emphasized the value of role play in formats of interacting (e.g., Brash & Warnecke, 2009; Carlson, 2009; Powell, 2009; Sung & Hsu, 2009).

For teaching and learning of writing, speaking or vocabulary, assigning language learners to learn in pairs is a way because it can give pair members to clarify the content of interactions and know the partners' intended meanings in vocabulary in a more expedient fashion. For example, Wigglesworth and Storch (2009) recommend it in this way, "...A detailed analysis of the pair transcripts recorded during the writing activity provides insights into the ways in which pairs work together, and the foci of their endeavor." (p. 445)

After working hard together, two persons in a team will have their clear resolution for discussed topics. Storch (2007) also agrees with the contribution of **pair work** in language learning although its effectiveness might not show in learning English grammar "...**pair work** provides learners with opportunities to use the second language for a range of functions, and in turn for language learning." (p. 143) Moreover, Yoshida's (2008) study suggests the importance of learners' understanding corrective feedback and their satisfaction with their roles in their interactions during pair work. In River's statement, pair work should make available best function in finding the key sentence.

Pairs of students are assigned the same paragraph of a given text. They have to read it silently, check each other's understanding, and agree on and underline one key sentence that best conveys the intend of the passage. Comparison and justification of the underlined sentences among the groups serve as a basis for a whole-class interpretation of the paragraph. (p. 27)

As it can be seen, when teaching vocabulary in certain sentences to language learners, the pairs must be assigned in the classroom in order to make students have an environment where closer distances are between the learners. Therefore, they can hear their partners more loudly and read the focused sentences in a clearer way. In other words, the vagueness of the focused learning item can be more obvious in the interaction of pair work. The reactions stimulated from sounds can be

perceived by the speakers and the receivers in pairs.

In addition, the applied **semantic usages** can be examined and learned in pairs. Indeed, pair discussion should be conducted in learning and teaching vocabulary, since the meanings of words in sentences would be passed on to each other, sounds of words demonstrated for each other and semantic usage interpreted for the pair members to study.

3. 8 Function of Helping Encounter through Pair Work

Watanabe (2008) conducted an experiment of learners' encountering situations through pair work. Her data showed that,

...the higher- and the lower-proficiency peers could both provide opportunities for learning when they worked collaboratively. Moreover, all three learners preferred to work with a partner who "shared many ideas," regardless of their proficiency level. These findings suggest that proficiency differences are not the decisive factor affecting the nature of peer assistance. Rather, the pattern of interaction co-constructed by learners may have greater impact. (p. 605)

When students are provided an assessment to discuss with their pair partner, they usually will learn in a more inspiring and motivating way. Following Professor River's suggestion in her book, *Interactive Language Teaching*, this study proposes that students can be assigned into pairs and learn each other's education and life backgrounds. At the same time, they should learn new vocabulary from their partners who are able to present more different types of vocabulary when introducing their diverse experiences of daily and school lives.

The above theoretical foundations provided by scholars in field of **Interactive Approaches** imply that the peers should be able to improve in a similar step. Also, the language learners should have an access to know their classmates' levels of English. They should learn to have compassion in learning and have sympathy for their lower-level classmates through interactions which have functions of teaching classmates, learning from peers and exchanging ideas with them.

Hence, the trainer as well as one of the researchers of this study tried to combined vocabulary teaching with cooperative language learning method stated by Crandall (1999) and **Interactive Approaches** stated by River (1987, 2000) and Shoemaker and Shoemaker (1991) to train her students as well as the adult language learners. It is anticipated through the teacher's role as the controller and students' roles as community members, the students would be able to interact and

cooperate with each other in an effective fashion when they are learning vocabulary.

One important question which remains unresolved concerns whether a functional reading lexicon in a second language itself can be acquired through reading (Nagy, 1997), or is more likely to result from some kind of direct teaching or instructionally enhanced reading. This question actually is asking us how to what level and how well a learner should be qualified from perspectives of her/his personal lexical list in order to learn and make progress by her/himself and also to smoothly apply English in reading and speaking in daily life. Moreover, if most of the learners' progress results from the teacher's training, is it possible that learners can automatically accumulate new vocabulary by themselves without the teacher's instructions?

Zahar, Cobb and Spada (2001) have provided their answers to this question. Zahar, Cobb and Spada (2001) declare that one part of the answer to this question depends on what is meant a functional reading lexicon, i.e. the minimal recognition vocabulary knowledge needed to facilitate reading comprehension. Moreover, the other part of the answer depends on how many words learners can be expected to acquire in a given period of time and whether there is any reliability at this learning rate.

Based on the above two answers as well as the factors of functional reading lexicon, and reliability of learning rate, the researchers in this study would like to firstly, investigate how many words is a student's basic quantity for comprehending a general reading article, making progress on his/her own and delivering a common conversation in daily life. Second, this study will explore how many words learners can reasonably be expected to absorb in a certain period of time.

Based on previous studies (e.g., McCarthy, 2003) , it is concluded that two-thousand words families have been widely accepted as the amount of basic vocabulary in a learner's lexical list if he/she would like to interact and read without too many blocks. Since these two-thousand words are statically measured as the most frequently appearing words in reading and spoken languages, the minimal recognition vocabulary knowledge needed to facilitate reading comprehension should be the most used 2000 words. To sum up, if a learner has a list of two-thousand words in his/her lexical list, he/she will be able to recognize more words and acquire functional lexicon when reading or listening.

Furthermore, Schmitt and Zimmerman (2002) offer apparent confirmations that university ESL learners should have partial knowledge of the generated forms from stem words (e.g., persistent, persistently, and persistence from persist). This means that to some extent the learners also need to be familiar with other members of a word root family. For that reason, the two-thousand and

three-thousand words statistics significantly understated the actual number of words that need to be learned in some sense.

On the other hand, how many words a student can absorb as well as the rate of learning provides an answer for students who can automatically learn by themselves. When a student is reading if she/he can learn vocabulary at the same time and how well she/he can learn. To this part of Zahar, Cobb and Spada's (2001) answer to automatically acquiring and developing **lexical proficiency**, a British study conducted by Milton and Meara (1995) revealed that language learners learning in the non-native speaking background could learn at a rate of two-thousand and five hundred words each year, while the tempo of those studying in classrooms at home in the native-speaking countries was only about five hundreds and fifty.

Besides, Horst, Cobb and Meara (1998) revealed that after reading, participants can typically select a definition for a little more than one out of every twelve words tested. This implies that after reading each time, a learner might be able to absorb twelve words. Based on above theories, this study brings to a close that a learner should be able to self-study and gain around two-thousand and a hundred ninety words, as well as the basic lexical list that a person should have through reading and absorbing twelve words every two days. The formula can be revealed as follows.

$365 \text{ days} \times \frac{1}{2} \text{ (every two days)} \times 12 \text{ (learning words after each reading occasion)} = 2190$
words.

4. Methodology

This study was conducted in a required general English course at National Sun Yat-sen University, where twenty-six students learned English through reading their textbook, *Interactions 2: Reading*, Silver edition, by Pamela Hartmann and Elaine Kirn (Publisher: New York: McGraw-Hill, 2007). The students' performance of vocabulary quizzes in the first two month and the later two month was measured and compared. In the first two weeks, the trainer applied traditional direct teaching to convey the meaning of the words in the reading content without any treatment. Through directly narrate the contexts in the reading textbook, the lecture provided the meaning to the words that were new to the twenty-six freshmen from different colleges at National Sun Yat-sen University.

4. 1 Interactive Approaches Applied

For the second session as well as the third and the fourth weeks in this study, the trainer applied **student-centered interactive approaches** and made students have opportunities to talk to each other when learning the new words. In this study, twenty-six adult students were divided into groups of four or five and were requested to apply the new vocabulary in discussions of writing transcripts in role plays. Two rows of scores through two different types of traditional and modernized treatments were compared by **T-test**. After testing by **Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS)**, the significant differences were revealed and showed the different effectiveness through two types of vocabulary teaching methods.

4. 2 Instruments of Measuring Scores

At the end of this study, the accuracy level of the students' applications for new words was observed and measured. Through the following criteria, twenty-six students' scores were statically measured, analyzed and concluded.

Table: Criterion Table for Applying Vocabulary in Role Play

Items of Scoring	Semantically	Pragmatically	Phonetically	Grammatically
Requirements for word application in role play	Meaning Accuracy for the Theme of Role Play	Applying Content Appropriately and Accurately	Pronunciation Accuracy for Measuring Spelling Ability	Grammatical Structure of Noun, Verb, Gerund,...etc correctly applied
Percentages	<i>40%</i>	<i>30%</i>	<i>20%</i>	<i>10%</i>

4. 3 Significance of the Study

The study is significant since the history in the field of teaching vocabulary is not long. The results of this study will raise the English teachers' awareness of how different students can learn

through two types of different pedagogies. The significant difference will remind teachers when teaching vocabulary, the reciting or direct method can not be applied anymore since students can only assess high-frequently appearing words.

As to the new words, students can not comprehend immediately in class without hard preparation. The results of this study can contribute to the curriculum designer and the policy makers at universities.

4. 4 Research Setting

The twenty-six students were non-English majors at National Sun Yat-sen University, Kaohsiung, located in the southern part of Taiwan. These adult language learners around nineteen to twenty-three years old are freshmen from different colleges, including majors in Chinese Literature, Music, Computer Science, Biology, Drama Performance, etc. Most students have passed competitive joint entrance examinations after graduation in senior high schools, so that they can study in the top-level university in Taiwan.

In fact, the National Sun Yat-sen University is generally regarded as one of the best universities in Kaohsiung, and its reputation is often within the top ten choices of universities in Taiwan. For this class, in the whole general course curriculum, they were defined as higher-intermediate level as well as the second level compared with the whole population of the freshmen in a **placement test** when they entered the school. The students' first language was mostly Taiwanese, Hakka, and Mandarin. Very few students' mother tongues were dialects of Mainland China, such as dialect of Shanghai.

Sample Description The students were requested to take English courses and they have to achieve their proficiency to a certain required level in order to pass the criteria of graduation. For example, they need to pass either the **General English Proficiency Test (GEPT)** intermediate high level or the level of highest required English course, "English three-two level course." From the observation of the researchers, most students would rather take all the required English general courses than try to participate in the **General English Proficiency Test (GEPT)** test. The reason might be that they have gone through the competitive and intricate joint college entrance examination, so that they would not throw themselves into the anxious testing environment again.

Data Collection Students were given two quizzes at the end of first and second sessions of training. In the first two weeks, students were trained through direct method, which teacher gave lecture for the reading content and translated the meaning for the students without guiding students

to interact with each other. Students' scores of memorizing words in the first part as well as from the chapter one to chapter ten were measured through a simple quiz at the end of the training. Students were requested to answer the meanings of fifteen written words on the blackboard.

The data collection in the second session of training was more complicated. At the end of the study from the chapter one to chapter ten, students were asked to do the role play based on the content of the texts. Students' performance was video taped and their word applications were evaluated through the above criteria. For each student, two or three words were collected, transcribed into paper and analyzed. The final score of their quiz depended on the accuracy level of their understanding for meaning and the accuracy of pronunciation. The researchers of this study suggest that when the students can pronounce a word well, they would be able to spell the words.

4. 5 Research Questions

1. How well students can learn vocabulary through traditional direct method and updated **interactive approaches**? 2. How much students can improve their vocabulary proficiency after being taught by **interactive approaches**?

4. 6 Data Analysis

Two rows of students' grades after two types of language **pedagogies** were analyzed through **Statistic Package for Social Science (SPSS)**, which contribute to answers of the following issue. To what level is the difference between the traditional and modernized **pedagogies**? In order to identify the differences between the traditional and modernized **pedagogies**, **T-test** was applied to compare and contract students' academic performance in vocabulary learning. Through the graph analyzed and drawn by SPSS, the significant difference level can be revealed. If the number is closer to zero, it denotes that the significant difference level is high.

4. 7 Assumption

This study assumes that there might be obvious difference between two teaching methods, since the university should be motivated and study better through an interesting learning way in **role play**.

4. 8 Limitation

The study might be limited because the students might be able to become skilled in the first part better no matter what treatments were applied to them later.

5. Results of Statistical Analysis

The objectives of this study were to measure the effects of two periods of vocabulary training and to distinguish which session was more successful. This section reports the results of the data analysis, according to the statistical methods of **T-test** and two means comparison through box plots. **T-test** assesses whether the means of two groups are statistically dissimilar from each other. This method was regarded appropriate as the researchers needed to judge against the means of two groups.

Moreover, the box plots (also known as a box-and-whisker diagram or plot) is a convenient way of graphically depicting groups of numerical data through their five-number summaries (the smallest observation (sample minimum), lower quartile (Q1), median (Q2), upper quartile (Q3), and largest observation (sample maximum)). A box plot may also indicate which observations, if any, might be considered outliers (Wiki, 2009). In this study, the researchers applied two graphs of box plots to compare two means of teaching vocabulary with **interactive approaches** and without **interactive approaches**.

5.1 T-test for Comparing Two Groups of Scores

Based on the **T-test** graph, the analysis showed a statistically significant difference between two means of pedagogy applications. From the graph of T-test and the graph of two box plots, the results of two types of teaching vocabulary methods are significantly different.

According to twenty-six students' scores of two quizzes, the analysis showed that the different level of two means of 68.58 and 81.58 is 13 pints. From the significant number in the second graph we can see the p-value close to zero which means the different level is statistically significant. It is noted that small p-value (closer to 0) is a strong evidence against the null hypothesis. That is to say, null hypothesis of no difference is rejected based on the value as indicated in Graph II and Graph III.

Graph I. Paired samples statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	VAR00001	68.58	26	13.112	2.572
	VAR00002	81.58	26	11.154	2.187

Graph II. Paired samples correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	VAR00001 &	26	.868	.000
	VAR00002			

Graph III. Paired samples test

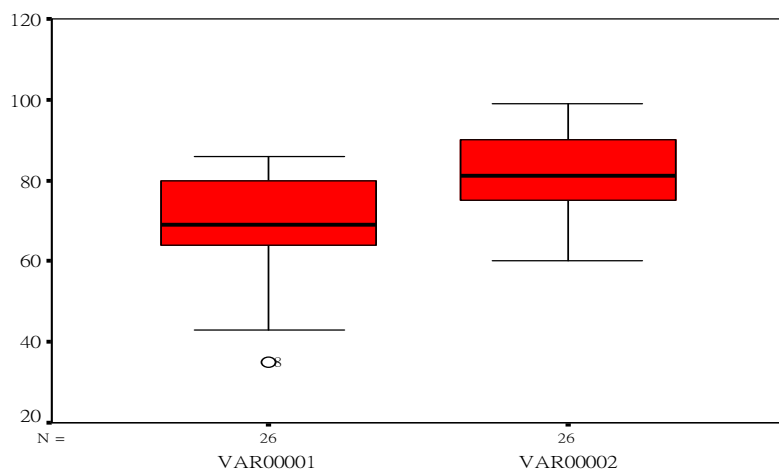
	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)		
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference						
				Lower	Upper					
Pair 1	AR00001	AR00002	-13.00	6.505	1.276	-15.63	-10.37	-10.190	25	.000

5. 2 Box-plots for Comparing Two groups of Scores

From the two box plots, we are able to see the obvious progress of learning and teaching English vocabulary of students. The researchers had developed a course suitable for the language learners. In the first quiz of vocabulary the grade mean showed obviously lower than the second mean analyzed from the adult students' second quiz of role play for practicing the usages of learned

vocabulary. The **interactive approaches** of vocabulary teaching and learning proved to be useful since the students had orally practiced the learned words, so that they were able to memorize them, apply them and demonstrate their understanding of the vocabulary in the quiz.

Graph IV. Comparison and contrast through two box plots



5.3 Traditional Direct Pedagogy of Teaching Vocabulary

When a passage contains countless demanding or thorny words, a lecturer may want to employ a variety of vocabulary **pedagogies**, such as translating and interpreting the new words, using meaningful pictures matching with the brand new words, and explaining the new vocabulary through idiom stories in context. Pre-teaching vocabulary and then reading the contents of the textbook are usual ways how English teacher teach new words. If there must be a more complex **pedagogy** of training, traditionally, English teachers teach vocabulary with the following pedagogies:

1. Demonstrating integration of teaching vocabulary and pronunciation;
2. Teaching both structure and meaning of the words;
3. Providing a stress on speech attentiveness and self-monitoring when using the word;
- and 4. A focus on the meaningful practice through doing drill exercises of making sentences.

However, this might be a painstaking pedagogy for adult students who are eager to accumulate ample amount of vocabulary for the use in the real world under the **trend of globalization**.

5. 4 Alternative Pedagogy of Using Caption Machine in Learning

Vocabulary

One of the more updated **vocabulary pedagogies** might be the one that Dogan Yuksel and Belgin Tanriverdi (2009) indicated in their study. They suggested that using caption machine to teach vocabulary through movie playing should be a feasible way. In their study, titled “Effects of watching captioned movie clip on vocabulary development of EFL learners,” they found that students watching movie with caption machine would have more acquisitions of vocabulary than students watching movie without caption machine.

Professor Huang and David Eskey’s (2000) similar study investigated the effects of closed captioned TV (CCTV) on the listening comprehension of intermediate ESL students. Their study revealed that captions improved not only college-level ESL students’ listening skills but also their general intellectual capacity and vocabulary development.

In summary, this study has revealed the significant differences between two types of vocabulary teaching methods. Moreover, it suggests that besides interactive approaches of role play, in the area of vocabulary teaching and learning alternative teaching methods be applied and tested. Several other updated vocabulary teaching methodologies can be applied and measured. For example, learning vocabulary through computer software has been suggested by many scholars (e.g., Beheydt, 1990). For instance, Groot (2000) explains a program called **Computer Assisted Vocabulary Acquisition** (CAVOCA). It is to accommodate and adapt to students’ learning, with the ultimate aim of supporting longer-term maintenance of functional words by presenting each one in several cautiously selected sentences and short texts. In fact, John Read (2004) also mentioned Ghadirian’s (2002) study, who provided his **Computer Assisted Vocabulary Acquisition** (CAVOCA) pedagogy, which is “...a program developed by Ghadirian (2002) to select and order a series of texts to allow for multiple exposures to a set of target words in contexts with mostly familiar vocabulary.” (p. 155)

6. Recommendation of Further Studies

From the perspective of the modern English teaching that apply many types of new created electrical devises, the **Computer Assisted Language learning** (CALL) for learning and teaching vocabulary might be another particular choice that can be regarded as a possible alternative to

especially adult language learners who have no sufficient time or appropriate conditions to gain knowledge of English vocabulary in a community surroundings due to their various difficulties.

Moreover, besides role play, group and pair discussions, what type of interactive pedagogies can be developed should be an even more essential issue. This study would like to emphasize that it is important for the English lecturers of adult language learners to help their students develop the vocabulary component through their language teaching program with dynamic and interesting activities.

An effective interactive pedagogy for teaching vocabulary is one that arouses the learners' motivation to interact with peers and makes the learners feel relaxed so that they are able to recall the words they have recited from primary school to junior and senior high schools. The major elements of a successful vocabulary course should be what River's (1987, 2000) emphasis of interactive approaches and what Krashen's (1983) emphasis of teaching and learning concerning the issue of the learner's confident attitude and relaxing emotion. The researchers in this study argue that interactive activities in diverse patterns should be developed and designed in order to help language learners gain an opportunity to demonstrate their vocabulary competence.

This study indicates how to create lexical sets that the language learners would feel motivated to learn is of great importance. How to present old material in new ways, how to extend knowledge of the connotation of terminologies, how to help learners become independent in the discussion, and how to ensure that learners can access and use the vocabulary they know are something what the further studies may need to investigate.

7. Conclusion

According to Read's (2004) article, language learners are able to learn vocabulary in ways of incidental and intentional learning. Incidental learning means that students read or listen to words in L2 and they acquire vocabulary naturally. In contrast, intentional learning occurs when students acquire word knowledge "...through activity that is primarily intended to enhance their vocabulary knowledge." (p. 147) The present study using interactive approach to teach vocabulary implies that the intentional **pedagogy** of vocabulary teaching and learning should be noticed despite the fact that Professor Read (2004) in Applied Language Studies and Linguistics at The University of Auckland mentioned incidental type of learning. He argues that teachers incorporate old ideas such as rehearsal of words, rote learning, and training in automatic word recognition along with task involvement.

Learning vocabulary is imperative since it is the foundation of knowing how to express with an adequate number of words. Students should have sufficient high frequency words in order to communicate. According to Read (2004), high frequency words mean the 2000 most frequent words in English count for at least 80% of running words in any written or spoken text. After the first 2000 word families, words can be chosen based on the goals of the students. On the basis of the results in this study, teaching and learning vocabulary through interactive approaches could facilitate the language learners to gain sub-technical and technical terms that they need to apply in different forms of communication.

The more dynamic approaches of teaching and learning vocabulary were delivered and recommended in this study. Although each word that the language learners should learn could be pronounced and recited by the teacher, nevertheless, they only would be able to assess several high-frequently appearing words. The methods adopted in this study are teaching demonstrations for cooperative approaches indicated by Crandall (1999) and the **interactive approaches** indicated by River (1987, 2000) and Brown (2001), which proved to be greatly more supportive for students' vocabulary learning. In this study, students' brainstorming, group interaction for writing role play transcripts, and role play stimulations were applied and proved to be constructive. In addition, the results of the students learning through special treatments much improved than without the interactive approaches.

To sum up, this research project conducted in the general English course at Nation Sun Yat-sen University reveals that English teachers should have their responsibility to figure out how they can facilitate students to learn vocabulary in a more effectively interactive way through avoiding conventional methodologies. In interactive language teaching, comprehension and production play important roles as an interactive duo (River, 1987, 2000). This means, the more comprehension created from interactions, the more language productions as well as students output of high-level vocabulary might appear in their communication in terms of vocabulary **pedagogy**. In order to establish students' satisfactory accumulation of vocabulary to apply in the global world, this study proposes that the **interactive approaches** should be a motivating and stimulating method for teaching adult language learners, who are preparing for their abilities to participate in the exigent international events.

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Chapter V

The Fundamental Pedagogies of Teaching Listening

Listening is the foreign language proficiency that is used most often. However, sometimes it is ignored since the test of entrance examination in Asia does not set a high percentage in testing this ability. It is noticeable that many language learners do not pay enough attention and effort of establishing this proficiency till they need to be tested. It is never too behind schedule to assist our adult students in developing their listening ability that has been ignored for a long time.

There are various types of content that can be paid attention when we are establishing the listening ability. Instructors should be familiar with atmospheres in different contexts and teach the language learners. Not all contexts of listening tests is the same. For example, in a test of TOEFL, we can find the **Education Test Service** (ETS, 2009) provide diverse scenarios that might happen for foreign students in the test. There are situations and scenarios of dialogues or monologue in the airport, academic lectures in the classroom or dish ordering the restaurant. English listening for language learners requires intention and motivation of listening. Students can apply strategies for recognizing sounds and realizing what are mentioned in the context of testing.

English listening proficiency can be built through training. The teacher and learner should identify that the context involves a sender (an individual, broadcast, television...etc), a piece of information, and a receiver (a listener). A high-level listener should be able to arrange the received messages immediately, although they do not have time to translate the messages into their own mother tongues. It is important for the listening ability trainer to remind their learners that it is not necessary for them to go back to the received messages in their first language.

Moreover, listeners need to understand the sender's option of terminology, organization of speaking, and speed of articulation. The intricacy of listening is sometimes formed in contexts, where the receivers do not know that strategies to follow and keep control of the language from the sender. Therefore, it is indispensable for English teachers to assist their students to become successful listeners. The reason is that one of the most important goals of learning English is to establish a communicative approach to the outside world. In addition, good English teachers should

help students who even do not have the ability of controlling the grammatical and extensive lexical items.. Students need to use listening strategies to take full advantage of their knowledge and receive **aural-input** in the context. A listening practice should lead learners to identify relevant and non-relevant information, key words, and to listen to multifaceted and detailed contents.

1. Listening Procedure

In order to achieve a high proficiency of listening, English teachers should focus on the steps of listening. English teachers can raise students' awareness of listening procedures strategies by checking the following tips when they teach in the classroom. For instance, teachers need to think do they give their students sufficient listening opportunities to put into practice and use authentic listening tasks? Secondly, do they arrange well their context to match the broadcasting teaching in a right speed appropriately and see your their students have a good control learning pace in listening toward the input played by the listening equipments. Teachers need make sure their students can have a full control in the context and ensure that students are able to respond to the key points as well as the key words in the listening questions. In addition, English teachers should ask their students to practice listening strategies in class and ask them to follow outside class when doing their listening exercises. Teachers should give confidence to their students and remind them to be cognizant and aware of what they need to follow while they practice the listening drills.

In the listening classroom, teachers might find a minute to double-check and encourage their students to estimate their level of understanding through an assignment that teachers prepare and arrange for their students in the classroom. Language learners can assess their own ability when teachers encourage them to practice the **drills**. Moreover, flexibility of in-class and out-of-class listening assignments through students' own choices can be adopted. Listening to an English radio program or watching an English movie without caption can be a good way of practicing listening strategies.

1. 1 Pedagogies of Teaching Listening

Different ways of encouraging the development of listening skills and the use of listening strategies can be adopted in the classroom activities. A professional English teacher should be able to make appropriate announcements, assign homework, and describe the content and format while at the same time they need to make their students' listening ability improved. Moreover, teachers should not assume that students will shift a strategy from one task to another automatically. They need to clearly mention to their students how a strategy can be applied in a certain type of scenario. They need to spend time listening to the context that is going to play in the class and explore the appropriate strategy for each listening question.

Through raising students' consciousness of listening as a technique, they will be able to respond to the questions in the tests. Listening needs active thinking in mind and engagement with the contexts. Through overtly teaching listening strategies, instructors assist their students to build up the above techniques.

After the students make progress, their confidence in communication may develop. Gradually, the students will be able to go out of the classroom and immerse in a native-speaking environment more naturally and maturely. That is to say, they will be more capable of interacting with foreigners and understanding the content given by them.

1. 2 Metacognitive Techniques for Listening

In this section, some suggestions as well as the listening strategies will be provided. They are flexible techniques that English teachers can develop based on the learners' level and characteristics. Some steps before and after listening should be done in order to make progress in listening proficiency.

First, before doing listening practice, some plans for improvements should be carried out. For example, teachers should help learners set a purpose or decide in advance what to listen. Among different types of purposes of learning, teachers and learners should clarify whether the listening

activity is for test preparation, for doing business or for living, working or studying in a native-speaking environment. When a goal of listening is discovered, the appropriate textbooks as well as the listening materials can be practiced.

Before listening to the content, teachers should assist their learners in comprehending each word that might be difficult for them. Sometimes, **linguistic limitation** is the key point why the listeners can not understand the meaning of the **dialogue/monologue**. Therefore, teachers need to determine if more training for linguistic or background knowledge is required.

Before the listening activity is executed, teachers can apply **top-down** strategy as well as informing students something about the background knowledge as well as the overall meaning of the context. Moreover, **bottom-up** strategy as well as focusing on the word/phrase chunk can be carried out. The reason is that after this strategy is conducted, the language learners will not miss a key word due to **linguistic limitation**.

Some techniques of listening need to be paid attention by the teachers and learners while and after listening. During the context is played by the audio-equipments, the learners should try to guess or make predictions for the possible questions and answers. Through asking why, when, who, how, which, several answers can be accurately found. In addition, learners need to know how to judge what is and is not significant information in the context. They should know how to find key words; usually they are titles of persons (find who), a schedule of a certain event (find when), a number of a flight (find which one), a type of weather (what kind)..., etc.

An important key why a non-native speaker can achieve high scores of listening is that s/he can think in the **target language**. When listening to a context in the CD/tape, the learner should try to think and respond to it totally in English, instead of a process of translating it into mother tongue. The reason is that the content given by the speaker is usually speedy and not easy to catch up. Therefore, in order not to miss any information given from the speaker, the listener should not think in the first language.

The following part describes how a context can be fully understood. Indeed, if teachers have enough patience and time, they should repeat the context of listening and play for the learners for several times in the classroom. In each time, different types of listening strategy can be practiced.

Subsequent to listening to the context, the procedure of evaluating comprehension should be

administered. First of all, learners should learn to analyze their strength and weakness of comprehension in a particular task or area. Secondly, particular types of listening tasks should be discovered in order to practice. Teachers need to assist and make a diagnosis for their students in order to find out several strategies that can resolve the main problems that might happen while listening.

According to a number of scholars (Brown, 2007; Dunkel, 1991; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Richards, 1983; Ur, 1984), the following eight characteristics of spoken language are adopted by native speakers. In some cases, they may not be easy for non-native speakers to understand, since these characteristics are all habits of oral-articulations of native speakers.

1. Crowding together is the first important characteristic that a learner should be familiar with. In spoken production, due to memory limitations, a sentence with many chunks can be articulated in a fast **clustering** way. That is to say, many sounds of words can be connected to each other and sound vague.

2. **Redundancies** in spoken language sometimes are frequent. The listeners can be trained to notice the rephrasing, repetitions, elaborations, and repeated main points. An accurate answer can be found through reconfirming the repeated information. Usually in an English test, a learner is only asked one question after listening to a long context given by the speaker.

3. **Reduced forms** usually are one of the most important strategies that an instructor should remind his/her learners to pay attention to. The format of reductions can be **phonological** (“Djeeset?” For “Did you see it?”), **morphological** (contractions like “He’s/ I’ll), **syntactic** (Where will the test be held?” “Room 307, Maybe.”) or **pragmatic** (Would you like to eat the cake? No, I’m not hungry). Above reductions pose diverse difficulties, especially for learners who are just beginners to expose themselves in a native-speaking environment.

4. **Performance variables** such as hesitations, pauses, incomplete starts, and corrected information might appear in the context given by the speaker. The speaker can be a very young child or a senior grandmother. His/Her casual oral productions could be extremely difficult for a non-native speaker. It may take time for a non-native speaker to accommodate with the simple performance slips (e.g., I don’t have no eaten yet).

5. **Colloquial language** means informal language that would be used in oral language of native speakers. Based on Brown's (2007) interpretations, "Idioms, slang, reduced forms, and shared cultural knowledge are all manifested at some point in conversations. Colloquialism appears in both monologues and dialogues. Contractions and other assimilations often pose difficulty for the learner of English." (p. 306)

6. Speed is a problem for many non-native speakers. The times of pauses used by a speaker sometimes are keys of how a context can be comprehended. When a context is long and with less pauses, the stream of speech will be faster and more difficult for a non-native speaker to catch. Raising awareness and keep paying sufficient attentions are skills that a learner can try to apply.

7. **Stress, rhythm, and intonation** for indicating **sarcasm, endearment, insult, solicitation, praise, rejection, invitation**,...etc are important for understanding. In a limited time, a long sentence can be articulated by a native speaker quickly and clearly. For non-native speakers, they not only have to comprehend each syllable that was spoken, but also need to catch the implication and the pragmatic meanings from the long sentence in a short time.

8. **Interaction** usually is a frequent format of context for listening. A dialogue in the campus or a conversation between a doctor and a patient can be formats of interaction in listening contexts. Brown noted that "Conversation is especially subject to all the rules of interaction: negotiation, clarification; attending signals; turn-taking; and topic nomination, maintenance, and termination." (p. 307)

2. Current Trend of Interactive Format of Listening

These years, due to the trend of **globalization**, interactive model of listening is noticed and tested. In many tests such as **General English Proficiency Test (GEPT, 2009)** in Taiwan, **Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC, 2009)**, **International English Language Testing System (IELTS, 2009)** and **Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL, 2009)**, the listening abilities and responding to the comprehension questions were tested. The chief changes in the TOEFL these years, including the additional speaking section to test examinees' abilities of pronunciation and conversation. In order to perform well on listening, smart and sensitive ears are needed. The kind of the communication tasks may ask the test takers to (a) read a short paragraph,

(b) listen to a response, and then (c) make an oral response. Throughout the new TOEFL, students' integrated listening and speaking skills are highly emphasized. After all, the final reason for learning English is for communication with the world practically and functionally.

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Chapter VI

An Overview of Teaching Speaking

Speaking ability from a more updated perspective should be titled as communicative competence. **Communicative competence** is actually a term of Linguistics which involves a language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology...etc. More importantly, a speaker of high proficiency should be able to demonstrate his/her understandings of social knowledge and articulate appropriately.

1. Definition of Communicative Competence

Based on the information from Wikipedia (2009), the term **communicative competence** to replace speaking ability was coined by Dell Hymes (1966), reacting against the perceived insufficient interpretation of Noam Chomsky's (1965) distinction between competence and performance. To address Chomsky's notion of competence, Hymes undertook ethnographic exploration of **communicative competence** that included "...communicative form and function in integral relation to each other." (Leung, 2005) In fact, the approach pioneered by Hymes is currently known as the ethnography of communication.

1. 1 Four Competences of Speaking

For training language learners' speaking ability, components of four communicative abilities need to be included. They are four abilities that Hymes (1972) and Canale (1983) have mentioned. Canale and Swain (1980) considered and defined four communicative competences in their model of communicative competence as well as the speaking ability. They argue that the strategic competence, grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and discourse competence are four key abilities of speaking. To be more precise, grammatical competence involves words and rules. Sociolinguistic competence means speaking in a high level of appropriateness and politeness. Discourse competence focuses on abilities of fluency, cohesion and coherence. Finally, strategic competence means that communication strategies should be applied to release linguistic limitations.

1. 2 Brown's Focuses on Teaching Speaking

Under the trend of globalization, to EFL learners' increasing need of using English to communicate in international situations, this section will introduce teaching strategies of speaking in different schools. Brown (2007) proposes eight points as principles of teaching learners speaking well in English. They are : 1. Conversational discourse, 2. Teaching pronunciation, 3. Accuracy and fluency, 4. Affective factors, 5. The interaction effect, 6. Questions about intelligibility, 7. The growth of spoken corpora, 8. Genres of spoken language. High-level English speaking ability can be built on above strategies while teachers teaching their students oral communication. In truth, the reason why many adult readers still can not read fluently and have reading blocks is because they have not been trained by a professional teacher who can teach above strategies yet.

2. Practical Goal and Pedagogies of Speaking

Fluently conversing with foreigners is a practical goal of learning speaking. An English teacher should assist his/her learners integrate their abilities of reading, writing, listening, and speaking proficiency. Understanding the interactant's words and making appropriate oral response might not easy for students who just learned English for three to five years in expanding circle countries. However, speaking ability might the most important skill they need in order to immerse into the international situations.

2. 1 Basic Linguistic Knowledge

Basic linguistic knowledge is the foundation of accomplishing appropriate spoken language. Teachers should help their students enhance speaking abilities, such as competences of accurate pronunciation, correct grammatical structures, and high-level vocabulary. Criteria stated above can be built for learners to confirm whether they should pay attention to a certain weak area. Moreover, the clarity of message (transaction/information exchange) and the precise understanding (interaction/relationship building) are significant factors of high-level speaking ability. Learners should be taught to make their interlocutors ensure that they understand the language in dialogues. Reconfirming and double checking the content with two or more interlocutors are important when the communication is expected to continue for a longer time.

2. 2 From Views of Pragmatics

Social and cultural rules and norms (turn-taking, speed of delivery, implications in the language productions, polite regulations in diverse/multi-cultural discourses) need to be followed by a mature English speaker. It is also imperative that an English **interactant** should realize how to appropriately speak to different groups of people, how to react in inter-cross circumstances and what the real meanings in speech acts of different cultures are.

Moreover, in an interactive and immersing model of teaching speaking, English teachers can help their students develop non-verbal ways of communication, such as body languages and gestures to make compensation for the lack of linguistic knowledge. Most importantly, students should learn to speak without using mother tongue and immerse in an **authentic environment**, which prepares students for real-life communication situations. English teachers have responsibilities to assist their students to develop ability to create grammatically accurate and understandable sentences from a broader view of inter-cultural interactions.

3. Strategies and Pedagogies for Making Progress in Speaking Proficiency

Learners sometimes might regard that the ability to speak English needs an overseas environment. Nevertheless, speaking in English with classmates or teachers of non-native speakers is actually also an effective way of learning. A professional English teacher must teach students speaking several strategies in the beginning stage that they start to open their mouths and speak in English. The basic strategies of speaking English for beginners are:

1. Making minimal replies,
2. Resorting to help from interlocutors or strategies,
3. Based on pictures and interacting with classmates,
4. Introducing local cultures
5. Discussing some familiar topics such as a well-known movie star in English
6. Using a script, reading it, discussing, and checking comprehension
7. Playing games of the big wind blows or my teacher says
8. Brain-storming through topics of writing
9. Playing games of guessing a word from an orally given definition
10. Based on a scenario or problem and finding solutions in pairs
11. Playing script writing and doing role play in groups.

Language learners will feel less embarrassed when talking to their peers whose speaking proficiencies are similar. Through in-class interaction, speaking learners should be able to expand their knowledge of communication through exchanging ideas with peers. After the implementation of a variety of activities in speaking, learners' confidence will be built and they will be able to apply English in tests, travelling, giving lectures in international conferences and so on.

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Chapter VII

A Study of Taiwanese EFL Learners'

Strategic Application

This study introduced five **communication strategies** in Faerch and Kasper's (1983) classification to Non-English Major freshmen of Tunghai University of Taiwan. It investigated whether the Taiwanese English as Foreign Language Learners (EFL) at a major research university acquired their communication proficiency through applying communication strategies. It examined if the **communication strategies** were applicable and necessary in raising their strategic communication competence and academic performances.

Through quantitative analysis by SPSS, this study revealed the correlation between Taiwanese students' **strategy application** and their general communication competence. In sum, this study explored whether there would be a positive relation between students' **communication strategy** application and **communicative competence**.

1. Introduction and Literature Review

Many English as foreign language (EFL) scholars emphasize the importance of **strategic competence** in English communication, and they suggest non-native speakers should apply communication strategies to achieve mutual comprehension and effective meaning exchange when their linguistic competence is not maturely developed (Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Littlemore, 2003; Ogane, 1998; Rababah, 2002, 2003). Indeed, one of the main objectives of learning English is using it as an international language and a practical tool to communicate and interact with people on a daily basis for different purposes (McKay, 2002). For the above reasons, this study intends to focus on two issues.

First, it emphasizes the significance of the strategic competence in ESL communication. Secondly, it tests how efficient **communication strategy** is in enhancing the second language learners' strategic competence in ESL communication as they learn English.

On the other hand, this empirical research also seeks to answer a common question related to ESL learners' **communication competence**: when the non-native speakers are limited in grammar structure and vocabulary proficiency, will they still be able to accomplish common

understanding in English communication with their native or non-native **interlocutors**?

In response to this question, several researchers held a positive position (e.g., Bialystok, 1990; Corder, 1983; Rababah, 2002). According to some findings of communication strategy studies, the learners can apply their strategic competence in order to compensate for their limited linguistic resources and negotiate in an understandable but inaccurate fashion (e.g., Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Littlemore, 2003; Rababah, 2002).

Corder (1983) described that “These strategies we can call resource expansion strategies.” (p. 17) The limited-proficiency learners can apply **communication strategies** and finite linguistic ability they own in order to avoid risk, adjust meaning, and then accomplish successful interaction and meaning exchange. Accordingly, **communication strategies** are various techniques of arranging and simplifying language, which proficiency-limited learners of the target language use to achieve a possibility of fluent and comprehensible communication.

Although the **communication strategies** might lead second language speakers’ speeches to be non-native like, or even slightly improper, it might be a temporary and adoptable method for second language learners to interact and accomplish the purpose of apprehensible communication before the linguistic resources they have in mind become adequate. In this chapter, it is argued that communication strategies are applicable, especially under the trend of globalization, where English needs to be used as a common tool of interactions in international situations.

In recent years, the topic of raising the **communication competence** for second language learners in second language proficiency has become a significant issue. As a result, numerous scholars have focused their studies on these different components in communicative competence. For example, sociolinguistic scholars in the area of pragmatics (e.g., Canale, 1983; Eslami-Rasekh, 2004; 2005; Leech, 1983; Kasper & Rose, 1999; 2001) emphasize that the interlocutors from different cultural backgrounds and nations should learn to interact appropriately and politely to avoid misunderstandings and **miscommunications** in **intercultural communication**.

On the other hand, some other scholars in the field of strategic competence (e.g., Ansarin & Syal, 2000; Bialystok, 1990; Faerch & Kasper, 1983, 1984; Rababah, 2002, 2003) emphasize the importance of increasing the **communication competence** through applying **communication strategies** to resolve problems caused by linguistic limitation. Although the above scholars have focused on studying different issues in communicative competence, their mutual purpose of promoting English as an international language is conformable. Among various components in English learners’ **communication competence**, this study especially highlights the significance of

using communication strategies to improve the strategic competence.

Past and present studies have explained why the **communication strategies** should be applicable for learners to communicate well before their linguistic proficiency is maturely developed (Faerch & Kasper, 1983, 1984; Rababah, 2002, 2003; Selinker, 1972). When investigating communication strategy from a historical perspective, Selinker (1972) was the first scholar who concretely proposed the original notion of **communication strategy**. Selinker (1972) suggested strategy application in his paper entitled “*Interlanguage*” to account for certain classes of errors made by non-native speakers. He offered twenty one assumptions, “which are necessary for research into the linguistic aspects of the psychology of second-language learning...” (Selinker, 1972, p. 228)

These assumptions are the original patterns of communication strategies that have been found in non-native speakers’ speeches. All in all, Selinker (1972) suggested the interlanguage that the second language learners utilize should be considered allowable and qualified in English communication. In **communication strategy** history, Selinker (1972) was obviously a pioneer who had a great deal of influence on later researchers. In fact, later researchers of communication strategies agreed with Selinker’s theory by either designing alternative communication strategies or promoting the **communication strategy** application.

Generally speaking, earlier **communication strategy** researchers (Selinker, 1972; Tarone, 1977; Varadi, 1973) in the 1970s began their research by creating and examining definitions, as well as developing possible solutions for resolving communication problems as examples of **communication strategies**. Later researchers in the 1980s (Bialystok, 1983; Corder, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983, 1984; Haastrup & Phillipson, 1983; Varadi, 1980, 1983) not only defined what the communication strategy was, but also focused on developing a systematic series of techniques in their updated communication strategy taxonomies. In the 1980s, three of the most prominent classifications of **communication strategies** were developed by Varadi (1980, 1983), Corder (1983), and Faerch and Kasper (1983).

They all categorized communication techniques and skills from two perspectives of manipulating goals and forms of speaker’s intended meanings. The former perspective of manipulating goals indicates that the final concept and meaning in second language communication will be altered a great deal compared with the original intended expression. Contrastingly, the latter perspective of manipulating forms implies that the non-native speaker is able to achieve the intended expression successfully by altering the form of language without decreasing the precision

of the intended meaning.

All techniques and skills for facilitating communication the researchers compared in the 1980s were similar, but the terms for how to entitle these techniques and skills they created were diverse. Varadi (1980, 1983) categorized the strategies for manipulating meaning goals as the “optimal- adjusted meaning” set and the strategies for manipulating forms as the “adjusted form” set (p. 59). Differently, Corder (1983) named these two sets as “message adjustment” and “resource expansion” strategies (p. 19). In this study, two similar sets of communication strategies are adopted, which are named as “**reduction** and **achievement**” strategies (Faerch & Kasper, 1983, p. 38).

According to Faerch and Kasper (1983), the communication strategies reflect non-native speaker’s reduction and achievement behaviors in communication. They illustrated, “On the basis of these two different approaches to problem-solving, we can draw a distinction between two major types of strategies: **reduction strategies**, governed by **avoidance** behavior, and **achievement strategies**, governed by **achievement** behavior” (Faerch & Kasper, 1983, pp. 36-37). The titles of “reduction and achievement” (Faerch and Kasper, 1983, p. 37) apparently elaborate the functions of manipulating meaning goals and manipulating language forms in **communication strategies**.

Literally, the reduction means that the strategies might reduce the meanings of the intended expressions and avoid difficult communication goals. Contradistinctively, the achievement means that the strategies help non-native speakers to form, establish and complete the intended expressions without making the intended meanings abstract.

2. Statement of Problem

There have been various studies focusing on different categories appeared in the history of **communication strategy** (e.g., Bialystok 1983, 1990; Dornyei & Scott, 1997; Ogane, 1998; Rababah, 2002). Since the 1970s, eleven taxonomies of communication strategies have been recognized (Bialystok, 1983; Blum-Kulka & Levenston, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Kellerman, Ammerlaan, Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1990; Littlemore, 2003; Raupach, 1983; Paribakht, 1982, 1985; Poulisse, 1987; Rababah, 2002; Tarone, 1977; Varadi, 1973). Moreover, a great deal of researchers (e.g., Ansarin & Syal, 2000; Dornyei, 1995; Kocoglu, 1997; Rababah 2002; Yoshida Morise, 1998) have done empirical studies to reveal the relations between the strategy application and different variables, such as students’ gender, proficiency level, and pedagogy usage.

Nevertheless, very few studies have focused research on relations between students’ general **communicative competence** and their frequency of strategy application. As a result, it is very

arduous to find substantial number of quantitative references that reveal the correlation between students' speaking ability and their employment of **communication strategies**.

3. Theoretical Framework

The book titled "*Strategies in Interlanguage Communication*" written by Faerch and Kasper (1983) is a primary reference of this study. In their book, Faerch and Kasper (1983) implied that an individual should be conscious of the potential problems in ESL communication and deliberate how to utilize communication strategies to reach a goal of expressing meanings with one's limited linguistic competence. That is, a limited proficiency speaker has to estimate what kind of communicative goal s/he is able to achieve by examining how many linguistic resources are accessible. Faerch and Kasper (1983) stated, "...learners should be made aware of the communicative problems they might encounter, and of the devices they can use in order to solve them" (p. 32). Through examining the limited linguistic properties an individual possesses, one can plan whether **reduction** or **achievement** strategies should be applied. The selected taxonomy of Faerch and Kasper (1983) is based on a perspective of human being's **reduction** and **achievement** behaviors. They can be found in copious numbers of studies in the past (e.g., Bialystok, 1983; Chen, 1990; Corrales, 1989; Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1983). Also, they were mentioned and emphasized repeatedly by more recent **communication strategy** scholars (e.g., Andrioti, 2005; Kocoglu, 1997; Rababah, 2002).

According to Faerch and Kasper, (1983), the reduction and achievement strategies offer functions of monitoring communication and simplifying the utterances for second language learners who are limited in their vocabulary and grammar application. The reduction strategies assist learners to express meaning efficiently without lingering around a difficult topic or an arduous expression. On the contrary, the achievement strategies assist learners to apply the ideas of using **interlanguage** and try to achieve intended meanings in English communication. Among eight strategies suggested by Faerch and Kasper (1983) for altering and adjusting meanings, five of them are adopted as the research targets in this study. They are topic avoidance, message abandonment, and meaning replacement strategies in the reduction set, and **interlanguage** and **cooperation strategies** in the achievement set.

4. Significance of Study

In Taiwan, English examination system encourages a part of high school students to learn English for preparing university entrance examinations only; thus, they somehow ignore the importance of **communicative competence**. As a result, the communication curriculum design has become a significant issue in Taiwanese universities and language institutions, because there is an urgent need of discovering how to plan a serviceable English communication **curriculum** for Taiwanese university students and adults who desire to integrate their writing and reading abilities into **communicative competence**. Hence, this study examines the effectiveness of five **communication strategies** on students' academic performance and the most efficient time for training each strategy in order to offer suggestions to Taiwanese teachers and administrators for designing courses. Through this study, the teachers and administrators will be able to refer to the quantitative data results and design a more effectual communication curriculum for adult learners who do not have opportunities to thoroughly establish their **communication competence** in high school.

5. Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study is to discover what the students' reflections in communication competence of learning and applying **communication strategies** are and how teachers and administrators should design an effective and humane ESL curriculum for communication courses. Through providing an opportunity of learning **communication strategy**, this study investigates how much the students can improve in academic performance through applying them and how much Taiwanese university students appraise and agree with the application of **communication strategy**. To answer above questions related to curriculum design, this project collects quantitative data. Quantitative data include different frequencies between the two assessments, and the relations between students' academic performance progress and their application of strategies. With the quantitative the Taiwanese teachers will have some clues to make right judgments upon setting an efficient time length of training and selecting applicable strategies when designing a communication course curriculum. In other words, this study purposes to ascertain if the strategy training is helpful for students and required by students, such as which strategies to be included in the **curriculum**, and how long the most efficient training time is.

6. Methodology

6.1 Research Questions

The primary two research questions are as follows.

- 1) Is there a correlation between students' strategy application and **communicative competence**?
- 2) Is there a significant difference in students' **communicative competence** before and after ten weeks training of five communication strategies?

6.2 Quantitative Study

According to Smith (1983, 1986), the quantitative data can be easily accepted by the scientific community because they are accurate, observable, and replicable. Hence, this study applied to quantitative methods, including Regression Diagnosis and T-test. Through several SPSS graphs, statistical methods enabled the **curriculum** designers to receive the specific information at a glance. They revealed whether students could improve in communicative competence because of applying **communication strategies** between two assessments.

6.3 Sample

The participants of this study were twenty Non-English Major freshmen taking Basic English required class in a Taichung University in Taiwan. Although these students' major was not English, English was one of the most important subjects for them. In this study, eight students were randomly selected as the subjects for data analysis.

Compared with the other university students in Taiwan, these students had an English proficiency that was higher than that of the average Taiwanese university students. The reason is that the rank of this school in Taiwan is in the intermediate-higher level of all schools in Taiwan.

6.4 Reliability and Validity

According to Schwandt (2001), "the reliability can and must be addressed in fieldwork by using conventionalized methods for recording **fieldnotes** and analyzing transcripts as well as making inter-rater checks on coding and categorization procedures and results"(p. 226). Therefore, this study adopted a typical methodology with a series of instruments repeated by many scholars (e.g., Ansarin & Syal, 2000; Corrales, 1989; Faerch & Kasper, 1984; Kocoglu, 1997; Ogane, 1998; Stewart & Pearson, 1995) in order to achieve a high research reliability. This classical process in the methodology suggested researchers to collect data through video-taping or audio-taping, dialogue

transcribing, and involving both students and researchers in the coding process.

Furthermore, to achieve the criterion validity, only two sets of five communication strategies in Faerch and Kasper's classification (1983) were applied as a standard classification when the researchers trained the students, coded students' dialogues, and interviewed the subjects. That is, the training, coding, and interview instruments in this study were all designed according to Faerch and Kasper's classification (1983). The definitions and the principles of instrumentations for training and coding the students' strategy application were associated with students' avoidance and achievement behaviors.

The first instruments applied in this study were the notebooks and DVDs, which were students' learning materials. To attain a **content validity**, the daily life topics in notebooks were provided consistently both in the training process and the performance assessments. Using daily life topics to interact is a conventionalized method recommended by Rababah (2002). The topics like family, interest, and career goal were adopted in the notebook and the training DVD, which allowed the students to have sufficient opportunities to rehearse possible situations they might encounter in their real life.

A coding sheet was employed by the researchers and the students to do the verbatim and coding, and count the applying frequency cooperatively. With the transcript page, the students discussed with two researchers to identify which strategies had been applied in order to raise the **inter-rater reliability**. Through identifying which strategy had been applied, the numerical data as well as the applied frequency were revealed on this coding sheet, which the researchers could use to do the further quantitative research.

Actually, this process of transcribing, and student involving coding would attain a high rating reliability because not a word spoken, facial expression, or body language could be neglected in the video tape; also, the students would assist the researcher to correctly identify the topic avoidance and **message abandonment** strategies applied. These two strategies could not be easily identified by the researchers, because they included conscious behaviors that could not be displayed in external actions.

In truth, in the field of **communication strategy**, fewer researchers transcribed and analyzed the applied strategies simply from students' audio taped dialogues (e.g., Corrales, 1989; Littlemore, 2003; Yoshida- Morise, 1998). More precisely, this study, like many other past studies (e.g., Ansarin & Syal, 2000; Rababah, 2002), used a video camera to collect more complete data containing both the verbal and non-verbal data in order to raise the accuracy in coding and analysis

processes.

Moreover, the general rating criteria for **communicative competence** designed by Lane (2005), which considered flexibility, conversational involvement, conversational management, empathy, effectiveness, and appropriateness as six major communication components, were used to evaluate students' general communicative competence. These criteria do not merely emphasize the usages of communication strategies and students strategic competence, but they focus on the most common components in learners' communication performance. This contributed to a high research reliability and fairness in testing the effectiveness of **communication strategy**. To carry out a higher inter-rater reliability, two professional teachers collaborated to score the students' overall communication competence with these criteria.

7. Data Collection and Analysis

From two types of assessments conducted before and after ten weeks training of five communications strategies, students' frequency of strategy application were investigated and compared with their **communicative competence**. These two assessments before and after ten weeks training were both tasks of one-minute individual presentation.

7.1 Quantitative Data Collection

For the quantitative data, digital video camera was applied for two times in order to collect the students' performances of applying strategies. With the visual and audio data in the video tapes, the students' performances were transcribed verbatim. By analyzing the transcripts, the numerical data of applying frequency and academic performance improvement were obtained. Then, the students' scores of academic performances were measured by the general rating criteria.

7.2 Quantitative Analytical Method

Through quantitative methods, the transcribed and coded data from the video taping in the middle and in the end of training were analyzed through SPSS (Statistic Package for Social Science), which contributed to answers of the following issues.

Is the frequency of students' strategy application significantly different before and after ten weeks training? Can students' communicative competence improve because of the training? Is there a positive correlation between students' strategy application and their academic performance?

In order to answer the research questions, T-test was applied to compare students' academic performances in order to reconfirm if the strategy application significantly influences

Taiwanese students' general communication competence. Also, Regression Diagnostics was applied to find out if there is a positive correlation between two variables of the strategy application and students' academic performance in English communication.

8. Limitations

The data result might not represent the whole population of Taiwanese university students and the adult learners in the Taiwan society. This study was done through cooperating with students in only one freshmen's class for Non-English Major students whose English proficiency was higher than the average of Taiwanese university learners.

9. Result and Discussions

The purpose of the study was to examine the effect of ten-week training in students' strategy application and general communicative competence. This section reports the results of data analysis according to the statistical methods of T-test and Regression Diagnostics.

Firstly, according to the T-test graph, the analysis demonstrated that a statistically significant difference between the two means of strategy application frequency and students' communicative competence score did exist before and after training. From the first graph (Graph I.), we can find out the students' average scores of general performance without training is 80.75 points, and after training for ten weeks, students made improvement for more than seven points. According to the p-value, zero in Graph I., the result therefore rejected the null hypothesis of no significant difference between "after training" and "without training."

In addition, through comparing the students' frequency of strategy application before and after training (see Graph II.), we concluded that students' improvement of communicative competence was influenced by their increasing frequency of strategy application. Before training, students applied strategies for 0.5 time in one-minute presentation, and after training students applied strategies for 2.63 times (2.13 times more than before training) in the same speaking activity.

Graph I.

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	BEFOREF - BEFORES	-80.25	4.979	1.760	-84.41	-76.09	-45.592	7	.000
Pair 2	AFTERF - AFTERS	-85.13	2.900	1.025	-87.55	-82.70	-83.021	7	.000

Graph II.

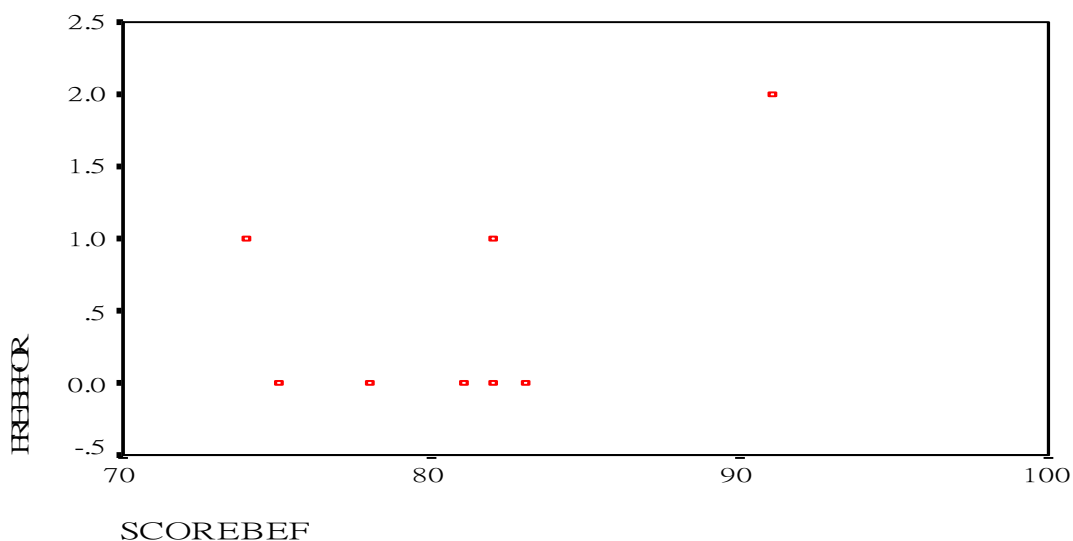
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	BEFOREF	.50	8	.756	.267
	BEFORES	80.75	8	5.339	1.887
Pair 2	AFTERF	2.63	8	1.188	.420
	AFTERS	87.75	8	3.991	1.411

In further analysis of the pretest and posttest data for the effect of communication strategy on students' general communication competence, the Regression Diagnostics was applied to show a strong positive relation between two variables of frequency and score. From the Graph III., we can interpret that the students' frequency of using **communication strategies** was fairly low before training. Also, their performance was lower and was not affected by the usage of communication strategies. From the data of before training, we can see that although a student got the highest score and he applied strategies for twice before he was trained, nonetheless, a student got the lowest score through applying communications strategies for once. The frequency was still higher than the other five students who got higher scores than him. Hence, we concluded that without training, the

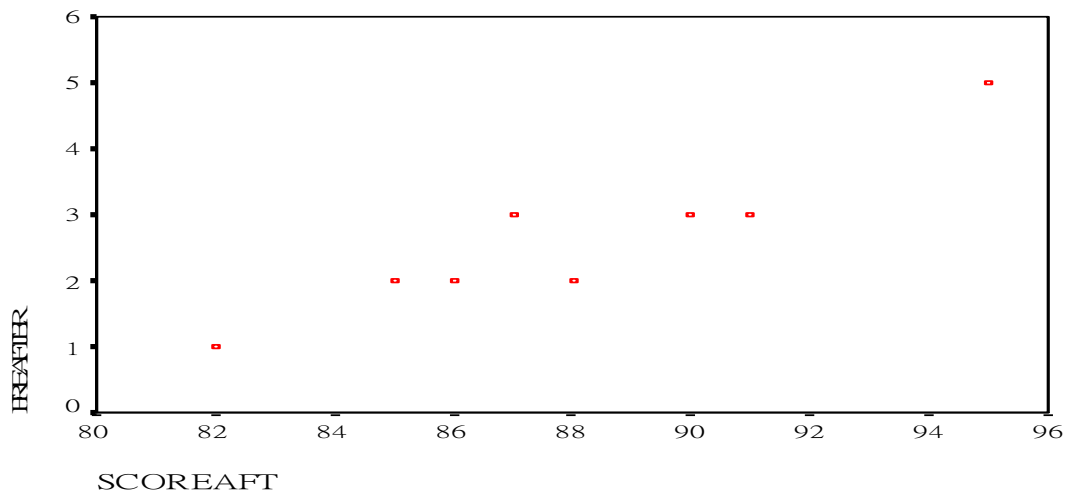
students' communication performance was not directly related to their strategy application. Furthermore, the students' communicative competence was not in a high proficiency before the training.

The analysis shown in **Graph IV**. shows that there is a significant positive correlation between two variables of students' frequency of strategy application and general communicative competence. This indicates that students' ten weeks practice influenced the performance in their communicative competence. In other words, students' English **communication competence** became significantly better after trained by communications strategies for ten weeks. Conclusively, after ten weeks training, students were aware that the communication strategies did contribute to solving their problems in communication. Therefore, they were willing to apply communication strategies in the assessment in order to perform English communication in a more comprehensive and fluent fashion. From this study, we discovered that the more strategies the Taiwanese learners applied, the better they were able to interact from a perspective of Lane's (2005) general scale of communicative competence.

Graph III.



Graph IV.



10. Summary

The result in this study indicated that the students' strategy application did activate and enhance students' performance of communication. The use of communications strategies might resolve some of students' problems in expressing difficult meanings in order to interact in a higher-level form. The result of this study reflected some researchers' previous reports, which showed that most students would be more capable of passing effective meanings after trained by communication strategies (e.g., Chen, 1990; Rababah, 2002). In other words, their communicative competence can be positively influenced by the training of communication strategies. In summary, this study revealed that the most Taiwanese university students accepted the communications strategies as applicable methods in solving their communication problems caused by linguistics limit during interacting in English. Their employment of communications strategies for resolving linguistics problems finally resulted in their improvement in their general communication performance in a significant fashion.

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Chapter IIX

Approaches of Reading

Usually, comprehending reading materials involves learners' linguistic knowledge. Traditionally, English teachers teach each word that might be new to students and make students start reading by themselves. This chapter has been composed in order to introduce several more updated strategies of reading. English learners would be able to understand chosen literary texts more effectively. They are techniques of teaching that emphasize diverse forms of reading skills, vocabulary skills and focus on testing and study skills that Wegmann, Knezevic, and Bernstein (1996) have emphasized.

1. Reading Skills

According to Wegmann, Knezevic, and Bernstein (1996), reading approach is frequency associated with language learners' cognizant skills of guessing, anticipating, remembering previous content, skimming, scanning, evaluating, identifying sequencing, predicting, and summarizing. Above abilities related to a persons' reading proficiency can be provided to language learners, since a good reader needs to be trained to use skills and read more efficiently.

2. Vocabulary Skills of Reading

Vocabulary skills in Mosaic II written by Wegmann, Knezevic, and Bernstein (1996) involve skills of guessing, finding verb, terminology detecting, making inferences, hearing the rhyme, matching words to definitions, understanding abbreviations, using prefixes, analyzing words and phrases, realizing mythology, relating words to an idea, knowing paraphrased complex ideas, comprehending idiomatic phrase, guessing the meanings of idioms and **colloquial phrases**, **scanning** for antonyms, distinguishing shades of meanings, relating to past, present, and future...etc.

3. Achieving High Scores in Reading Session

In order to gain a satisfactory score of a reading test, learners can be trained with several testing strategies. It is assumed by Wegmann, Knezevic, and Bernstein (1996) that students can make progress in testing through the following testing strategies. When they read a context for practicing or for being tested, they can pay attention to analyzing summary statements, recognizing the theme, learning to summarize a narrative piece of reading content, avoiding traps in standardized vocabulary tests, time controlling, making instant summary...etc.

4. Overall Strategies of reading

Based on the authors' experiences of teaching English as a foreign language in Taiwan, as well as the arguments made by Wegmann, Knezevic, and Bernstein (1996), learners can improve in their reading proficiency by adopting reading strategies. The following below are suggested reading strategies for Freshman Non-English majors.

4.1 Skimming for Main Ideas

In the first stage of reading, the adoptable process can be **skimming**. It saves much time to understand the context through skimming. After catching a basic overview of the context, the learners will be able to follow and read into the details more effortlessly. "Skimming is a useful way to get an overview of a reading selection. It is different from scanning. You scan for specific facts or details. You skim for general ideas. To skim, move your eyes quickly through the whole reading. Do not stop for details or worry about words you don't understand. Keep going like a fast-moving train from beginning to end. Afterward you will have a general idea of the contents. Then you can read the selection again with better comprehension." (Wegmann, Knezevic, and Bernstein, 1996, p. 18)

4. 2 Scanning

Scanning is a skill that a reader moves his/her eyes fast over the article till s/he come to the specific piece of information that have been searched for. When **scanning** an article, a reader should find points and key words in order to find sufficient clues. “Use clues and your scanning technique to find the words from the articles that correspond to the descriptions.” (Wegmann, Knezevic, and Bernstein, 1996, p. 15)

4. 3 Reading Narrative Story

Many reading materials are associated with a story, since a story usually can stimulate a reader’s motivation and continuous reading behavior. A reader should realize the characters, setting as well as the time and place, and plot. The plot usually is related to the chains of events composing a story. According to Mosaic II (Wegmann, Knezevic, and Bernstein, 1996), a reader should identify four steps in a plot in order to raise his/her level of understanding the story. These four steps include conflict, complication, climax, and resolution.

4. 4 Predicting and Guessing

It is suggested that before reading into the context, independently predicting into the unread content is necessary (Wegmann, Knezevic, and Bernstein, 1996). Actually, this is an interactive approach of reading. Remembering the previous read content and predicting the unread part are two approaches that should at the same time used by an effective reader. According to Mosaic II, it suggests the reader to do as follows.

As you read, try to think ahead of the story. Don’t worry about words you don’t understand. Simply follow the main steps of the plot and pick up clues from the context to help you predict what is going to happen next. (Wegmann, Knezevic, and Bernstein, 1996, p. 37)

5. Brown's Principle of Reading

Basically, Brown (2007) has perfectly and thoroughly interpreted for us what are most important strategies of reading. In his teaching by principles, eight strategies of reading were introduced. They are

1. **Bottom-up** and **top-down** strategies, 2. **Schema theory** and background knowledge, 3. Strategic reading based on activates of pre-reading, post-reading and follow-up strategies for reading, 4. Extending reading through longer texts with no conscious strategic invention. 5. Fluency and reading rate, 6. Focus on vocabulary, 7. The role of affect and culture, 8. Adult literacy training through roles of cognition, automaticity, socio-cultural practice, activating schemata and associating reading with writing. (p. 358-362)

Among above mentioned principles of teaching reading, bottom-up and top-down process are two strategies that can not be ignored at all when a professional teacher is trying to build his/her students reading proficiencies. If a learner can fully apply these two processes of reading, s/he will be able to comprehend not only the overall content, but also details in it.

6. Bottom-up and Top-down Processing

Reading involves skills of realizing vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure. Usually, **top-down** and **bottom-up** strategies are important in order to completely understand an article. Based on Brown's (2007) study, "...led by Goodman's (1970) interpretation, the distinction between bottom-up and top-down processing became a cornerstone of reading methodology for years to come." (Brown, 2007, p. 358)

In order to practice **bottom-up** processing, a reader should in the beginning identify a multiplicity of linguistic signals, such as letters, morphemes, syllables, words, phrases, grammatical cues. That is, reading through checking into the dictionary and realizing all the chunks is significant for a beginner.

On the other hand, **top-down** processing is a conceptually driven step in reading. From the perspective of trying to understand the main topic and the background knowledge instead of only comprehending the vocabularies in a context, **top-down** strategy makes a high-level reader "...has an eagle's eye" according to Brown's (2007) interpretation. Nuttall (1996) describes this strategy of reading as " In practice, a reader continually shifts from one focus to another, now adopting a top-down approach to check whether that is really what the writer ways" (Nuttall, 1996, p. 17)

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Chapter IX

Research Proposal:

An Analysis for Effectiveness of Interactive Strategies

The primary goal of this study in teaching speaking is to assess the students' better communication attainment after applying a series of five interactive strategies on an experiment group of subjects. This class will be compared with a control group of other participants, and in the control-group class the interactive approaches are not emphasized and practiced openly.

The target students of the experiment and control groups in this study are Non-English major freshmen. The students in experiment group are supposed to make more improvement in **communication competence** after being directed with designed interactive strategies in this research study, which emphasizes the significance of interaction in an appropriate way.

This study highlights that the EFL learners' proficiency in listening and speaking which applies in the real world is imperative. In order to facilitate students' learning and assist them to make progress in substantial communication and use English in their real life, this study supposes that the interactive strategies should be offered to college students who have fewer requirements in examination preparations than high school students.

The designed interactive strategies in this study are divided into two types, including pedagogic and pragmatic models. They are hypothesized to be effectual, competent, and realistic for the university students in Taiwan because they contain both traditional and innovative **pedagogic** and **pragmatic** skills for fluent and appropriate communication. These strategies activate knowledge of English which students acquire at school. They make students become more familiar with English application in the real world, because they are skills of facilitating English message transmission, expression and intercourse.

1. Introduction

The applied interactive strategies in this study are divided into pedagogical and pragmatic models from perspectives of classical **interactive approaches** done by Bejarano (1997) and Swain (1998). On the other hand, two pragmatic transfer techniques in current papers which make available concepts of flexible communicating methods with communities from different cultures are also introduced. In this study, five strategies in pedagogic model and pragmatic model will be tested and compared.

The strategies mentioned in pedagogical model are “checking for comprehension and clarification strategy,” “collaboration strategy” and “reflection strategy.” On the other hand, the strategies designated in pragmatic model are “culturally responding strategy” and “international setting strategy.” These two models present significant and updated interaction skills for improving strategic communication competence because they cover up practical knowledge of both general communication tips and cultural differences. The objectives of this study are to build up an assessment system on **interactive strategies** with elevated reliability and validity, in order to collect the data offered regularly in class examinations, and promote interactive approaches in universities in Taiwan.

In Taiwan, from 1999, students are obligated to be educated with subject matters in English from grade five in elementary schools. Taiwan government have been trying to achieve foreign affair objectives of entering the international societies, such as WTO (Taiwan had entered in Jan, 2002) and United Nations, and to avoid being isolated from the modernized global village. Primary school principles and administrators of Taiwan aggressively cooperate with the government and practice this policy for six years so far. Furthermore, many schools make students begin to enroll for English courses from their second grade.

Although Taiwanese students learn English for a long time, for most university freshman in Taiwan, after their eight years of English learning in primary school, junior high school, and senior high school, nonetheless, they still have problems in actual English application of speaking and listening. This book presupposes these problems might be caused by the rationales that many students who are trained English in Taiwan, especially those who study in senior high school, tend to focus English study objectives on passing the examinations with a higher grade for entering a better university. Additionally, another reason is the materials utilized in schools in Taiwan do not indicate the importance of **English as an international language** (EIL).

2. Forms of EIL: EIAL, EWL and EIIL

Since in our contemporary global society, genuine communication with people from all over the world in international settings is not less essential than talking to native speakers in English speaking countries. Consequently, “the use of English has led to the development of functional perception of English as an international language EIL.” (Alptekin & Alptekin, 1984; Campbell et al., 1982; Quirk, 1978; Smith, 1976; Smith, 1981; Stern, 1992; Talebinezhad & Aliakbari, 2001).

Thus new terms as **English as an International Language (EIL)**, **English as International Auxiliary Language (EIAL)**, **English as a world language (EWL)** and **English as International or International Language (EIIL)** have been introduced and have achieved world recognition.” (Talebinezhad & Aliakbari, 2002) As a result, it is believed that the students ought to construct pragmatic concept in order to communicate well in international setting.

This study argues that Taiwanese Students Should be Familiar with EIL. Smith (1976) noted that an “international language” is one which is applied by people of different nations to communicate with one another. Students in universities in Taiwan are obliged to learn English from a wider view through appropriate materials that including “source culture, target culture, and international culture” (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999) and pragmatic concepts, in order to build an ability of handling international situations.

In all, it is assumed that after employing right materials of EIL and interactive strategies of pedagogical model and pragmatic model for students of Non-major English learners of Taiwan, the students will generate a great deal of advancement in international interactive competence, because they are trained with present pragmatic examples emphasizing the culture differences. Their English acquaintance and learning paradigm are shifted to a more successful one that consists of interactive manipulation skills not only in the Anglo English communities, but also in various universal situations in non-native speaking countries.

3. Interactive Strategies

When designing interactive strategies and the assessment system in order to improve the communication teaching and learning methods and promote the right materials for of Non-English major students, many books and journals are found and referred for doing this study. First of all, two research journal references that are found on the equivalent topic arguing the interactive strategy significance were read. They are two research methodologies for interactive approaches taught in schools in Israel and France. These two studies inspired the researchers of this study to

broaden the theories and come up with five more interactive fitting strategies in order to make students in Taiwanese University engaged in this proposal with a principle of making improvement in communication components.

3. 1 Studies in Israel and France

The first periodical is “Modified-interaction strategies and Social-interaction Strategies” (Bejarano, Levine, Olshtain & Steiner, 1997). It is a research project done in Israel, which focused on wide-ranging interactive conversation skills. The second journal is another investigation completed in France. In this study, game “Jigsaw Task”, and “Cooperative Strategies” (Swain & Lapkin, 1998) were applied by the authors to collect students’ performance records and survey data.

What this study different from theirs is that besides centralizing the importance of pedagogical strategies in their journals, we take the pragmatic issue as a significant component into consideration for an “EIL paradigm” shift into students’ mind. The researchers of this study adopted an updated perspective of “pragmatic transfer” that promoted issues of English as an international language, referred to an online Linguistic journal that demonstrates the Iran’s Current ELT (English Language Teaching) with its title of “Evaluation and Justification of a Paradigm Shift in the Current ELT Models in Iran.” Moreover, the researchers also developed two interactive pragmatic strategies for students to learn.

“Pragmatic Transfer in Intercultural Communication” (Zegarac & Pennington, 2000) is also referred as an influential material that the researchers of this study assume that it helps students more familiar with EIL principles and pragmatic transfer methods after reading examples of EIL communication difficulties caused by cultural differences. This article touches the ways in which culture-specific aspects of communicative competence affect what goes on in situations of communication between people from different culture backgrounds. (Zegarac & Pennington, 2000)

3. 2 Assessing Students’ Learning Effectiveness

For assessing how much progress students carried out through training with above strategies, we apply Browns’ book, “ Language Assessment Principles and Classroom Practices” (Brown, 2004) as a resource to design an assessment system in interactive communication competence. There are two assessment instruments in this study, an interview and a questionnaire. Both of them belong to quantitative methods. The researchers of this study adopt the Brown’s ideas in Chapter Six: Assessing Listening and Chapter Seven: Assessing Speaking in order to develop an interview task to test students’ learning effectiveness before and after they are taught by five interactive

strategies in two models.

The functions of this interview are not only for regular school quiz, midterm, and final examination, but also for research data collection and analysis. For the questionnaire design, another book reviewed is Zoltan Dornyei's "Questionnaires in Second Language Research." (Dornyei, 2003)

The researchers of this study adopted Dornyei's "semantic differential scales" as a questionnaire data collection method. With this form, students are supposed to do the questionnaire paper writing and present their reflections toward the effect of **interactive approaches**. This study did not make the control group fill in this form since they were not trained by the selected strategies. The researchers only compare the control group's learning result of communication ability with the experimental group.

4. Quantitative Study

Through comparing their learning effect by interview tasks before and after their one semester course, we test our research null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis. The null hypothesis assumed through T-test function, in **Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS)**, is interactive strategies which make significant difference in students' improvement of communicative components and the alternative hypothesis. There is no dissimilarity in improving communicative ability after students are guided to study with pedagogic and pragmatic model.

In order to find out students' differences in **communicative competences**, a grading sheet, including all important components of **communicative competence** will be applied as criteria. From both the general point of view and strategic application, students' communicative proficiency will be scored.

4.1 Instrument: Grading Sheet

This grading sheet is designed by referring to General Rating Criteria of The Center for Teaching & Learning Service at the University of Minnesota (Alderson, Clapham, & Wall, 1995; Bachman, 1990; Buck, 1990; Dandonoli, & Henning, 1990; Hughes, 1989; Lumley & McNamara, 1995). All elements associated with the five strategies are taken into consideration.

TABLE I.

Rating Criteria of Training with Communication Strategies

Score of Individual: _____ (/100%)

Range and control of linguistic repertoire	Verbal communication production	Language utilization and instructional context awareness	Interactive communication (verbal and non-verbal)
Employ field-specific vocabulary that promotes understandable expression of concepts; use <i>some colloquial and idiomatic terms</i> and expressions	Flowing	Candidates are <i>appropriately</i> concise or elaborate depending on context. <i>(Culturally responding strategy)</i>	Gestures, eye-contact, and body language promote intended message
Apply expressions, terms and <i>mind map</i> to connection concepts and highlight key points <i>(Reflection strategy)</i>	Comprehensible	Frame or preview concept or link concept to prior acquaintance <i>(Checking for comprehension approach)</i>	Blackboard use or other visuals promote communication of concepts
May show some lexis choice variation but this does not inhibit communication of concepts	They may have phonological variation or some variation in rhythm or rate but are intelligible.	Convey a coherent explanation of a concept; offer relevant examples or analogies	Anticipate what might not be understood <i>(Collaboration strategy)</i>

*(International
setting strategy)*

Grammatical deviations, when present, are negligible and not predominantly distracting	Speech is lucid and projected adequately.	Define terms, summarize or rephrase points; understand	They are attentive to communication and monitor the communication;
		<i>cultural perspective</i> ;	they understand spoken English
		provide appropriate suggestions and direction	well
Score: (/)	Score: (/)	Score: (/)	Score: (/)

4. 2 Pedagogical Model

There are two models that we need to test in this study. In the **pedagogical model**, “searching for realization and explication strategy,” “collaboration strategy” and “reflection strategy” are assumed to help student produce a higher comprehension level, because through them non-native speakers have supplementary opportunities in negotiation and modification in their discourse. Research has shown that negotiation for meaning makes input more comprehensible to the non-native speaker and that conversational modification is a well-organized way to bring about such negotiation (Pica, 1996; Varonis & Gass, 1985).

First, by “searching for realization and explication strategy” the speakers are brought up to have competence of asking questions for eliciting and understanding the interlocutor’s exact meaning. For example, they may ask questions such as “Do you get what I mean?” or “Could you explain what you said?” This way, the speaker asks questions to ensure the listener’s deep level of

comprehension and realization, very much the same, the listener answer to reconfirm his/her interpretation to the question maker.

Second, in “collaboration strategy”, interlocutors need to help each other to complete a discourse when the speaker might encounter difficulties of words, grammar or pronunciation. Interlocutors may engage in any type of assistance and exchange messages by words reminding or grammar error corrections.

Third, in “reflection strategy,” the speakers and listeners may use graphic organizers such as a mind map of Venn’s (1880) Diagram to illustrate and convey a message that they want to express.

4. 3 Pragmatic Model

The second **pragmatic** model explains the culture difference and makes students talk in an appropriate way. The strategies in this model are “culturally responding strategy,” and “international setting strategy.” The first “culturally responding strategy” suggests that students need to arrange appropriate ways, attitudes, and behaviors when speaking to people with different nationalities and cultures. For example, when talking to Americans, we need to make more agreements revealed in discourses because Americans appreciate more positive attitude in speaking. (Yoon, 1991)

Second, through “international setting strategy,” learners are taught to be adequate and capable of communicating from perspectives of EIL, which emphasizes the native like pronunciation is not required but cultural identity is a necessary constituent in international situations. It emphasizes that the “pragmatic transfer” in culturally speaking (Zagarac & Pennington, 2000) and confident communication for EIL situations in our real world are two of the focal purposes of learning English.

4. 4 Assessments for Learning Effectiveness

For designing an assessment system, this study applies the “Interactive Speaking Tasks” and “Authentic Listening Tasks” as two primary test methods. With one of two interactive categories that Brown mentioned as “relatively only stretches of interactive discourse” and “less interaction.” (Brown, 2004) This study adopts interactive speaking tasks that involve relatively long stretches of interactive discourse. According to Michael Canale’s (1984) proposed framework for communicative proficiency testing, a developed interview task is assumed to be reliable, valid, practical, and authentic.

He proposed that students will carry out the language at a highest level if the interview

processes are led through four stages of “warm up, level check, probe, and wind-down.” “**Warm-up** helps the test-takers become comfortable with situation, appraises the test-taker of the format, and allays anxieties.” (Brown, 2000) Therefore, its reliability is high because students test result will not be influenced by the testing environment that may cause anxiety and discomfort. Students’ learning result will not be consistent because of the calm down step of **warm up**.

Michael Canale’s (1984) **level check** makes the interviewer stimulate the test takers to answer with an expected and predicted content forms such as peer collaboration for a sentence construction and culture related messages, which is a good mode to lead students to employ the interactive communication style. This “level check” procedure offers a high content validity because with a “level check” rating form indicating the material content points, the test takers can be reminded to use the interactive strategies by the rater as well as the examiner. They are expected to say things by applying what they had learned about interactive approaches after learning.

The third step of this assessment is “**probe**.” “Probe questions and prompts challenge test-takers to go the heights of their ability, to extend beyond the limits of the interviewer’s expectation through increasingly difficult questions.” (Brown, 2003) The authenticity in assessment is high in the “probe” design because the English as an International language of real world knowledge can be a challenge for students. “Probe” step makes students perceive a new aspect of communicating, so it offers an opportunity for students to face the challenge and make progress during the interview.

That is the factor, why “**probe**” saves students’ and teachers’ time for the beginning instruction and achieves the practicality. Its practicality is elevated because when the first “**probe**” step (before course interview) can be completed as a content prediction and interactive approach introduction for students who are not familiar with pedagogical and pragmatic strategies. In “probe” step, students might encounter limitation of using interactive strategies during the first “probe” step, but they will be stimulated to reflect the in class training, perhaps in a stressful way, and finally become more familiar with the usages after probing step. “**Probe**” assists students in gaining a new perspective in conversation.

Furthermore, the “**wind-down**” is a method of wash back because the interviewee finally discusses with students about their feelings toward all four types of questions, and provides information about when and where to obtain the results of the interview. This interactive interview task is designed as follows for using before teaching interactive strategies:

TABLE II.

Processes and Questions in Assessment for Effectiveness

Process	Questions:
Warm up:	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• How are you?• What's your name?• Let's talk about what we are going to learn.
Level check:	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• When you communicate with a person with problems of understanding, what you can do?• How do you help your partners to complete a conversation?• What you can do to enhance understanding and comprehension when talking to people.• Have you talk to a foreigner.• What difficulty did you encounter when talking to him/her?• Describe an international situation that you came across or your friend came across.
Probe: (for two students)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Students do self-introducing to each other. (Interviewer analysis their of pedagogy model strategies by checking times of using designed strategies, such as mind map and word reminding)• Students do the role play in various situations like shopping in Japan, looking for a job in the US, and be treat as a guest in China. (Interviewers analyze their level of pragmatic model by checking understating culture difference and appropriate way of speaking.)
Wind-down:	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Did you feel Okay about his interview?• You can receive your score of this interview next Friday morning.

During interviews, the administrator and examinees sit down face to face with the interviewer. They exchange messages, ask questions and interact with teacher. Examinees are guided to bring into playing the interactive approaches and act in response with well-mannered and appropriated discourses during four steps of consultation as well as the interview. Students are rated by ranking from 1 to 5 in two steps, “level check” and “probe” parts with their frequency of using five designed strategies in pedagogical and **pragmatic** models.

By audio data recording, the same rater carefully listens to their speeches twice in order to make certain the reliability of this assessment and accuracy scoring with collected taped data in the end period of this study. This interview framework of Michael Canale should be used for twice in both experiment and control group before and after the training process.

5. Assumptions

It is anticipated that that the researcher might see the significant dissimilar grade in final examination between the experimental group and control group. Furthermore, we suppose that the “before and after” interview score of experimental group should also be different. Experiment subjects are assumed to formulate a great deal of progress in communication with pedagogical and pragmatic models after they are taught with interactive strategies.

6. Semantic Different Scales

In addition, through “semantic differential scales” (Dornyei, 2003), the researchers of this study think that we can more evidently distinguish students’ improvement after learning interactive approaches. “Semantic different scales are very useful in that by using them we can avoid writing statements which is not always easy; instead, respondents are asked to indicate their answers by marking a continuum with a tick or an ‘X’ between two bipolar adjectives on the extremes (Zoltan, 2003).

It is supplied for getting to recognize students’ feeling and stage of their understanding deepness in manipulated interactive models. According to the data result from interactive approaches by differential scales, the researchers can very quickly obtain students’ feedback of this study and give wash back to students in a short time to achieve a high practicality.

TABLE III.

INTERACTIVE APPROACH SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL SCALE

-
-
1. “Checking for comprehension and clarification strategy” is
Useless _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ Useful
 2. “Collaboration strategy” is
Useless _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ Useful
 3. “Reflection strategy” is
Useless _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ Useful
 4. “Culturally responding strategy” is
Useless _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ Useful
 5. “International setting strategy” is
Useless _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ Useful

7. Significant and Applicable Interactive Strategies

This study emphasizes when it goes to interactive approach, both the pedagogical strategies and pragmatic principles should be regarded as applicable interactive methods in speaking and listening. For seeing the effect of **interactive approach**, we had gone through face-to-face interview task for twice in two classes that involved one teacher to one student discourse and student to student’s pair role play. From recorded tape data, the rater counts students’ frequency of the fluently demonstrating pedagogical strategies and their deep level of understanding in pragmatic transfer in a 1-5 scale. According to these collected data, we are going to analysis them with a quantitative research method.

In point of fact, we attempt to achieve that by illustrating and promoting the significant interactive approaches from perspectives of pedagogical and pragmatic models, students are able to talk more fluently and appropriately. This study predicts that an experiment class of Non English-major Freshmen in Taiwanese University will learn better in communication competence with well designed strategies, cautiously selected EIL material, unambiguous pragmatic transfer examples, and reliable interview task.

8. Limitations

There are few unavoidable limitations in this assessment study as follows. First of all, only two classes of freshmen may not represent all the population of Taiwan. Besides, the reliability in scoring the use of mind map in “reflection strategies” may be affected by students’ speed and clear level of hand drafting and writing. This assessment study is designed as a data collection method of an empirical interactive approach study, and as an evaluation form of in-class tests.

9. Discussions and Conclusion

Above proposal is a demonstration for how a study can be designed and conducted. Due to the research environment of Taiwan where students might not easily be in agreement to be the sample of this experimental teaching and learning project, the proposal writer of this schoolwork has not come across an opportunity to conduct the above research plan. However, readers of this proposal and participants of the conference are welcomed to apply above proposal through contacting with the proposal writer Grace Lin, the curriculum and instruction expert from Texas A&M University, College Station. It is anticipated that through your assistance, we will be able to assess the data collected from a conducted project in two of your classes and report the learning orientation of Taiwanese university students.

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Chapter X

English Oral Training

Communicative competence is a term in the field of Teaching English as a Second Language and Linguistics, which involves an English speakers' grammatical abilities of syntax, morphology, phonology and so on. Moreover, it also involves social knowledge of trans-cultural and **intercultural literacy** about how and when to interact with foreigners appropriately and politely.

In the domain of communicative competence, there are four components that must be mentioned in a course or program of English oral training. They are the learners' needs of building their competences of pragmatics, discourse, grammatical structure and strategic application. The reason is that our learners of English have to not only learn how to interact in an accurately fluent way, but also their language productions appearing in interactional communication, need to fit the appropriate forms from perspectives of **cross-cultural** discourse and effective communication.

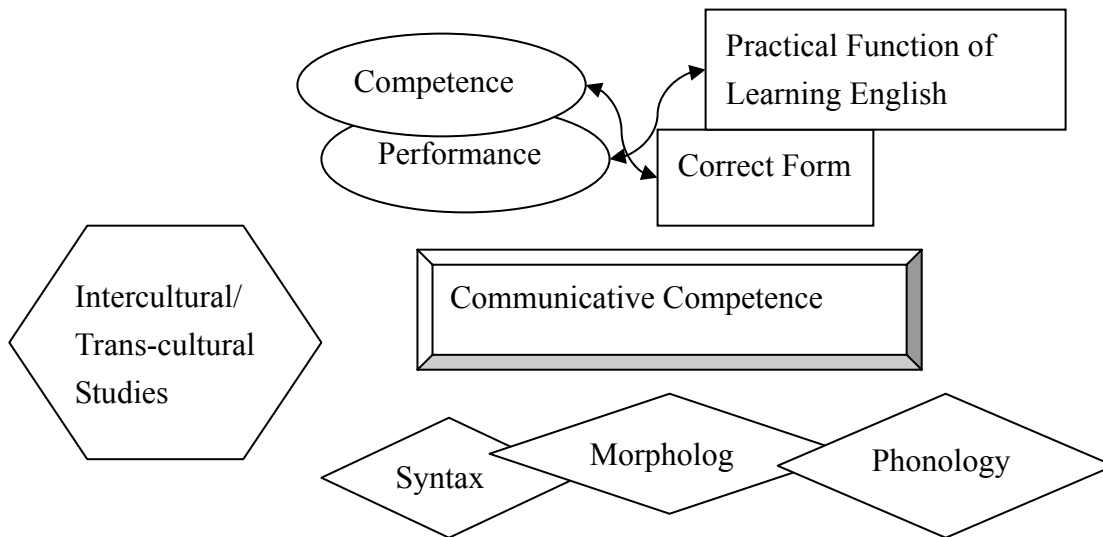
1. Scholars of field of communication strategies

The concept of communicative competence is one of the significant theories associated with the field of foreign language teaching and learning. The term of communicative competence was firstly coined by prestigious and well-known linguist, Dell Hymes in 1966, reacting against the perceived insufficiency of Noam Chomsky's (1965) distinction between competence and performance. Based on Leung's (2005) research, he discovered that in order to concentrate on Chomsky's theoretical foundation of competence, Hymes undertook ethnographic explorations of communicative competence that involved communicative form and function in integral relation to each other. The approach pioneered by Hymes is now known as the ethnography of communication.

Based on the authors' comprehension about conceptions associated with what communicative competence should be, they drew a mind map to interpret which components should be included into a learner's complete communicative competences. To illustrate the concepts of the definitions for communicative competence, aspects of intercultural/trans-cultural studies, performing

practically, and linguistic knowledge of usages for syntax, phonology, and morphology should be all involved.

Figure: Components involving in communicative competences



Canale and Swain (1980) have defined communicative competence from perspectives of four components: Firstly, grammatical competence emphasizing words and rules, secondly, sociolinguistic competence emphasizing speech appropriateness and cross-cultural differences in speech acts, thirdly, discourse competence emphasizing cohesion and coherence, and lastly, strategic competence argues that facilitated language through communication strategies can be resorted to.

Another survey of communicative competence by Bachman in 1990 divides communicative competence of English into the wider title of “organizational competence,” that involves both grammatical and textual competence. On the other hand, the other title of “pragmatic competence,” involves both “sociolinguistic and illocutionary” competences.

2. Definitions of Communication Strategies

According to Lin (2009), Faerch and Kasper (1980, 1983, 1984) are two scholars that have devoted most of their time and energy into the field of communication. They have developed and

promoted the conceptions of using communication strategies. According to the authentic definitions of **communication strategies** provided, they are "...systematic conversation skills applied by a speaker to convey his meaning when encountering linguistic difficulty. They are "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal." (Faerch & Kasper, 1983, p. 36)

3. 1 Faerch and Kasper

The book titled "*Strategies in Interlanguage Communication*" written by Faerch and Kasper (1983) is a primary reference of this study. In their book, Faerch and Kasper (1983) implied that an individual should be conscious about the potential problems in ESL communication and deliberate how to utilize communication strategies to reach a goal of expressing meanings with one's limited linguistic competence.

That is, a limited proficiency speaker has to estimate what kind of communicative goal s/he is able to achieve by examining how many linguistic resources are accessible. Faerch and Kasper (1983) stated, "...learners should be made aware of the communicative problems they might encounter, and of the devices they can use in order to solve them." (p. 32)

2. 2 Linguistics Procedures in Mind

Through examining the limited linguistic properties an individual possesses, one can plan whether reduction or **achievement strategies** should be applied. The selected taxonomy of Faerch and Kasper (1983) is based on a perspective of human being's reduction and achievement behaviors. They can be found in copious numbers of studies in the past (e.g., Bialystok, 1983; Chen, 1990; Corrales, 1989; Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1983). Also, they were mentioned and emphasized repeatedly by more recent communication strategy scholars (e.g., Andrioti, 2005; Kocoglu, 1997; Rababah, 2002).

In view of significant issue of communicative language teaching in the globalized second millennium, it has become widely recognized that **communicative competence** should be one of the most important goals of language learning. A standard English classroom nowadays should practice activities of real interaction and international communication.

This is in contrast to traditional perspectives that grammatical and structural proficiencies were commonly regarded as the most important priority. The awareness and understanding of communicative competence also have an impact on the field of Pragmatics, Sociolinguistics and Intercultural Studies, concerning speech acts in different corner of this world should be researched

and respected.

2. 3 Taxonomies of Strategic Schools

In communication strategy research, there have been various studies focusing on different categories appeared in the history of communication strategy (e.g., Bialystok 1983, 1990; Dornyei & Scott, 1997; Ogane, 1998; Rababah, 2002). Since the 1970s, eleven taxonomies of communication strategies have been recognized (Bialystok, 1983; Blum-Kulka & Levenston, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Kellerman, Ammerlaan, Bongaerts & Poullisse, 1990; Littlemore, 2003; Raupach, 1983; Paribakht, 1982, 1985; Poullisse, 1987; Rababah, 2002; Tarone, 1977; Varadi, 1973). Moreover, a great deal of researchers (e.g., Ansarin & Syal, 2000; Dornyei, 1995; Kocoglu, 1997; Rababah 2002; Yoshida Morise, 1998) have done empirical studies to reveal the relations between the strategy application and different variables, such as students' gender, proficiency level, and pedagogy usage.

2. 4 Teachability and Effectiveness

Many English as foreign language (EFL) scholars emphasize the importance of strategic competence in English communication, and they suggest non-native speakers should apply communication strategies to achieve mutual comprehension and effective meaning exchange when their linguistic competence is not maturely developed (Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Littlemore, 2003; Ogane, 1998; Rababah, 2002, 2003). Indeed, one of the main objectives of learning English is to use it as an international language and a practical tool to communicate and interact with people on a day-to-day basis for different purposes (McKay, 2002).

For the above reasons, this study intends to focus on two issues. First, it emphasizes the significance of the strategic competence in ESL communication. Secondly, it tests how efficient communication strategy is in enhancing the second language learners' strategic competence in ESL communication as they learn English.

2. 5 Positive Position toward Strategic Applications

On the other hand, this empirical research also seeks to answer a common question related to ESL learners' communication competence: when the non-native speakers are limited in grammar structure and vocabulary proficiency, will they still be able to accomplish common understanding in English communication with their native or non-native interlocutors? In response to this question, several researchers held a positive position (e.g., Bialystok, 1990; Corder, 1983; Rababah, 2002).

According to some findings of **communication strategy** studies, the learners can apply their strategic competence in order to compensate for their limited linguistic resources and negotiate in an understandable but inaccurate fashion (e.g., Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Littlemore, 2003; Rababah, 2002).

3. Releasing Difficulties of Linguistics Limitations

Corder (1983) described that “These strategies we can call resource expansion strategies.” (p. 17) The limited-proficiency learners can apply communication strategies and finite linguistic ability they own in order to avoid risk, adjust meaning, and then accomplish successful interaction and meaning exchange. Accordingly, communication strategies are various techniques of arranging and simplifying language, which proficiency-limited learners of the target language use to acquire a possibility of fluent and comprehensible communication.

Although the **communication strategies** might lead second language speakers’ speeches to be non-native like, or even slightly improper, it might be a temporary and adoptable method for second language learners to interact and accomplish the purpose of apprehensible communication before the linguistic resources they have in mind become adequate. In recent years, the topic of raising the communication competence for second language learners in second language proficiency has become a significant issue. According to Canale (1983), communicative competence consists of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence.

3. 1 From Perspectives of Pragmatics and Strategies

As a result, numerous scholars have focused their studies on these different components in communicative competence. For example, sociolinguistic scholars in the area of pragmatics (e.g., Eslami-Rasekh, 2004; 2005 Leech, 1983; Kasper & Rose, 1999; 2001) emphasize that the interlocutors from different cultural backgrounds and nations should learn to interact appropriately and politely to avoid misunderstandings and miscommunications in **intercultural communication**. On the other hand, some other scholars in the field of strategic competence (e.g., Ansarin & Syal, 2000; Faerch & Kasper, 1983, 1984; Bialystok, 1990; Rababah, 2002, 2003) emphasize the importance of increasing the communication competence through applying communication

strategies to resolve problems caused by linguistic limitation. Although the above scholars have focused on studying different issues in communicative competence, their mutual purpose of promoting English as an international language is conformable.

3. 2 Strategic Application

Among various components in English learners' **communication competence**, this study especially highlights the significance of using **communication strategies** to improve the strategic competence. Past and present studies have explained why the communication strategies should be applicable for learners to communicate well before their linguistic proficiency is maturely developed (Faerch & Kasper, 1983, 1984; Rababah, 2002, 2003; Selinker, 1972).

4. Pioneers of Communication Strategies

4. 1 Selinker

According to Lin (2009), when investigating **communication strategy** from a historical perspective, Selinker (1972) was the first scholar who concretely proposed the original notion of communication strategy. Selinker (1972) suggested strategy application in his paper entitled "*Interlanguage*" to account for certain classes of errors made by non-native speakers. He offered twenty one assumptions, "which are necessary for research into the linguistic aspects of the psychology of second-language learning..." (Selinker, 1972, p. 228). These assumptions are the original patterns of communication strategies that have been found in non-native speakers' speeches. All in all, Selinker (1972) suggested the interlanguage that the second language learners utilize should be considered to be allowable and qualified in English communication. In communication strategy history,

Selinker (1972) was obviously a pioneer who had a great deal of influence on later researchers. In fact, later researchers of communication strategies agreed with Selinker's theory by either designing alternative communication strategies or promoting the communication strategy application. Generally speaking, earlier communication strategy researchers (Selinker, 1972; Tarone, 1977; Varadi, 1973) in the 1970s began their research by creating and examining definitions, as well

as developing possible solutions for resolving communication problems as examples of communication strategies. Later researchers in the 1980s (Bialystok, 1983; Corder, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983, 1984; Haastrup & Phillipson, 1983; Varadi, 1980, 1983) not only defined what the communication strategy was, but also focused on developing a systematic series of techniques in their updated communication strategy taxonomies.

4. 2 Varadi, Corder, Faerch and Kasper

In the 1980s, three of the most prominent classifications of **communication strategies** were developed by Varadi (1980, 1983), Corder (1983), and Faerch and Kasper (1983). They all categorized communication techniques and skills from two perspectives of manipulating goals and forms of speaker's intended meanings. The former perspective of manipulating goals indicates that the final concept and meaning in second language communication will be altered a great deal compared with the original intended expression. Contrastingly, the latter perspective of manipulating form implies that the non-native speaker is able to achieve the intended expression successfully by altering the form of language without decreasing the precision of the intended meaning.

All techniques and skills for facilitating communication the researchers compared in the 1980s were similar, but the terms for how to entitle these techniques and skills they created were diverse. Varadi (1980, 1983) categorized the strategies for manipulating meaning goals as the "optimal-adjusted meaning" set and the strategies for manipulating forms as the "adjusted form" set (p. 59). Differently, Corder (1983) named these two sets as "message adjustment" and "resource expansion" strategies (p. 19). In this study, two similar sets of communication strategies are adopted, which are named as "reduction and achievement" strategies (Faerch & Kasper, 1983, p. 38). According to Faerch and Kasper (1983), the communication strategies reflect non-native speaker's reduction and achievement behaviors in communication.

They illustrated, "On the basis of these two different approaches to problem-solving, we can draw a distinction between two major types of strategies: reduction strategies, governed by avoidance behavior, and achievement strategies, governed by achievement behavior" (Faerch & Kasper, 1983, pp. 36-37). The titles of "reduction and achievement" (Faerch & Kasper, 1983, p. 37) apparently elaborate the functions of manipulating meaning goals and manipulating language forms

in communication strategies. Literally, the reduction means that the strategies might reduce the meanings of the intended expressions and avoid difficult communication goals. Contradistinctively, the achievement means that the strategies help non-native speakers to form, establish and complete the intended expressions without making the intended meanings abstract.

5. Case Study about Strategic Application

This section mentions a case study of seven freshman non-English majors' perceptions of learning five communication strategies in an English as a foreign language course at Tunghai University of Taiwan. The primary purpose of this study was to find out how the Taiwanese university EFL learners perceived learning the five communication strategies. This study collected qualitative data about students' feelings and their reflections as they learned the five communication strategies. The participants in this study were 24 Taiwanese university students, none of whom majored in English in a Freshman Non-English Majors' class. For the reduction set of communication strategy, seven respondents tended to perceive that topic avoidance was an applicable strategy, but they disagreed with the skill of topic avoidance because this act might be perceived as impolite to others. Students held three sorts of attitudes about abandonment strategy. Two students perceived that it was not appropriate to use it; three students supported its usage; and two students had a neutral position about it. For the achievement set of communication strategy, four students perceived that it was useful, but three students provided their vague attitudes. For **interlanguage strategy**, six students perceived that it offered a function of enhancing comprehensibility, and one student did not reveal his perception about it. For the cooperation strategy, most students perceived that it assisted them to achieve the purpose of learning English, and two students perceived that they "lose face" when using it.

The term, "communicative competence" has been credited to Hymes (1972). Canale (1983) identified four components of communicative competence: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic. To fulfill Taiwanese EFL learners' increasing need of using English to communicate in international situations, this study focused on strategic competence because it helped the learners start communicating in English within a shorter time than the other methods.

Researchers advised that linguistic limited learners can use communication strategies to resolve their linguistic problems and talk more comprehensibly (Ansarin & Syal, 2000; Bialystok, 1990; Faerch & Kasper, 1983, 1984; Rababah, 2000, 2003), because of "their role in facilitating communication by helping to overcome a communication problem" (Andrioti, 2005, p. 1). Faerch

and Kasper (1983) described communication strategies as: “Communication strategies are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal” (p. 36).

This study contended that, through communication strategies, the Taiwanese EFL university learners might know how to expand their limited linguistic knowledge during communication and make themselves accommodated to the current global village. In Taiwan, because of globalization, the government changed the policy of compulsory English education from eight years to ten years in 2005 (Ministry of Education, ROC, 2005). Compared with younger generations, the current university students' ability to communicate in English might not be great. The use of **communication strategies** might assist the adult learners to compensate for their finite English knowledge and integrate their reading and writing abilities into practical communication.

5.1 Significance of Students' Perceptions of Learning Communication Strategies

Understanding students' perceptions helps the educators humanize their methods of education (e.g., Alsop & Watts, 2000; Heaton, 1951; Rogers, 1972). Alsop and Watts (2000) emphasized it is necessary to explore the “affective interference” in students' perceptions and the relationship between students' cognition and emotion. They suggested to educators that, “Learning is influenced by feelings and emotions and that, in turn, learning can influence feelings and emotions” (p. 132). Researchers implied that perceptions in learning are an important factor in successful learning of communication strategies, since humans have basic psychological needs and will be most motivated to engage in activities responsibly and enthusiastically when those needs are met (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Skinner & Belmont, 1993; Skinner, Wellborn & Connell, 1990).

Besides, in the field of English Education, Krashen (1982) also argued that emotional factors, such as feelings of confidence and anxiety, are influential components in language acquisition. As he stated, “The best methods are therefore those that supply ‘comprehensible input’ in low anxiety situations containing messages that students really want to hear (Krashen, 1982, p. 6). He further stated that, “These methods do not force early production..., but allow students to produce when they are ready” (Krashen, 1982, p. 6).

Two in-depth discussions have addressed the issues of the learners' perceptions related to the students' speeches generated through communication strategies and the learners' characteristics of using communication strategies (Faerch & Kasper, 1984; Tarone, 1980). Faerch and Kasper (1984) revealed that higher level learners need to use communication strategy “confidentially” because of “their less clearly marked foreigner roles and their need for facesaving” (p. 61). Furthermore,

Tarone (1980) mentioned the strategy might cause a problem of non-native like speech, including language forms of “inappropriateness,” “excessive verbosity,” or “informality” (p. 12). Accordingly, this study examined whether the learners had similar opinions that previous researchers had mentioned, and whether they detected some other characteristics of the strategy application that were different from the past reports.

5. 2 Theoretical Base/Conceptual Framework

Among nine strategies suggested by Faerch and Kasper (1983) for altering and adjusting meanings, five of them were adopted as the research targets in this study. They were three reduction strategies: (a) topic avoidance, (b) **message abandonment**, and (c) **meaning replacement strategies** in the reduction set. Two **achievement strategies**, interlanguage based and cooperation strategies, comprised the **achievement** set. The following explains the schemes within these five strategies.

First of all, in an article written by Tarone, Cohen, and Dumas for Faerch and Kasper’s *Strategies in Interlanguage Communication*, “**topic avoidance**” was described as: “the attempt to totally evade communication about topics which require the use of target language rules or forms which the learner does not yet know very well” (Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1983, p. 10). Their statement recommended that the speakers should move away from an interaction in which they have very little understanding about the topics. That is, to achieve the purpose of effective communication, students need to focus on a subject matter in which the interlocutors are interested and well acquainted in order to reduce the lexical or knowledge difficulties in communication.

In the reduction set, the second strategy, message abandonment strategy was explained by Tarone (1983) wherein “The learners begin to talk about a concept but are unable to continue and stop in mid-utterance” (p. 63). In fact, this strategy advises that the learners should abandon their attempt to convey an intended expression if they judge that the intended meaning finally can not be expressed within their limited linguistic competence.

Additionally, the last strategy in the reduction set, meaning replacement strategy, can be termed as “semantic avoidance strategy” (Faerch & Kasper, 1983, p. 44), which indicates that the learners should alter a difficult intended message slightly instead of totally abandoning expressing it. Tarone, Cohen, and Dumas (1983) illustrated this strategy as, “the learner evades the communication of content for which the appropriate target language rules and forms are not available, by talking about related concepts which may presuppose the desired content” (p. 10). Yoshida Morise (1998) explained meaning replacement strategy as follows: “Learners may reduce the scope of the message, resulting in rather general or vague meanings with the context” (p. 209). Namely, the learners are suggested to

apply the skills of replacing and borrowing meanings instead of totally giving up expressing the intended meaning to their interlocutors.

The second set, achievement strategies, as well as compensatory strategies, were discussed fully by Faerch and Kasper (1983). They encouraged students to express their intended meaning concisely without abandoning their attempts to express it and causing their intended meaning to become a vague expression. The fourth strategy of this study is called interlanguage based strategy. In Faerch and Kasper's definition, the interlanguage based strategies involve skills of "**generalization**," "paraphrase," "word coinage," and "restructuring" (Faerch & Kasper, 1983). The following are the explanations of these four interlanguage based strategies.

First, "generalization" suggests that a learner should use generalized interlanguage words, such as "animal" for rabbit, or "vegetable" for pea, as substituted items to convey the intended meaning. Second, "paraphrase" means generating forms of descriptions, circumlocutions, and exemplification. For example, the learner can simply describe "interest" as some more money after saving it in a bank for a longer time. Third, "word coinage" recommends that non-native speakers should construct a totally new interlanguage word, such as an "airball" for balloon or "the rounding of the stadium" for the curve of the stadium. Finally, "restructuring" proposes that, in the middle of interaction, learners should remove their difficulty and limitation by trying to structure different plans for intended difficult meanings in order to ensure the comprehensibility of the listeners. In other words, learners may reconstruct some easier expressions to illustrate a complicated meaning without reducing the intended meanings.

Cooperation strategy was the last strategy adopted in this study. Cooperation strategy advises learners to use processes of giving hints, enlightening difficulties, or looking for assistance when encountering linguistic problems. These types of cooperative strategies are described by many scholars as "appealing strategy," which means that the speakers should signal their interlocutors that they are experiencing a communicative problem, so they need to try to find assistance instead of totally giving up the interaction (Corder, 1978; Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1983; Tarone, Frauenfelder & Selinker, 1976).

The reasons why the other four strategies in the achievement set (**code switching, interlingual transfer, inter/intralingual transfer**, and non-linguistic strategies) were not adopted were because they did not fit Taiwanese non-native speakers' characteristics. First, code switching to first language or a foreign language does not offer opportunities for students to learn more new words. Second, interlingual transferring applied a combination of linguistic features from the interlanguage and the

first language might surprise or confuse the interlocutors who are not familiar with the speaker's language and culture. Third, the **inter/intralingual transferring**, the method of generating English speeches corresponding to speakers' first language structure, is not applicable for Taiwanese EFL speakers. Taiwanese speakers have restrictions in searching for similar rules and structures as English because Mandarin, Taiwanese, and Hakka (also spoken in Taiwan) are three languages from a Chinese origin, which is different from the Germanic, Greek, and Latin origins of English. Inter/intralingual transferring strategy is more relevant to speakers whose languages belong to the same origins as English. Finally, the nonlinguistic strategies used to support the verbal strategies are applied less by Chinese people because of their Chinese conservative and introverted personalities.

In summary, **code switching and interlingual transferring** would make the speeches generated too foreign and non-native like. The language created might surprise or confuse the intercultural interlocutors from different language backgrounds. Inter/intralingual transferring is not applicable for Chinese speakers whose languages have very little common spellings and structures like English. Additionally, the nonlinguistic strategies were not introduced to students because the researchers assumed that the Taiwanese learners might not apply them. Taiwanese English speakers might not feel accustomed to using body language during talking. In a word, the five adopted communication strategies were selected according to Taiwanese students' language backgrounds and cultural characteristics.

5.3 Population

Three levels of quality exist in the Taiwanese university system. They are advanced-level universities (national universities), middle-level universities (private universities and university of technology), and basic-level universities (universities of technology). The primary participants in the interview in this study were seven volunteers selected from 24 freshmen participants in a Freshmen English Non-Major (FENM) class of a middle-level private university, Tunghai University.

Tunghai University is a Christian school, which regards English as one of the most important subjects among all the university general courses. One of the reasons why English is so emphasized in this school is because three of the University's founders, Dr. William P. Fenn, Dr. Thomas W. Graham, and Richard Nixon all were English native speakers from the United States. Hence, Tunghai University encourages students not only to take the required three-credit course for two semesters in the FENM program, according to the Taiwanese government's University English Education Policy (Government Information Office, ROC, 2005), but also to take one or two Non-Major Elective English courses of two credits to establish their English proficiency during

their four years of study as undergraduate students.

In Tunghai University, the freshmen were divided into advanced, intermediate, and beginning proficiency levels of English learners, which were screened by the placement test when entering the university. The beginning level students in a class of the Agricultural College were chosen as the sample for this study because the beginning level class would best reflect the average level of all adult EFL learners in Taiwan. Also, when comparing them with the other advanced-level and intermediate-level students in the same school, the communication strategies were more necessary and important for the beginning-level students. According to Rababah (2002), the lower language proficiency the learners are, the more communication strategies they need to use.

The students were enrolled in a required English course from February to June 2006 in the FENM program of the Department of Foreign Language and Literature, which was a prerequisite class in the second semester. The students were allowed to enroll in this class in the same FENM program if they had passed the same class in their first semester, from August to January 2005. In the class selected for this study, three out of 27 students failed their first semester. Therefore, they were not able to continue studying in the second semester.

Among the 24 students who passed in the first semester and participated in this study in the second semester, four male and three female volunteers (N=7) were interviewed. These seven volunteers were from three different departments in the Agriculture College of Tunghai University. Three of them were from the Animal Science Department, three from the Food Science Department, and one from the Hospitality Management Department. These volunteers came from different districts, mainly from Yilan, Shinchu, Taichung, Changhua, and Tainan, in Taiwan, R. O. C.

5. 4 Prior Training

On the first day of training, the researchers explained to the 24 participants that the whole study of communication strategies might offer them the following advantages:

- 1) An opportunity to interact and communicate in English understandably with their limited linguistic proficiency obtained in high school.
- 2) A set of free learning materials, including a DVD and a notebook containing a series of conversation topics for introducing the communication strategies, will be distributed to them for practicing English communication in class.
- 3) The communication strategies might help the subjects make their decisions to learn English communication. This study would make them consider how they should develop their English communication proficiency in the future.

- 4) The daily-life topics and the training of communication strategies should be practical, interesting, and motivational for learning English conversation and improving communicative competence.

5. 5 Training Materials

A notebook of sufficient discussion topics and a DVD containing illustrations for skills in the selected five communication strategies and examples of dialogues, created for introducing this classification, had been provided to participants before training. The training material containing explanations for the usages in communication strategies and the examples of dialogues demonstrating the skills in communication strategies both were designed according to Faerch and Kasper's (1983) theory. The skills in five communication strategies introduced in the learning materials were explained from Faerch and Kasper's (1983) achievement and reduction perspectives. The examples of dialogues in five communication strategies had been adopted either from Faerch and Kasper's (1983) article in their book, *Strategies in Interlanguage Communication*, or from journals of communication strategy supporting Faerch and Kasper's criterion (Ansarin & Syal, 2000; Bialystok, 1983, 1990; Chen, 1990; Corder, 1983; Corrales, 1989; Dornyei & Scott, 2001; Kocoglu, 1997; Organe, 1998; Rababah, 2002; Yoshida-Morise, 1998).

The daily life topics in the notebooks had been provided to the participants to practice their skills in five **communication strategies** in class discussion activities. They were topics about "charity," "what if," "love dating and marriage," "crime," and "health." Using daily life topics to interact was a conventionalized method recommended by Rababah (2002). All of the discussion topics for practicing using the five communication strategies were everyday life topics downloaded from an English conversation learning website (The Internet Journal, 2005).

5. 6 Instruments

The instruments used in this study were open-ended questions and a video camera. That is, the method of videotaping interviews through open-ended questions was applied in this study. A list of open-ended questions focusing on the Taiwanese university learners' feelings of learning five communication strategies had been used in the videotaped interviews. The broad questions were credible because they would not mislead the students' statements of feeling but made the learners formulate their reflections of learning on their own (Schuman & Presser, 1996).

Second, the video camera was used to make the data trustworthy and reliable. Videotaping as an interview instrument makes the data conformability checkable by the fieldworkers (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). The reason is that not a detail would be lost if the whole interview process was taped. In other

words, the interview questions were flexible, so seven students' feelings in multi-patterns could be elicited naturalistically. Besides, the videotaped data would be trustworthy because the field workers would be able to access the data and check the conformability between the collected qualitative data and the written findings whenever the researchers needed to.

5.7 Data Collection

1. Researchers designed the learning materials of strategy learning, selected communicative topics, and made DVDs (training material) with Camtasia and Power Point software to be used in the 10 weeks of training.
2. The university teacher had been trained to use the skills in five communication strategies. During the training, the notebook, journals, textbooks, and DVD with the lectures and examples of strategy application were used.
3. The university teacher trained his students to use skills in five strategies for five hours in the first five training weeks. Each week, students learned one strategy in three 20-minute meetings. Students had finished learning all of the five communication strategies in the first five weeks.
4. At the end of week five, seven students had been asked to do the face-to-face interview and talk about their feelings. These interviews were videotaped.
5. The member check was conducted for the first time during the second training session.
6. The students began reviewing the five learned communication strategies for another five weeks of training in the second session.
7. At the end of 10 weeks of training, the researcher interviewed the seven volunteers again using the same approaches.
8. The collected data from fourteen 90-minute interviews were transferred onto DVDs.
9. The 21 hours of data on fourteen DVDs were transcribed, coded, and analyzed.
10. A member check was conducted for the second time three months after the second interview.

The data were collected in the Department of Foreign Language and Literature at a university in Taiwan, which provided the required Basic English course for freshmen. Through cooperation with the learners from different departments in the Agricultural College, the researcher purposed to conceptualize the seven Taiwanese university EFL learners' feelings of learning and using five communication strategies during 10 weeks of training.

The researchers anticipated that the seven learners would recall and express their experiences of learning. According to Guba and Lincoln (1985), the goal of the qualitative data collection is to gain information from the populations regarding the research questions while applying them to the

potential research issues under consideration. Therefore, in the interviews, the researcher listened to the students' statements and investigated whether the students' statements contained potential research issues that rarely had been perceived in the communication strategy field.

In this study, each interview lasted for 90 minutes. According to Seidman (1985), 90 minutes is the most appropriate length of interview: "Given that the purpose of this approach is to have the participants reconstruct their experience, put it in the context of their lives, and reflect on its meaning, anything shorter than 90 minutes for each interview seems too short" (Seidman, 1985, p. 13). That is, in 90 minutes, the individual would have sufficient time to reminisce and share their feedback on learning communication strategies in front of a video camera with better structured statements.

5. 8 Data Analysis

According to Miller-Day (2004), "Qualitative data analysis is an iterative process that begins during the conceptualization of the study and proceeds through interpretation of the results" (p. 38). In this qualitative study, the collected video-recorded data on 14 DVDs were transcribed word by word, interpreted through theoretical **triangulations**, and conceptualized by using a series of qualitative analysis methods.

Based on Marshall and Rossman's (1999) suggestion of handling qualitative data, the collected data in this study were administered in the scientific procedures of qualitative inquiry. In this study, Day (2004), Denzin and Lincoln (1994, 1998), Strauss and Corbin (1990), and Glaser and Strauss' (1999) analytical methods were employed to analyze the data, which were the qualitative methods of thick description, open-coding, and contrast-comparison analysis with scientific, analytic procedures.

According to Marshall and Rossman (1999), "typical analytic procedures fall into six phases: (a) organizing the data; (b) generating categories, themes, and patterns; (c) coding the data; (d) testing the emergent understandings; (e) searching for alternative explanations; and (f) writing the report" (p.152).

After collecting the abundant data, the researchers concluded that the data seemed to be overwhelming and hard to organize and interpret. However, after the processes of transcribing the collected video-data into words, grouping the similar concepts of feelings into the same categories, and reconfirming the findings with students, the researchers wrote the reports for the students' feelings using a method of constant comparison provided by Dey (2004), and Glasser and Strauss (1999). In this study, the qualitative data obtained through a video camera had been categorized in a cooperative attitude with the participants. The seven Taiwanese university EFL learners' feelings were described thickly, reconfirmed, compared and reported.

5.9 Finding

5.9.1 How Do Taiwanese University Students Perceive Learning Topic Avoidance Strategy?

The data from the interviews concerning the strategy of topic avoidance led the researchers to conclude that Taiwanese students deemed it was necessary to learn how to change a topic, but, at the same time, tended to emphasize the issues of respect and politeness in English communication. Although they regarded changing the topic as necessary, the students suggested not “keeping silence,” but using some other apposite skills. The skills they suggested were, “talking politely,” “finding topics suitable to your partner’s background,” and “not entirely changing the main topic.”

5.9.2 How Do Taiwanese University Students Perceive Learning the Message Abandonment Strategy?

Students underscored the message abandonment strategy with three groups of different attitudes. Two students responded that it was better not to abandon a difficult word. They thought it was more positive that a student tried to explain a difficult word with the other strategies. Contrastingly, three students agreed that the message abandonment strategy should be applied in communication with their various reasons. Among the seven respondents, two students held an ambiguous attitude about the **message abandonment strategy**, and provided their suggestions concerning how this strategy should be used.

Generally speaking, the findings regarding message abandonment strategy indicated that the Taiwanese students had distinct and complex perceptions about the abandonment strategy. Some students believed that the message abandonment strategy must be applied for reasons such as time limitation, reducing anxiety in communication, and vocabulary limitation. In contrast, two students thought it was better to try to express all the words by resorting to other strategies, a more aggressive attitude of learning. A third neutral position provided by two students indicated that the message abandonment strategy was applicable. However, they tended not to use it except in emergency situations or when talking to people from different professions.

5.9.3 How Do Taiwanese University Students Perceive Learning the Meaning Replacement Strategy?

Students enunciated their experience of learning how to find an appropriate word to replace a difficult word. Four of the seven students concluded that it was a valuable and supportive strategy that would be helpful before their English proficiency became high in the future. In addition, they pointed out how this strategy should be applied in order to make listeners catch the meaning more

effectively. Three respondents discussed how they felt about this strategy, but they did not choose any positive or negative positions toward it.

Whereas most of the students perceived that meaning replacement was an applicable and effective strategy, some students talked about how ambiguous meanings could be expressed. But most of the students perceived it was better to have access to getting to know their interlocutor's intended meaning.

5. 9. 4 How Do Taiwanese University Students Perceive Learning the Interlanguage Strategy?

Six of the seven students admitted that **interlanguage strategy** enhanced their communication ability. Some students pointed out that they could apply the skills in this strategy to express their intended meanings easily. The reason was that they usually thought in Chinese and spoke in English during English communication. The students believed that the usage in interlanguage was influenced by the speakers' language and cultural background. Also, most of the students perceived interlanguage to be easy and useful.

Most of the students offered tips on how they used interlanguage to produce speech, which obviously related to their own language and cultural background. Some students did not tend to stand on any "pro" or "con" position for the application of communication strategy. However, they shared their in-class learning experiences of communication strategies.

5. 9. 5 How Do Taiwanese University Students Perceive Learning the Cooperation Strategy?

Among the seven respondents, six of them clearly provided positive feedback regarding learning the cooperation strategy. Two expressed their face problem when appealing for assistance from others, but they still perceived that a cooperative attitude in communication was important and necessary. One felt that when using the cooperation strategy, communication would become similar to a discussion instead of a conversation.

These findings show that most students appreciate their learning experience of cooperation strategies. The results indicated that Taiwanese university students interpreted their perceptions of the cooperation strategy differently according to their diverse personalities. Some of them mentioned that the face problems challenge their application of cooperation strategy. Some of them discussed whether the cooperation strategy should be applied in a working situation. Generally speaking, students tended to perceive that this strategy contributed to their language learning to a greater degree than practicing English communication outside of school.

5. 10 Conclusions

This study was designed to explore Taiwanese students' perceptions of learning five communication strategies. Generally, their perceptions about learning communication strategies collected in a qualitative form revealed that the students' feelings of strategy application were related to the issues of politeness, first language, training pedagogy, characteristics in trainers and students, Non-native like versus Standard English, and face-saving. Given the paucity of qualitative studies in the field of **communication strategy**, especially regarding students' perceptions of each skill of communication strategies, inquiring into students' psychological levels is quite significant in order to gain a profound understanding of how Taiwanese university students value the skills and usages in two sets of communication strategies.

This study argues that English educators of communication strategies have to respect the learners' feelings and choices of learning, and use **communication strategy** instead of forcing students to accept all the alternative methods of English communication. Faerch and Kasper (1983) mentioned, "Communicating is a problem-solving activity and one which requires skilful planning and choice on the part of the speaker" (p. 12). Additionally, Krashen (1983) argued, that a positive attitude is definitely necessary during learning. When the English learners have a sense of confidence, lower anxiety, and higher motivation in their academia experience, they would experience more language acquisition during taking class. Therefore, this study recommended that learners should discern which **communication strategies** they are more competent and willing to use so they can skillfully and relaxingly use those strategies to resolve their communication problem.

Consequently, the qualitative design of this study intended to provide Taiwanese university students with an opportunity to probe their own perceptions associated with their personal willingness, plan, and choice of using communication strategies. After being interviewed by the researchers, seven Taiwanese university students were more explicit about their own preference, intentionality, and decision in how they would take advantage of **communication strategies** after learning them.

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Chapter XI

Translation through Interlanguage

Before the communication strategies had been fully discovered and classified by researchers, scholars in the field of communication strategies tended to discuss whether speakers intentionally use communication strategies? However, in the beginning of our second millennium, since **communication strategies** have been completely revealed, maturely classified and frequently adopted as teaching materials for the English classrooms of conversation and oral training, we naturally tend to argue that most recent English learners must have their cognizant procedures in mind when applying them. Our reason is that these English learners of the current generation have been formally trained to speak comprehensively through the use of various communication strategies.

1. Introduction

For a long time, researchers in the area of **communication strategies** have debated over a controversial issue: whether speakers utilize communication strategies consciously or unconsciously (Bialystok, 1990; Cohen, 1998; Dornyei & Schott, 1997; Faerch & Kapser, 1983ab, 1984; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Kumaravadivelu, 1989; Selinker, 1972; Weimann & Daly, 1994;). Since communication strategies were originally found and systemized from non-native speaker's language productions, as suggested by Selinker (1972), it is probable that the speakers develop this type of English speaking automatically and unconsciously. However, because the field of communication strategies has developed for 40 years thus far, many current researchers believe that most foreign language speakers, especially those in developed Asian countries should have already learned the systemized method of speaking from their teachers before they employ the strategic usage automatically and incognizantly. Therefore, this study includes a summary of the previous researchers' discussions of the controversial ideas related to strategy application.

Also, an empirical study (described below) conducted in an oral training course, attested to students' conscious status when students learned **interlanguage strategies** and used them to translate Chinese idioms. The purpose of this study was to confirm that after being trained, the foreign language speakers must be aware that they are applying strategies. Also, this study argues that the controversy is no longer arguable after the strategies have been included into the learning

materials of conversation classes.

For the same reason, we hypothesized that nowadays, there are very few non-native speakers using the strategies without being conscious of such usage, although we have to admit that if the learners have never learned them, systematic structures of strategic expressions could still be found in their language production. Briefly, this type of language learner should automatically and unconsciously use the strategies without intentions and plans in advance, under the condition that they were not being taught before.

2. Literature Review

Selinker (1972) initially found that non-native speakers are apt to converse in a way whereby they resort to a series of systematic methods. He named these habits of speaking by non-native speakers as communication strategies. We argue that **communication strategies** were not created by scholars of linguistics, but found and categorized by the researchers. Later, they were promoted and adopted in English learning materials in order to enhance adult English learners' strategic competence in communicative proficiency.

Before the theory of communication strategies had been fully developed, the pioneer of this field, Selinker (1972), discussed psychological structures in the second language speaker's mind and specified that second language learners could obtain native-speaker's proficiency by activating their "latent language structure" (p. 211).

Lenneberg (1967) discovered in our human brain, the latent structure controlling our language functions. Lenneberg explained that latent language structure "is a formulated arrangement in the brain; is a biological counterpart to universal grammar; and is transformed by the infant into the realized structure of a particular grammar in accordance with certain maturational stages." (p. 211-212) Because of the functions provided by our latent structure, speakers could be able to converse a target verbal communication much more native-like. The basis was that the speakers could robotically and genetically resort to the usage of interlanguage strategies, and articulate as effortlessly as a native speaker. We conclude that Lenneberg implied that non-native speakers could connect with strategies without conscious awareness of such usage.

Based on a graph drawn by Faerch and Kasper (1983) revealing how speech can be produced through strategies, before the communicative goal of the intended meaning is attained, there is a procedure of planning, which displays the period of considering by the learners and proves the learners have their clear awareness in mind. This graph of language construction implied that the

learners should first perceive their linguistic trouble; secondly, retrieve items from the applicable linguistic system; and lastly, apprehend which tip to apply in order to reach their communicative objective. Faerch and Kasper (1983) were apt to involve the consciousness issue in **strategy application**.

Based on their description, communication strategies are “potentially conscious plans set up by the learner in order to solve problems in communication. (p. x) When language learners use communication strategies, “the presence of consciousness depends on individual and situation variables as well as on the linguistic material and the psychological procedures.” (p. 47) They obviously indicated that using **communication strategies** signified a conscious performance, arguing “that plans’ criteria of ‘problem-orientedness’ and ‘consciousness’ are relevant criteria as seen from the perspective of FL learning and teaching.” (p. 2)

In *Communication Strategies and Psychological Processes Underlying Lexical Simplification* by Kumaravadivelu (1989), he stressed three significant psychological courses of creating language productions through **communication strategies** through which the speakers might have to go through, namely: a process of overgeneralization, a process of creative transfer, and a process of cultural relativity. Firstly, the learners would appear to access simpler speech productions, secondly to affect required morphological and syntactic transformations, and finally to operate in the form and order of thought patterns characteristic of their native customs and traditions.

Kumaravadivelu (1989) in the paper did not assert whether the speakers consciously practiced the use of such foreign language strategies. Nevertheless, the three intellectual developments he systemized addressed that the **communication strategy** users have experienced their deliberation status as well as a conscious condition before they effectively created their verbal communication productions.

In her examination of the relation between “Specific Strategies and Specific Conditions” Bialystok (1990) declared that the subject of consciousness in **strategy application** was a significant research question: “it remains an empirical question to determine the extent to which learners are even aware of the set of strategic options and the choices they make.” (p. 48) In her book, *Communication Strategies, A Psychological Analysis of Second-Language Use*, Bialystok (1990) argued that the communication strategies might be applied through the language learners’ “consciousness” or “intentionality.” (p. 4-5)

On the other hand, she conservatively retained these two assumptions as two doubtable research questions. First, she believed that “It is difficult to treat consciousness as a determining variable,

primarily because the conditions of consciousness seem so elusive.” (p. 122) Second, Bialystok believed that if the learners’ **strategy application** was intentional, then “there would be systematic relations between the use of specific communication strategies and specific conditions of the communicative situation.” (p. 5) Nonetheless, the research investigations into how the learners made their choices according to some relevant factors or situations could not be found in this field. Consequently, she inferred that the intentionality in **strategy application** was quite questionable.

In 1994, Gass and Selinker noted that a central feature of language use was a tendency to automatize high frequency elements. As a result, the small set of strategies language learners used in problematic situations they encountered could become routinized. Gass and Selinker (1994) indicated the communication strategy users might speak with communication strategy unconsciously in an automatic and fossilized way. Differing from most scholars in the field of communications strategy, Gass and Selinker (1994) emphasized that language learners should resort to **interlanguage strategies** automatically or unconsciously, instead of using them with a conscious intention.

Based on the issue of consciousness/unconsciousness in **strategy application**, Weimann and Daly (1994) had a theory similar to Gass and Selinker’s (1994); Weimann and Daly (1994) asserted that some communication strategies “are over-learned and seem to drop from consciousness.” (p. ix) That is to say, the application of an original or an intentional strategy may finally become highly automated or fossilized, because the individual who applies the **communication strategy** has fully established the concepts of the strategy application in mind. Accordingly, Gass and Selinker (1994) judged that the strategy application was not completely a conscious device, after the communication strategies had been practiced or totally absorbed by the language learners.

Whether the communication strategies should be consciously, unconsciously, or automatically applied by the language learners, Dornyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) provided their perceptions concerning this issue. They added that language learners used **communication strategies** with their intentional attempt to cope with any language-related problems of which they were aware during the course of communication.

It was believed that all different types of communication problem management mechanisms could be developed consciously. Dornyei and Scott (1997) commented, “One can be conscious of a language problem, the intent/attempt to solve this problem, the repertoire of potentially applicable communication strategies, the way to a communication strategy, and the use of a less-than-perfect stopgap device.” (p. 184)

Thereafter, Cohen (1998) also supported that strategy application was a conscious process. He addressed the issue of consciousness in his definition of **communication strategy**: “those processes which are consciously selected by learners and which many result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through storage, retention, recall, and application of information about the language.” (p. 4)

As it has been noted, most researchers in the **communication strategy** field have argued that the processes of strategy application were either conscious or unconscious. The researchers of this study hold that during the training process of communication strategy, the language learners should consciously have their plan in mind when learning and practicing communication strategies. Nevertheless, after they were accustomed to the skills and usages of communication strategies, the concepts and mechanisms of these **communication strategies** might have been completely absorbed, so the learners would reflect which communication strategy to use without considering for a long while as they had before. The reason was that language learners might automatically articulate their fossilized particular language structures of **communication strategies** unconsciously.

The Iranian scholars Ansarine and Syal (2000) noted that strategies are said to account for the availability of a systematic and, over time, the developing linguistic system in the mind of second language learners. They had written a paper declaring that the **communication strategies** can be adopted in the English courses and discussed their ‘teachability’. Truly, similar researches had been conducted and the learners’ improvement after learning and applying **communications strategies** had been revealed (Kendall, 2005; Littlemore, 2003; Rababah, 2002).

This study therefore concluded that when there is ‘teachability’ in the research issues of **communication strategies**, we can say that the learners must have consciously applied **communication strategies** after having been trained by English teachers. Otherwise, the application might only have been done unconsciously, although we think there are fewer and fewer cases like this. After the field of **communication strategies** had matured (from 1972 to 2008), more and more teachers were using them to teach oral English or English conversation courses. Therefore, we assume that most adult learners do use **communication strategies** consciously because they had been trained the systematic structures in the **communications strategies**.

3. Conscious Psychological Status from Taiwanese Students' Perceptions

The abovementioned researchers have different opinions regarding the status of applying communication strategies. The researchers of this study assert that after the communications strategies had been developed for almost 40 years, some of them are now applied frequently and commonly because the users had already heard of the strategic application in modern materials or teachers' lectures. We assumed that the **strategies of communication** in the third millennium are teachable and made available by teachers for learners. Logically, when there are issues of 'teachability' and applicability, the strategy application becomes "conscious."

In order to fully explain this idea, the researchers of this study conducted a study in a university of Taiwan. It should perfectly illustrate this point because the language learners were taught to use the strategic method and translate their thinking in the first language.

4. Significance of Study

This study explores the history of the controversial and significant topic associated with learners' psychological status during strategy application. Most importantly, this study should end the controversy with a final answer: Strategy application must be primarily under learners' conscious status after strategies had been introduced formally to the language learners. We believe that when the 'teachability' aspects have been discussed (Ansarin & Syal, 2000; Kendall, 2005), then the strategic application should be a product of the learners' conscious mind.

5. Methodology

We conducted an oral training course in Taiwan from September, 2007 to May, 2008. Forty-five English majors in a university of central Taiwan were trained to communicate through inter-language strategies according to Faerch and Kasper's (1983) classification. In order to emphasize the conscious status of strategy application, we had students learn four inter-language strategies (paraphrase, word-coinage, restructuring, and code-switching) and invited them to express the ideas in Chinese idioms through **oral translation**.

We assumed that applying strategies to translate idiomatic expressions should be the best method that would reveal the learners' conscious status of strategy application after having learned communication strategies. It was obvious to us that students had to think of both the meaning in

Chinese idioms and the choice of their strategic application.

5. 1 Research Questions

The primary research questions are: Do the learners consciously use the **communication strategies**? How would language learners in a Taiwanese university translate Chinese idioms into English? What does their language production of idiomatic interpretation sound like?

5. 2 Research Setting

This empirical study about idiomatic translation was conducted in a university in the middle part of Taiwan. Its Department of English Studies offered an “Oral Training” course for a night class of 45 English majors. This private school was an intermediate level school in Taiwan, and its English majors had to pass competitive entrance examinations in order to enter the Department of English Studies in this university.

5. 3 Data Collection

After being trained for two semesters, students were assumed to be familiar with the usages of **inter-language strategies**. At the end of this research project, each student was requested to translate an idiom that the trainer randomly selected from a Chinese idiom dictionary. A digital recorder was applied to collect the students’ oral interpretation of the idioms. With three minutes for each individual, the students’ oral translations of the distributed idioms were collected on the last day of this course.

5. 4 Assumptions

1. The students would learn the strategic translation method easily and provide their interpretation in a speedy and comprehensible fashion.
2. The students did not accept the strategic application in idiomatic translation and refused to do translation through inter-language strategies.

5. 5 Limitation

1. The 45 language learners could not represent the whole population of Taiwanese university students.

6. Results and Discussions

Through a simple question for these 45 English majors: How would you use **inter-language strategies (communication strategies based on the knowledge of your first language)** to express the meaning of the idiom? Students gave their oral interpretations to the researcher after having been trained and following activities in practicing idiomatic translation through inter-language. Their language productions of idiomatic translations based on strategies of paraphrase, word-coinage, generalization and code-switching were as follows.

1. 藕斷絲連

Some relationships can not be easily broken just like when breaking the lotus root, two parts still can be connected due to their sticky silks. (Lotus root: paraphrase of “arrowroot”)

2. 迫不及待

Too impatient to wait; extremely anxious; so urgent that there is no time for waiting. (Anxious: paraphrase of “being forced to”)

3. 急轉直下

To take a sudden turn and then develop rapidly; a quick and decisive turn of events for the worse. (For the worse: word-coinage for “decreasing/descending”)

4. 急功近利

Eager for quick success and instant benefit; to seek quick success and instant benefits. (Quick: generalization for “pressing”)

5. 急中生智

To suddenly hit upon a way out of a predicament; to be driven by circumstances to find a way out; to show resourcefulness in an emergency; a bright idea that hits one in an emergency. (A way out: paraphrase of “wisdom and ability”)

6. 大功告成

Great project has finished at last. (Project: generalization of “great accomplishment”)

7. 大街小巷

The streets and lanes of the city. (Whole sentence is a paraphrase for “everywhere.”)

8. 大驚小怪

Make surprising and loud noise, and feel excited about boring things. (Boring things: generalization for “insignificant things”)

9. 大快人心

It is a great satisfaction, which cheers the people greatly. (Whole sentence is a paraphrase of “The people are overjoyed.”)

10. 變換莫測

Having a lot of changes, which no one would be able to predict. (Predict: generalization of “estimate and calculate”)

11. 遍體鱗傷

All parts of the body are hurt, and they are as many as fish’s scales on its body. (Hurts: generalization of “wounds”)

12. 別出心裁

Have the style in myself, different from the cut of others. (Cut: generalization of “design”)

13. 江山易改，本性難移

“Rivers” and mountains can be easily changed, but a personality cannot be altered at all. (Rivers: generalization of “streams”)

14. 離鄉背井

Going outside of his “home”, and working somewhere else. (Home: generalization of “home country”)

15. 挨家挨戶

A “house” after a house, a “door” to a door. (House: generation of a “family,” door: generation of a “residence”)

16. 愛莫能助

You see someone needs help and you want to lend a hand, but your ability is not enough and you regret about that. (You want to lend a hand: paraphrase of “assist”)

17. 愛屋及烏

When you love someone, you love everything about that person. Love the house and extend your love to the crow on its roof. (Whole sentence is a paraphrase of “Love me, love my dog.”)

18. 愛民如子

As you were a King, treating everyone as if they were your own children. (Everyone is the generalization of “citizen.”)

19. 愛不釋手

Something that you see and love so much, you don’t want to let it go.

Something you love and hold tightly and don’t want it to go away. (Don’t want it to go away is a paraphrase of “release.”)

20. 讚不絕口

Always give praise to other people. (Give praise is the paraphrase of “show a sign of admiration.”)

21. 耳聰目明

The people are intelligent; they can learn or understand things easily, and can hear and see things very clearly. (Paraphrase for “bright, clever and quick of understanding”)

22. 耳熟能詳

You hear it very frequently and you can tell about it or give a detailed expression. (Paraphrase for “often heard and well remembered”)

23. 耳聽八方

You can hear anything clearly from everywhere even long distance. (Paraphrase for “extraordinarily alert”)

24. 風平浪靜

No wind and waves. Everything is going well and smoothly. All things follow your ways. (Paraphrase of “The storm abates, all is calm.”)

25. 風風雨雨

Everything is not going well due to lots of wind and rain. (Paraphrase for “disturbances, rumor”)

26. 風和日暖

The weather is good because of gentle wind and warm sunshine. (Good is the generalization for “tender”)

27. 掉以輕心

The victory is not far away, which we can not ignore or relax; otherwise we can be defeated. (Paraphrase for “extremely careful and alert”)

28. 頂天立地

A person works frankly, uprightly, and conscientiously in Tien Dee. (Tien Dee: word switch of “the universe and the earth”)

29. 老當益壯

Although a person is getting old, his body should be stronger due to the hardness endured before. (Body is the generalization of “health condition.”)

30. 回光返照

People suddenly feel spirited and excited and sober before death. (Spirited and excited is the generalization of “becoming healthy.”)

31. 悔過自新

After doing wrong things, he corrects his mistakes and begins his life anew. (A whole sentence is a

paraphrase of “When feeling repentant and then you make corrections.”)

32. 緩兵之計

A method to delay the enemy troops’ attack; a way softens the tension of war situation. (Paraphrase for “a strategy to stall off immediate attack by the enemy”)

33. 患難之交

A friend who can release your suffering and calm you when you are in a difficult situation. (Paraphrase for “a friend who went through difficult times together with you”)

34. 破釜沉舟

Regardless of all consequences, cross the Rubicon. A person firmly determines about what to do. (Paraphrase for “Break cooking pots and sink boats, our army’s grim determination not to retreat.”)

35. 鶴立雞群

Outstanding among the peers, just like a crane standing with a group of chicken. (Paraphrase for “outstanding, a crane among the *chickens*”)

36. 人高馬大

A person is as tall and big as a horse. (Paraphrase for “unusually tall”)

37. 熱血沸騰

The mood is as hot as boiling blood. The person is enthusiastic because of his boiling blood. (Mood is a generalization of “characteristics and emotions.”)

38. 班門弄斧

To teach Lu Ban (the most famous carpenter in ancient China) how to use an axe. (Lu Ban involves code-switching.)

39. 光陰似箭

Time goes as fast as an arrow is ejected. (Goes is a generalization for “flying.”)

40. 口是心非

He says yes through his mouth, but says no in the bottom of his heart. (Paraphrase for “false words and pretense”)

41. 口若懸河

The speed of his speech are like the steady flow and running water of the river (Paraphrase for “persuasive”)

42. 空前絕後

This did not ever happen before and will not happen in the future (Paraphrase for “rare”)

43. 老生常談

One thing has been talked about all the time, and older scholars know it (Old students: generalization for “almost everybody”)

44. 平步青雲

You reach the clouds easily. Someone can easily be successful. (Cloud is a generalization or symbolic of “a great official career or literary rank.”)

45. 有勇無謀

A person who is only brave but not intelligent; he has courage but has no plan in mind. (Intelligent is the generalization for “resourceful tactics.”)

The above oral interpretations through Interlanguage strategy were obviously figured out through thinking in students’ first language. By applying the paraphrase, word-coinage, generalization and code-switching, the 45 examples fully attest, to researchers in field of communication strategies, that the students’ strategic application are mostly conscious, especially after having been taught by the trainers.

From the comprehensible language production, we conclude that the students had learned how to orally interpret their own understanding of the Chinese idioms into their second language, English. These understandable and expressed reflective ideas indicated that the 45 learners tended to welcome the chance to use inter-language strategies in English/Chinese oral translation.

7. Conclusion: Discoveries and Evidences of Consciousness

Rababah (2002) defined a “communication strategy” as “a technique that is used to solve problems in reaching a communicative goal” (p. 3). We believe that in recent years, especially concerning the ‘teachability’ of communication strategies mentioned by so many scholars, strategic application the user should be viewed as a conscious process; users are fully aware of their linguistics limitations and in their choice of using certain learned communication strategies. In this study, we used a methodology based on thinking in first language to disclose the evidence of language learners’ conscious use of communication strategies. Forty five English majors’ oral interpretations of Chinese idioms revealed that the expressions of Chinese philosophies could be easily interpreted through inter-language strategies. Most importantly, the learners’ psychological statuses were proven to be definitely conscious because they had been instructed and trained with the details in communication strategies.

The evidences of the above translations implied that most non-native speakers’ profound chatting about their own cultures or traditions should be based on their conscious awareness. We assumed that they would mostly think first in their mother tongue and then translate the ideas into English through certain strategies they chose. In conclusion, after the issue of ‘**teachability**’ has been fully discussed, the controversy of conscious or unconscious use of strategy psychological status should be considered answered in this post-modern third millennium.

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Chapter XII

Language Assessment

Cohen (1994) notes that “The **assessment** tasks are non-threatening and are developmental in nature, allowing the learners ample opportunities to demonstrate what they know and do not know, and providing useful feedback both for the learners and for their teachers” (p. 1). Similarly, Brown (2004) indicates that a test means a way of measuring an individual’s learning progress, knowledge and performance in a certain field. Without a measurement that reveals the learners’ actual learning effectiveness, the teachers will not be able to access what are essential and reasonable teaching contents for learners. Through the results as well as students’ grades and scores evaluated from testing, the school policy makers would realize what good teaching methodologies are.

Numerous testing specialists argue that **assessment** practices should be guided on the basis of unbiased testing, that is, validity, reliability, practicality, authenticity and washback (Alderson 2001, 2002; Brown, 2004; Hughes, 2003). Hence, an assessment of the English subject should take above five components into consideration, which we think can be what Brown (2004) calls five criteria or principles of English **assessment and evaluation**. These five components reflecting on the examination and improving the equitability of an examination are the successful key points to explain why a test is necessary and acceptable.

When an examination is designed through displaying the five significant characteristics above, it can be regarded as a valuable and accurate one that not only reflects students’ real level but also provides information to administrators and teachers how the curriculum should be arranged. Based on the five components, this study investigates and introduces the concepts and the details in the significant five components of a high-quality test.

1. Introduction: the Definition of a Test

Many students tend to unavoidably feel apprehensive when being informed about a schedule of an examination. They might doubt if their performances of taking the test given by a school instructor would be lower than their classmates. As a matter of fact, a test not only forces students to face their learning result compared with the whole class but also sometimes makes students change their feelings and relationships with their classmates. Through a transcript of an assessment, their talent in learning, acceptance for a certain teacher, and even their **intelligence quotient** (I.Q.) would

be measured with a number as well as their score of a test.

No wonder a test has to be designed very cautiously and equitably. In this article, we emphasize that a psychological establishment and teacher's words of encouragement for students' preparation before a test is held are significant. It is a teacher's responsibility to inform the students to treat the grade of an assessment with a relaxing and mature attitude. A score higher than the others means that this student can be a mentor for the rest of the students; in contrast, a lower score is a stimulation that raises the student's awareness and reminds him/her that he/she should study harder in the future. All individuals should be educated before a test is held. The goal of a measurement is for teachers and students to self-criticize their ways of teaching and learning. As Cohen (1997) noted:

For many, traditional testing has been viewed as a somewhat unpopular area of language teaching and learning. Students have sometimes viewed tests as unfair measures of their language ability and have feared that they would not perform well on them. (p. 2)

We believe that more sophisticated **measurements** of English subjects should not only be designed as a statistical tool for revealing students' and teachers' competences of teaching and learning, but also be established as a functional bridge that conveys the students' and teachers' effectiveness in learning and teaching. On the basis of a test concerning five crucial elements of **validity**, **reliability**, **practicality**, **authenticity** and **washback**, we believe that a 10-minute communication or brief lecture should be given before students are engaged in a test construction.

This should be an essential activity that would contribute to avoid students' anxiousness, cheating or not trying hard to independently achieve a high score. In the following passages, we will give the readers an overview of what the **validity**, **reliability**, **practicality**, **authenticity** and **washback** refer to in this context.

2. Validity

According to Gronlund (1998), a test with **validity** is one trying to achieve "...the extent to which inferences made from assessment results are appropriate, meaningful, and useful in terms of the purpose of the assessment." (p. 226) **Validity** of an assessment means that the extension of assessment results should make teachers' teaching contents more appropriate, meaningful, and useful after the test. Brown (2004) explains validity in this way.

How is the validity of test established? There is no final, absolute measure of validity, but several different kinds of evidence may be invoked in support. In some cases, it may be appropriate to examine the extent to which a test calls for performance that matches that of the course or unit of study being tested. In other case, we may be concerned with how well a test determines whether or not students have reached an established set of goals or level of competence. (p. 22)

In fact, Brown (2004) also indicated that validity construction can be demonstrated through five pieces of evidence of **validity**. In the following passages, this paper will introduce these five pieces of evidence that demonstrate how a test can be regarded as a **valid test** from the aspects of different scholars' theories.

2. 1 Content-related Evidence

The definition of **content-related** proof can be ideally presented by Mousavi (2002) and Hughes (2003). They declare that if an assessment in reality models the subject matter about which grades are to be concluded, and if it requires the examinees to carry out the performance that is being examined, it can assert **content-related** evidence of **validity**. That is to say, the test should reflect the content of the textbook and what teachers have conveyed in the classroom.

Brown (2004) believes that a test can be strengthened with its **content validity** by a good teacher. On the contrary, this also implies that many tests have no satisfactory **content-related** evidence because of teachers' poor control on this issue:

...but classroom teachers have neither the time nor the budget to subject quizzes, midterms, and final exams to the extensive scrutiny of a full construct validation. Therefore, it is critical that teacher hold content-related evidence in high esteem in the process of defending the validity of classroom tests... (p. 24)

In the light of above, teachers should pay more attention to the **content validity** in order to persuade their students to continue to listen to their lectures and follow their instructions in class. If a test can not fully reflect the content of the class progress, the students might not think the test or lecture of the class is worth their attention.

All in all, “**content-related evidence**” can be demonstrated through the test’s content of knowledge, information, and skills. They must reflect in the test with adequate sample items. In order to achieve **content validity**, the test takers can be directly and indirectly tested. They can either really perform the target task or just do a similar task.

2. 2 Criterion-related Evidence

Second, “**criterion-related evidence**” as well as what Brown (2004) has called the “**concurrent validity**” means that the test result must be consistent with the other test’s result in a similar setting.

In the case of teacher-made classroom assessments, criterion-related evidence is best demonstrated through a comparison of result of an assessment with results of some other measure of the same criterion. For example, in a course unit whose objective is for students to be able to orally produce voiced and voiceless stops in all possible phonetic environments, the results of one teacher’s unit test might be compared with an independent assessment-possibly a commercially produced test in a textbook-of the same phonemic proficiency. (p. 24)

Further interpretations for criterion-related evidence that reflect the test validity can be, that is, in two tests under similar parameters such as test time, content, healthy condition ...etc. For one learner, his grades of the two tests should be parallel. Hence, we can also call this type of **validity** “**predictive validity**” because test results should be parallel, predictable and agreeing with future performances.

Consequently, once we find two similar settings for students to test, and the same student has two extreme scores, we would judge that the at least one result of the tests should be doubtful. Through an investigation into the whole components of two assessments, the researchers should find several differences in the parameters of two tests that cause the extreme scores on one student.

2. 3 Construct-related Evidence

Thirdly, we need to observe if there is “**construct-related evidence**” in a measurement. This means a test needs to tap into theoretical construct such as factors of language testing, including **pragmatic** and **strategic components** that consider a learner’s intelligence and language proficiencies equally important. In an assessment considering **construct-related evidence**, a teacher should take both students’ linguistic constructs and psychological constructs into evaluation.

That is to say, students' **communicative competence** and proficiency (Linguistic portion) and **self-esteem** and **motivation** (Psychological portion) are evenly decisive for the individual's score.

Therefore, Davison, Hudson and Lynch (1985) declare that tests are, in a manner of speaking, operational definitions of constructs in that they 'operationally' the entity that is being measured. Take **Test of English as an Foreign Language** (TOEFL) for an example. Although the oral component in TOEFL is omitted ten years ago, it is assumed by the test designers that the other parts, such as listening and writing, have already made positive correlation to the omitted speaking part.

Another example that we would like to offer for explaining **construct-related evidence** is an evaluation through an interview after a communication training course. If students' contents of speeches in the test are more positive, confident and aggressive than the others, the evaluators should add more points to these students' final scores and appraise the students' abilities in pronunciation, grammatical, lexis, and strategy applications.

2. 4 Consequential Validity

The fourth component of language test's **validity** is named **consequential validity** that is associated with the accuracy in measuring intended criteria, the impact on the preparation of test-takers, and the social influences of a test's interpretation and use (Brindley, 2001; Gronlund, 1998; McNamara, 2000). Because of the consequence of a test's interpretation and use taking place on the test takers, the students' motivation, study habits, and attitudes of learning would be altered after they take the examination. Several scholars regard the **consequential validity** as really significant in a test because it could stimulate a learners' motivation of learning due to the fact that a test's interpretation could affect the learner's future careers from the realistic social perspectives.

Reckase (1998) thinks that a responsible test developer would do to gain information to support the consequential basis of **validity** for a test early in the development. Also, he implies that the consequential basis of **validity** of evaluation would be monitored and reported during the life of an educational program by the test developers. His statements actually reflect the present policies of many universities, in Taiwan, where chairs of English departments usually designed students' mid-term and final examinations similar to TOEFL or **General English Proficiency Test** (GEPT) due to their possible contributions to students' future careers from a practical aspect of students' job search or studying abroad.

These administrators actually tend to apply the consequential validity of above two

examinations in school and assist their students to finally achieve higher scores in TOEFL and GEPT, which are regarded as criteria of entering a distinguished graduate school or a corporation promising an infinite bright future. Through the same logic, we can observe that many university administrators would allow their students to submit a certain high scores to achieve in the TOEFL and GEPT in order to wave some of their required Basic English general courses.

2.5 Face Validity

Lastly, the **face validity** should be observed if the following characteristics can be carried out in an assessment. 1. The test should be a little bit difficult and reasonably challenging which would help students think and learn when taking the test. 2. The test should “...refer to the degree to which a test looks right and appears to measure judgment of the examinees who take it, the administrative personnel who decide on its use, and other psychometrically unsophisticated observers” (Mousavi, 2002, p. 244) 3. Face validity makes “... students viewing this assessment as fair, relevant, and useful for improving learning” (Gronlund, 1998, p. 210). It can be high if it includes well-designed time limit, directions, and format.

Brown (2004) sets six principles for teachers to follow and establish **face validity** in their test. His principles of face validity are:

A well-constructed, expected format with familiar tasks, a test that is clearly doable within the allotted time limit, items that are clear and uncomplicated, directions that are crystal clear, tasks that relate to their course work, and a difficulty level that presents a reasonable challenge. (p. 27)

Face validity can't be easily tested by an administrator or even by an assessment expert. Based on the moral spirit of the test designers, a valid **assessment** should be established and the test takers' anxieties could be decreased and their time spent could make them learn more from the procedure of the assessment. It is not meaningful if a test is too complicated and stressful, which might frustrate our students. On the other hand, if a test is always trouble-free, the students might not admire the teacher and the subject matter. They might assume the knowledge gained in the class is disreputable, so that they would become proud. As a conscientious and reputable teacher and a

test designer, we can not ignore the issue of face validity.

3. Reliability

According to Brown (2004), “A reliable test should be consistent and dependable” (p. 20) when the same tests in two different occasions are given to the same student, he or she should have a similar result. The **reliability** can be raised to be the highest if the factors that influence the results can all be carefully paid attention. Based on Cheng’s (2005) study, “To enhance the reliability of the data collection and analysis, the researcher employed two approaches: (a) cross checking with existing data, and (b) inviting inter-coders.” (p.110)

The most significant four factors detrimentally affecting the learners’ grades are **student-related reliability**, **rater-reliability**, **administration reliability** and **test reliability**.

3.1 Student-related Reliability

First, **student-related reliability** can be originated from the examinees’ short-term illness, exhaustion, a bad luck, test takers’ physical or psychological weakness and disadvantaged test strategies applied in the assessment. Actually, it can be also related to their “like” or “not like” the teacher who teaches the subject matter. When the students like the teacher, they pay more attention and effort when taking the test.

On the contrary, if they do not care about how their teacher looks at them, they can pay no heed to the items of the test paper. Therefore, sometimes an outstanding student’s grade could suddenly become very low because of the above extraordinary causes. Hence, a stably commanding condition should be maintained by the test takers who desire to always achieve high scores.

The factors as **test-taker’s** “test wiseness” or their application of examination strategies for efficient test taking would reflect the definition of **student-related reliability** (Mousavi, 2002). We can find many references that teach our students how to avoid the weakness during the period of taking the best, and how to raise the effectiveness of preparing for the test, answering the items and achieving the highest score. In fact, many famous teachers in Bushiban (cram schools) would talk a lot about testing strategies in their lecture, which might be useful in achieving a high grade in the competitive examinations.

3. 2 Rater-reliability

Second, the **rater-reliability** is an issue that may contribute to the unreliability of a test. Rater-reliability contains **inter-rater reliability** and **intra-rater reliability**. **Inter-rater reliability** occurs when two or more scores yield very incompatible scores of the identical test taker, which can happen because the raters' lack of concentration to scoring criteria, immaturity in grading skills, or inflexible biases. In contrast, intra-rater reliability is another frequent event for classroom teachers who tend to give scores based on their own belief. This means that the teacher would give scores without really looking into the examinees ability, but personally and independently give grade according to their own impressions toward students. Sometimes, in Taiwan, we call this is Impressionism score, which means that the teacher might give score to the students based on their "like" and "do not like" toward the students.

Besides, intra-rater bias can also be caused by the teachers' absent-mindedness, which means the teacher does not pay enough attention to the students' proficiency and do not have any concept about the students' competences and capability. Also, the teachers might be too busy doing research on their own and forget their students' study status and progress. **Intra-rater** bias also can take place because of the raters' indistinguishable grading criterion, tiredness, prejudices on certain students, and stubborn impressions on particular excellent or awful students. Brown (2004) described **Inter-rater reliability** as follows.

Human error, subjectively, and bias may enter into the scoring process. Inter-rater reliability occurs when two or more scorers yield inconsistent scores of the same test, possibly for lack of attention to scoring criteria, inexperience, inattention, or even preconceived biases...." (p. 21)

He also stated what the **Intra-rater reliability** is. "Intra-rater reliability is a common occurrence for classroom teachers because of unclear scoring criteria, fatigue, bias toward particular good and bad students, or simple carelessness." (Brown, 2004, p. 21)

3. 3 Test Administration Reliability

The third element that might influence students' grade is **test administration reliability**, which depends on the situations where the examination is conducted, controlled and administrated. The controlling for silence, peace atmosphere and relaxing temperature of the test surroundings can

be the keys to attaining high test administration reliability. Moreover, the stipulations of desks, chairs and equipments of testing, like notebooks or tape-recorders are all very influential on students' score distributions. Brown explained test **administration reliability** as follows.

Unreliability may also result from the conditions in which the test is administered. I once witnessed the administration of a test of aural comprehension in which a tape recorder played items for comprehension, but because of street noise outside the building, students sitting next to windows could not hear the tape accurately. This was a clear case of unreliability caused by the conditions of the test administration. (p. 21)

Indeed, taking a test is usually not a calm activity from the aspect of the examinees. This study suggests that the **test administrators** should show their sympathetic attitude toward using appropriate equipments of testing and reconfirm for the examinees that the air of the testing room is clean and fresh, the temperature is comfortable, and the surrounding of the room is settled down to be silent.

3.4 Test Reliability

The fourth element that influences test takers' grade for a great deal is the test reliability, which includes inappropriate time factor and bad written test items in an examination. This can be resolved only when the test givers and the teachers raise their awareness of counting testing time and fully apply their expertise and knowledge in the **assessment** design.

According to Rexrode, Kathryn, Petersen and O'Toole (2008), "...**reliability** has been assumed to be consistent as an attribute of the test." (p. 262) Based on Weir's statement, "...one obvious way of demonstrating that a test is measuring ability consistently is to give the same test twice to the same group of learners." (p. 25) It is not only very significant but also necessary to ensure the **reliability** of a test when the results are doubted by the test takers. We believe that an assessment's result can be reexamined and investigated by utilizing the survey questionnaires. An unreliable test can be concluded if a test is doubted by a high percentage of test takers in a whole class or a school. The score of an assessment would be reliable if most of the students regard all the parameters in the design of assessment are conducted in an appropriate and acceptable fashion.

4. Practicality

A practical test does not take too much time or money. It should be easy to conduct and have an efficient procedure of scoring. In addition, it is impractical to design an expensive assessment. Practicality of an assessment means that the test should not be very expensive but affordable to most of the students. For example, a student may have an opportunity to achieve a high score through a costly assessment conducted by institutions with a commercial atmosphere. However, it would not be possible for those students who do not have sufficient budget to take the same test.

Second, a test has to be within appropriate time constraints. Either five minutes or five hours may not be the proper time length for the examiners and teachers to discover the learning effects. Namely, a too long or a too short period of test time should not take place since it could not provide the effective results of the learners' learning. It is meaningless to conduct an unpractical test, which would cause waste of time for students and face-losing for teachers.

Third, an assessment has to be relatively easy to administer and it must contain a scoring/evaluation procedure that is time efficient. That is, the feasibility of the administration in an examination is necessary and significant. If an examination is economical, not too short or too long, easy to score, the teacher and students would welcome the tests because they might improve students' learning in an efficient way.

Also, the assessments would provide a quick access to students' learning result for the teachers. Based on the outcomes offered to teachers in a very short time through scoring technique by computers or multiple choice questionnaires, the teachers can efficiently arrange their ways of teaching in order to fit the students' progress of learning.

Above three deliberations from viewpoints of finances, time-consuming, and the scoring method indicate that a practical test might not be easy to achieve without cooperation with school and students. If a teacher can not get access to technical support of school's computing system and students' support to take a 30-minute, or one-hour long test, then the practicality of the assessment could not be carried out. Conclusively, a practical test could occur only when the assessment is held in a good school with the computer-scoring system and patient students who can be required to take a test longer than half an hour.

5. Authenticity

Authenticity of an assessment is related to the target task assigned in the curriculum or the course syllabus and the knowledge that we can apply in our real world. In the second millennium, everybody treats time as money. Therefore, a test must fit the learners' learned contents as well as the knowledge they really need to utilize in the real world. Bachman and Palmer (1996) have defined authenticity in the language assessment as "...the degree of correspondence of the characteristics of a given language test task to the features of a target language task." (p. 23) Usually, the target language test should be associated with the real world and have strong relationship with the target purpose of why the language learners need to learn the language.

According to Cohen (1998), "...authenticity is seen to comprise (1) the relationship between test method characteristics and features of a specific language use situation and (2) the degree to which the test method invokes the test taker's language ability." (p.19) Consequently, the use of technical terms and topics from Shakespeare's play may raise the authenticity of a test for specialists in English literature.

Bachman (1991) points out, since test takers many have perceptions that differ from those of the test developer on the relevance of the test task to their target language use situations, the fit between the test method and language use situation needs to be assessed from different perspectives. Hence, we think if test givers could previously specify particular tasks, contextualized items or thematic organizations of a story or episode, then the form of authenticity can be increased by adjusting the difficulty and clearly assigning tasks for an assessment. Brown (2004) presents five principles for demonstrating what an authentic test is.

The language in the best is as natural as possible. Items are contextualized rather than isolated. Topics are meaningful (relevant, interesting) for the learner. Some thematic organization to items is provided, such as through a story line or episode. Tasks represent, or closely approximate, real-world tasks. (p. 28)

Namely, an assessment should suggest the learners to perform within a specific usual and significant area, through certain types of terms in order to carry out the authenticity in the examinations. For example, the **authenticity** of writing assessment would be improved by means of providing test takers an explicit criterion for grading. Moreover, the examinees should have a basic

conception how well they need to achieve in the test, and what direction they can prepare for the test, based on the requirement of the institution that would need the evaluation result of the test taken. The test takers should be suggested by the test descriptions beforehand. For instance, what specific consequential and professional elements should be included in the writing, so that we can call this test as an authentic test.

6. Washback

The concern of how assessment instruments affect educational practices and beliefs has also been referred to in the literature as the **washback** or the backwash effect (Hughes, 2003 ; Morrow, 1986; Weir, 1998), so we can also call it washback as the test can have an influence on teaching and learning. In fact, “the study of washback is also concerned with the political use of tests to implement changes in classrooms that are seen as improvements by governments.” (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007, p.74) Hence, without doing research and taking the element of washback into consideration, a research can not be well designed. It is thus argued that considering the procedure of **washback** is significant and unavoidable. Cohen (1998) addresses that truly considering the effect of the test on teaching calls for looking at:

1. The effect of the test on the instructional content,
2. The process whereby the content is taught,
3. The rate at which the material is covered,
4. The nature of the sequencing of material,
5. The quantity of material that the students actually learn and the depth at which they learn the given items or objectives. (p. 41)

This lesson of language assessment of this book emphasizes that the **washback** of evaluation is indispensable and noteworthy because it recommends teaching and learning community to discover how sound the teachers instruct and how much the students prepare for the measurement. Brown (2004) interprets **washback** as follows.

...**washback** also implies that students have ready access to you to discuss the feedback and evaluation you have given. While you almost certainly have known teachers with whom you wouldn't dare argue about a grade, an interactive, cooperative, collaborative classroom nevertheless can promote an atmosphere of dialogue between students and teachers regarding evaluate judgments. (p. 30)

The **washback** would be a confirmation that the teachers do worry about each student's learning consequence and development. The teachers pay interest to a certain group of students and appraise their learning condition with details. Through **washback** and warming dialogues between the teachers and each learner, the atmosphere of teaching in the classroom can be peaceful and tolerable. Usually, through a meeting or a portfolio for **washback**, the details and explanations in the interactive dialogues between teachers and the students could be accomplished for both sides, such as how or whether the further course should be conducted and from which characteristic the teachers should reimburse for their previous lessons that might close the eyes to some important parts in the textbooks.

7. Significance of Language Assessment

According to Liying, Todd and Huigin (2004), "Teachers devote a large of their preparation time to creating instruments and observation procedures, marking, recording, and synthesizing results in informal and formal reports in their daily teaching (p. 360)." Through the execution of language measurement, the teachers would be able to assess a way of observing students' learning effectiveness, marking and recording students learning achievement and failure.

Based on Lin and Chien's (2009) study, they discover that during the process of language evaluation, students would gain an entry to learn more if their thoughts could be accurately associated with language usages. More notably, they were diagnosed by the trainers with a professional manner in order to make compensation for their weakness of learning.

General English tests of English Language Learners of English are often dedicated to getting accreditation and a number of exams are known internationally. For example, governments in Taiwan provided a test title **General English Proficiency Test (GEPT)** which four kinds of English proficiencies, Listening, Reading, Speaking and Writing are tested with two sessions of testing.

Also, Trinity College London ESOL similarly offers Integrated Skills in English (ISE), series of 5 tests that assess Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening accepted by academic institutions in the United Kingdom. They at the same time offer a test titled Graded Examinations in Spoken English (GESE), series of 12 periods of evaluations that assess Speaking and Listening and ESOL Skills for Life and ESOL for Work exams in the UK only.

Moreover, University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations provides a suite of five examinations, including First Certificate in English (FCE), Certificate in Advanced English (CAE) and Certificate of Proficiency in English (CPE). Besides, IELTS (International English Language Testing System),

accepted by academic institutions in the UK, Australia, New Zealand and Canada, and by many in the USA, also belong to one of the most significant English proficiency tests in the world nowadays.

Very importantly, **Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL)**, an Educational Testing Service product, developed and applied primarily for universities and colleges in America, and is now widely accepted in tertiary institutions in Canada, New Zealand, Australia, the UK, and Ireland. The current test of TOEFL is Internet based, and is known as the TOEFL iBT (Internet Based Test) used as a proxy for English for Academic Purposes.

1. TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication), an Educational Testing Service product for Business English

2. TSE - Test of Spoken English, grade transcript usually for job searching and entering an institution of studying

3. TWE - Test of Written English, grade transcript usually for job searching and entering an institution of study

Many countries also have their own exams. ESOL learners in England, Wales and Northern Ireland usually take the national Skills for Life qualifications, which are offered by several exam boards. EFL learners in China may take the College English Test. In Greece English students may take the **PanHellenic Association of Language School Owners (PALSO)** exams.

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Chapter XIII

Teaching Writing

This chapter is about a writing project conducted in Taiwan. It suggests that integrated pedagogies of language teaching should be applied in writing courses. Teaching through listening, speaking and reading can help students to improve in writing, This study provides a series of pedagogies conducted in an advanced writing course of senior English majors at a national university in southern Taiwan. The holistic approaches were incorporated into teaching and learning in class.

Through a semester, various pedagogies based on the theory of **holistic teaching** and learning mentioned by Blanton (1992) and Sauve (2002) were designed for 16 participants. Teaching English writing was conducted through guiding discussion activities, instructing reading and writing strategies, and demonstrating model articles on the Internet and assigning learners one minute presentation with writing topics, playing games, and composing essays at home.

Based on the theory proposed by Celce-Muricia (1991), a **linear acquisition sequence** of skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing has led curriculum designers and language educators to introduce these four types of language abilities and to assist students in integrating these four modes of the target language. Indeed, L2 writing competence must not be isolated from the other three kinds of language competence. This study argues that a writing course should be a more wide-range training for the purpose of integrating four types of language proficiency in English into the final goal of English learning, practically using it as a tool of interaction in our daily life.

1. Empirical Study in a Holistic Pedagogy for the Writing Course

During the last two decades, a **holistic approach** has gained prominence in studies of **Second Language Acquisition** (SLA). One central importance is the holistic approach in which the four skills of a language (i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing) were regarded as a whole, which is mutually exclusive with an atomistic approach to language. An atomistic approach attempts to analyze language into components, like grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, or purposeful models which can be defined as independent content of different curricula. In contrast, the holistic

pedagogies emphasize the significance of ability integrating components of various types of English proficiencies. **Holistic pedagogies** focus on making proper correlations among all proficiencies of English and truly apply English as tool of communication through speaking and writing.

Although a holistic approach might have different foci from an atomistic approach , a growing number of language educators and scholars (e.g., Blanton, 1992; Brown, 2001; Sweedler & Carol, 1993) attribute greater importance to a holistic approach . The definition of holistic pedagogy can be defined in either a simple way or a rather complex one. Brown (2001) defines a **holistic approach** as the one which aids students in integrating multiple dimensions of language skills, contending that the integration of the four skills appears to be the only possible approach in the theoretical framework of communication and interaction.

The definition of holistic teaching traditionally tends to emphasize the integrated type of teaching and learning with four skills, including listening, speaking, reading and writing. However, from a more contemporary aspect, the whole person's intellectual, physical, social, emotional, spiritual, and environmental factors might be much more significant than the intellectual way of knowing that the teacher offers the learners (Schiller, 2007). In Schiller's (2007) terms, holistic teaching and learning should take more psychological components into consideration, such as Krashen's (1982, 2003) concern of emotional block (termed *affective filter*).

A holistic approach might take different forms inasmuch as different scholars with different worldviews might not interpret the same thing consistently. Despite the variances of definitions, a rich variety of merits in a holistic approach have been recognized. As described by Blanton (1992), a whole-language approach integrates language and content, thus helping students make best of their time by focusing on one type of language and related language skills.

In the same vein, Brown (2001) suggests that use of one type of language skill reinforces another, such as writing and reading as well as speaking and listening, introducing various types of instruction which can foster **integrated skills**, like content-based instruction, theme-based instruction, experiential learning, the episode hypothesis, and task-based teaching.

Recently, there has been growing concentration in application of the holistic approach to adult education in second language (L2) writing. Egyptian scholars Mohamed and Ahmed (2006) note that "Although all of these skills are important, interrelated and can not be separated, yet developing

the writing skill with all its difficulty has been neglected for a long time due to the adoption of traditional approaches of language teaching that mainly focus on speaking and listening.” (p. 3)

Due to the lack of the holistic type of teaching, students can not develop their English verbal and writing proficiency in a balanced mode, which four types of competence should be not too diverse. In order to resolve the orientation that students are better in speaking than writing, Mohamed and Ahmed (2006) recommend that the holistic form of teaching as well as the whole language approaches should be applied to tutor writing.

In this study that they conducted, a significant enhancement in writing was achieved through training with the updated holistic and whole language type of teaching and learning. Not only were students’ improvements in writing proficiency accomplished, the teacher and students’ relationship was found to be much better through the non-threatening learning milieu that **holistic** and **whole language** type of teaching had created.

In China, Qiang and Wolff’s (2008) study, a **holistic English curriculum** is created and applied. The findings show that the **holistic approach** appears to provide students with more comprehensible input through observation, listening, reading, writing, debate, conversation, and Internet research, thereby allowing learners to have more opportunities to employ and practice different types of language skills at the same time. What is more, this approach seems not merely able to foster self-confidence and intrinsic motivation but also to build up autonomous learners and creative thinkers.

This study conducted at a national university in Kaohsiung, was designed through applying various factors and skills in order to actually show positive evidences of the updated holistic pedagogies. Indeed, in the second millennium, people on the earth are trying to be assimilated and cooperate with each other; we need to integrate our different types of English proficiencies to be a more real ability in communication, through being trained by a **holistic pedagogy**. Only through the **holistic mode**, our learners might have an opportunity to integrate and assess their listening, speaking, reading and writing abilities.

More specifically, this study implies that writing competence should be integrated with speaking, listening, and reading, along with logical brain storming, and makes learners enthusiastically engaged in creating and sharing ideas for various kinds of learning purposes. Based on the **holistic approach**, "...students become intellectually/ cognitively engaged in language and

content." (Blanton, 1992, p. 291) Then, students might become more communicative and internationalized under the current trend of globalization.

2. Research Questions

The primary research question that guided this study was "How effective did learners evaluate the holistic approach?" Furthermore, "How much the advanced-level learners can improve after the treatments of **holistic type of pedagogies**?" In other words, this study aimed to discover to what level the learners of Taiwan would like to accept the updated type of teaching. On the other hand, we would like to know if the holistic teaching would contribute to develop the advanced-level learners' space in improving their writing ability.

3. Assumptions

1. The assumption of this study is that the students would support the **holistic types of pedagogies** applied in the writing course. 2. Students might not cooperate with the updated pedagogies and answer the survey questions because they were not willing to interact and make any presentation in English, which were not traditional types of examinations. 3. The treatments of holistic pedagogies might make student improve a lot in their writing proficiency. 4. The treatments of holistic pedagogies might not have a noticeable improvement in their writing proficiency. 5. The scores before and after complete treatments of holistic pedagogies might not be significantly different. 6. The scores before and after all-encompassing treatments of holistic pedagogies might be significantly different.

4. Methodology of Research

Celce-Murica (1991) has mentioned in the field of ESL teaching and learning, a **linear acquisition sequence** of four skills 1st: listening, 2nd: speaking, 3rd: reading and 4th: writing has guided most **pedagogists** instruct these four skills. Writing indeed is a complex task for the teachers to teach and for learners to develop. In order to strengthen second language learners' writing competence, the order of four skills for integrating propensity of English have to be followed in order to well organize the effective pedagogies in the writing class.

A writing itinerary should not only involve the teachers' professional instruction of writing, but it should also include training for listening, speaking, and reading proficiencies as well. Through reviewing these four skills of English, the last skill as well as the most complex skill, writing could be constructed. Writing expertise can be accomplished in a more effectual and

well-organized system if a lecturer can follow Celce-Murica's (1991) **sequence of linear acquisition**. For this reason, this study attempted to pursue the emphasized progression and designed numerous activities.

4. 1 Research Setting

This study was conducted at National Sun Yat-sen University, where 16 English majors in the Department of Foreign Languages and Literature took their advanced writing course for eighteen weeks. It is a required program for graduation; the students have to pass writing one and writing two in order to take this writing level three, which is the most advanced writing class in the requirements for graduation. In this class, there were three male undergraduates and thirteen female ones. One of them was an apprentice who re-took this class since she failed the same course in the previous year. Two of the English majors were overseas Chinese from Malaysia and the Union of Myanmar, and the others were local Taiwanese students, whose first languages were Taiwanese, Mandarin and Hakka respectively.

Besides, there were four French students from exchanging school, who from time to time came to the class and scrutinize the trainer's oration. These students were exchange students from Paris, Dijon and Niece, involving three males and one female. This group of foreign students had visited the class in its 1st and 2nd sessions. Although they had participated a few activities conducted during that period of time, their performances and test grades were not evaluated and included in this research project. The reason is that the researchers were not able to collect wide-ranging data for comparing and contrasting the effectiveness.

4. 2 Listening articles on the Internet

The **holistic approach** applied in the first session was to help students be able to listen and read at the same time, through reading the articles on the Internet and the teachers' instructions and recitations in class. Through reading composing strategies posted on web sites at Harvard, Texas A&M, and University of Southern California, the trainer vocally instructed a series of writing strategies.

At the same time, the students were able to eavesdrop and understand writings on the screen provided in class and unreservedly interact with the writing trainer in order to gain a deeper understanding of the knowledge in writing. Sometimes the trainer assigned a subsection of instructions of writing strategies for a student to read and the other students to take note.

With the apparatus equipped inside the university's classroom, the digital type of teaching

contributed to the smoothness and efficacy of teaching and learning in the writing course. In this session, knowledge of writing about transition, summary, counterargument...etc, posted in a series of free **e-learning** web-pages were examined by the course members and interpreted by the trainer. In fact, during this period of training, three of class members came to the trainer during the class break and revealed that they considered the resources of Harvard College to be very intellectual, motivation-stirring, and obliging. Actually the resource of the top school had been applied by the researchers due to the concern of establishing the learners' **self-assurance**.

4. 3 Speaking with topics of TOEFL

In the second session of writing course, the instructor applied a list of writing topics in Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) in order to carry out an activity of brain storming. Course members were divided into pairs of eight and requested to contribute their thoughts and proposals for TOEFL writing topics. Students were given guidelines, implications and modification by the instructors when they met difficulties in critical thinking, grammatical problems of structures or pronunciations...etc.

After fifteen minutes of sharing ideas, students were requested to engage in a balloon game for providing ideas. The trainer started the game as the first speaker and demonstrated the short presentation for a minute. After that, the balloon was thrown to the second (next) member of the class, who proposed to give another one-minute presentation based on the contents of brainstorming. This activity lasted for around thirty minutes. Almost all of the class members needed to have a word and speak out.

4. 4 Reading the trainer's articles

In the third session of this writing course, the students were distributed five articles written by the trainer, including thesis based on the topics of **pragmatics**, teaching English as foreign language, cultural study, and linguistics. They were requested to read the published articles in different levels and to give comments as if they were the editors of journal institutions. All course members were requested to do proofreading and bestow commentaries for the published papers through writing reflections on a page. In this session, learners applied their reading and writing skills.

According to the class members' comments and feedback returned to the trainer, the researchers determined that almost all the learners had made sense the meanings contained in the trainer's publication. Although most of the reading assignments were done individually and independently away from the classroom, the researchers of this study were able to check their

understanding of the distributed readings since their commentaries were precise and correct.

4.5 Writing essays through reading the trainer's work and peer scaffolding

The final session of this **holistic curriculum** was a program, which suggested that students should accumulate sufficient competences in reading, listening and speaking for writing. Therefore, in the last few classes, students were requested to perform their holistic ability in essay writing based on TOEFL topics and based on proofreading the trainer's published papers.

In order to stimulate the course members' intrinsic motivation for achieving superiority and perfectness in their integrated abilities of English, the instructor made students freely provide their compositions without limiting their time and quantities of submitting works. Hopefully, without coercing them to offer their homework unswervingly to their lecturer, their peer would be able to activate their brain more relaxingly without anxiety in a habitual fashion.

It was anticipated that alternative type of writing **pedagogy**, **peer scaffolding** suggested by Lee (2008) and Sotillo (2005), would carry out the learners' preeminent presentations in writing articles. A great deal of progress might be achieved due to their relaxing emotion from knowing their articles. This could be upgraded by their peers before submitting them to the lecturer.

Moreover, it was also expected the course members could make senses for the trainer's intricate papers, creating comments for proving abilities of reading in order to establish their confidence of writing, before writing for their peers' proofreading. In fact, taking students' psychological factors of learning into account, Krashen has repeated that learners' confidence should be established. In order to attain this point and reduce the learner's learning apprehension, Schiller (2006) has also contended that the professors should make students revise the articles of their classmates before the instructor corrects them.

5. Data Collection

In this study, qualitative data was collected. At the end of the students' learning, the instructor distributed a piece of survey sheet based on the holistic types of **pedagogies** that had been conducted in the class, and asked students to fill out their reflections through numbers. The research questions of this study were primarily about students' reflections of the holistic type of teaching for the writing class and the **pedagogies** applied in the **holistic approaches**. In order to diminish potential negative influence on students' learning, the researcher found only nine volunteers instead

of a whole class were willing to fill out the survey in five minutes during the class break.

Secondly, students' performances before and after the entire treatments of holistic pedagogies were quantitatively measured. Their basic writing proficiencies were tested through two assignments of five-paragraph techniques of writing. With subject matters from the TOEFL writing topics, their presentations in their midterm and final examination (before and after complete) holistic training were evaluated. This study was anticipated to see the perceptible differences before and after complete training through holistic type of pedagogies. That is to say, the researcher of this study expected to see students make progress in their writing ability because of being trained in an alternative **pedagogy**.

5. 1 Instruments

Firstly, a consent page with survey questions was allocated to every member in the advanced writing course. In order to make the class members honestly and freely answer the questions associated with the effectiveness and efficiencies of **holistic pedagogies**, the researchers of this study did not compel the learners to collaborate and sign the agreement; nine of all class members returned their survey sheets to the researchers. For the purpose of not influencing learners' effectiveness of learning due to wasting time filling out forms, the survey questions only included seven items, which were related to barely primary methodologies applied in their advanced writing course.

5. 2 Data Collection through TOEFL Scoring

In addition, the second instrument is the TOEFL rating criteria designed by ETS. There are points from 6 to 0 for describing seven levels of the writers' achievements. For the highest level 6, the trainer and the rater of this study applied a range of twenty points to more precisely measure the learners' performances. Since the learners in this class were all highest level as well as the advanced-level English majors, who had taken 12 credits of English writing courses of intermediate and basic levels, their performances can not be in the lower two levels of 0 and 1 designed by ETS. Hence, these two levels were considered and designed to be the same levels of twenty points, although they should not be applied in this group of writing learners. Based on the ETS criteria, the students' written texts were calculated by the trainer as well as the rater, and the grades were given to the students for self-inspection.

6. Limitations

The limitation of this study is that some students might not support the holistic types of approach due to their intentions for traditional examination preparation. They did not fill out surveys cooperatively. Since seven class members did not return the survey sheets, the conclusion of **holistic pedagogies** might be a bit biased and too optimistic.

Moreover, the limitation of this study is that some students might not answer the question honestly because they worried that their scores graded by the researcher (as well as their teacher) would be lower if they did not support the applied **holistic approach**. In other words, volunteers might always answer in a positive way, because they might want to please the researchers as well as the trainer in order to gain a higher final score.

7. Results

The results of this study based on qualitative and quantitative investigation both showed that the holistic types of writing **pedagogies** are important and necessary. Positive attitude toward the applied **pedagogies** through listening, speaking, reading, and actual writing was found and declaimed by volunteers. At the same time, learners' performances between incomplete **holistic** teaching and complete holistic teaching were evaluated, which demonstrated the complete one contributing to the learners' improvement in a significant way. The following two paragraphs will more clearly interpret the collected data.

7.1 Based on Qualitative Data

After analysis of the qualitative data collected from nine volunteers, the result of this study revealed that most students welcome the trainer's holistic approaches applied in class. Seven students expressed that through reading, listening, and speaking, they could make more progress in writing. Five students (> 50%) believed especially for advanced writing, reading, listening, and speaking should be contained in the writing course. Eight out of nine students believed that four skills should interactively influence each other.

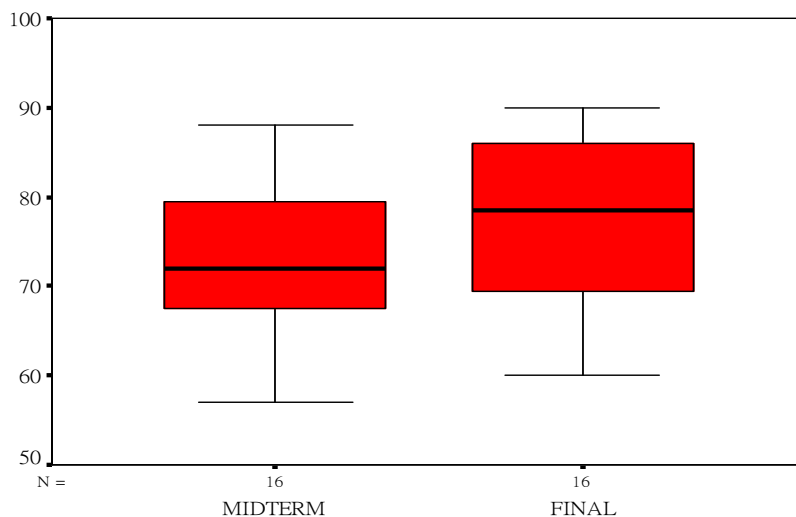
They were of the same opinion that the holistic approach should be applied. About the activities conducted in the classroom, seven students (> 50%) students expressed that they could absorb the teachers' recitations for the writing strategies on Harvard's website. Five students (> 50%) felt benefited from teacher and classmates' lectures in class. Six students agreed that one minute presentation based on TOEFL writing topics was useful for making progress in their writing.

7.2 Based on Quantitative Data

Moreover, based on the performances before and after complete holistic types of pedagogies, the class members' scores in writing essay based on TOEFL topics revealed the effectiveness of holistic pedagogies in this advanced writing course. In the middle of the semester, students had experienced learning writing through listening and speaking. Their average grade of writing evaluated through criteria (see Appendix B.) designed by ETS was seventy-three. A significant difference in the second measurement after experiencing listening, speaking, peer reading, and reading teachers' works, was with an average score of 77.

Based on the graphs analyzed by Statistics Package for Social Science (SPSS), it is uncomplicated to discover, the holistic pedagogies did assist students make a certain level of progresses in their writing proficiency. The statistical data in the T-test revealed that there was a significant difference before and after complete holistic training, since the p-value was close to zero. In other words, dissimilarity up to four points between two means in midterm and final examination reveals that the holistic pedagogies through listening, reading, peer correction, and writing are apparently effective and efficient.

Graph 1. Box plots displaying significant differences between two sessions of complete and incomplete holistic pedagogies



Graph 2. One-Sample Test for Statistical numerical data revealing the significant grade difference between two sessions of incomplete and complete holistic pedagogies

Test Value = 0						
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
MIDTERM	32.647	15	.000	73.00	68.23	77.77
FINAL	33.794	15	.000	77.00	72.14	81.86

8. Conclusion

From the results of the survey questions, this study revealed that students tended to support the **holistic approaches** applied in the writing course. There was no activity conducted in the writing course and mentioned in the surveys which were rejected by the students. All of them were supported by more than fifty percent of the volunteers. Hence, this study argues that **holistic approach** should be applied in teaching writing itinerary, and also it can be accomplished through Celce-Murcia's (1991) linear acquisition sequence.

Furthermore, from the measurements of before and after complete holistic types of training; class members' performances were notably different. This is the best illustration that holistic types of pedagogies for writing need to be included and even promoted. As English teachers, we usually are worried about how much improvement students would make after taking our class. With the holistic type of the curriculum design, we do not need to worry to any further extent about students might squander time due to taking our class. In other words, if we can teach through four types of English skills and make our learners relaxingly immerse in the English environment, we do not have to be afraid that we will dissipate our learners' precious time taking out class. The reason is that their improvement might be predictable after holistic types of training.

Unflinchingly, **autonomous learning** might be stimulated through teacher's concern for the learners' psychological status. A holistic approach based on Schiller's theory, some games and music need to be applied in order to stir up the learners' learning motivation. Moreover, based on Blentons' (1992) theory, integrating language and content is a more meaningful way of teaching

and learning.

The four skills of language should be developed and established in a balanced manner. Students should not be taught in traditional ways, i.e., to teach four skills separately without integrating them into meaningful English interaction. In sum, this study emphasizes that listening, speaking, and reading should be also taught in a holistic manner in a writing course in order to integrate students' language expertise into their **writing aptitude**.

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Appendix A.

Consent form and Survey Sheet

Consent form for Data Collection

My name is _____. I am a volunteer who have willing to provide answers toward my teacher Grace Hui Chin Lin's class. The data that I offered will not be displayed with my name in order to protect my privacy. The survey with data will be located in Grace Lin's office for five years.

Survey for Holistic Pedagogies applied in Writing III

A. Agree

B. Disagree

1. I have trained through speaking in one minute prompt lecture with topics of TOEFL. I think this is helpful in improving my composition ability.
2. I have read many articles including my teacher's writings, writing strategies through Websites of Harvard University and Texas A&M University. I think this is helpful to my progress of writing thesis.
3. I have listened to my teacher's and classmates' lecture focused on one subject. I think this is helpful to my ability of expressing and writing.
4. I think writing should be a combined proficiency of all four English skills, so I enjoy the holistic pedagogies that my teacher had applied in my advanced writing class.
5. I feel through "reading", "listening," "speaking," I can make more progress in my writing.
6. Because of the four skills should interactively influence each other, I agree to be taught through the way my lecturer is conducting her class.
7. I feel reading listening and speaking should be contained in the writing class especially for the highest level of writing.

Appendix B.

Criteria of Writing Assessments for Midterm and Final examination

TOEFL Writing Section Scoring Criteria

There are scores, relating to the Writing portion of the TOEFL Ñomputer based and Paper based TOEFL test, provided below.

Your essay will receive a score of 6 (100) in case if:

- It addresses the writing task in an effective way.
- The essay can be considered as well organized and well developed.
- There are clear and appropriate details, which provide strong support to the thesis statement, and / or which illustrate the main ideas, used in the essay.
- The essay displays consistent facility in the application of language.
- There is a syntactic variety and appropriate word choice, demonstrated in the written TOEFL essay.

Your essay will receive a score of 5(80) in case if:

- Some parts of the task are addressed in more effective way, in comparison with the others.
- The essay can generally be considered well organized and developed.
- There are details, which provide support to the thesis statement, and / or which illustrate the main ideas, used in the essay.
- Your TOEFL essay displays facility in the application of the language.
- There is at least some level of syntactic variety and range of vocabulary, demonstrated in the essay.

Your essay will receive a score of 4 (60)in case if:

- Parts of the task do not correspond to the topic of the essay, although in general it addresses its topic in quite an adequate way.
- The essay can be considered to be organized and developed adequately.
- There are details, which provide support to the thesis statement, and / or which illustrate the main

idea, used in the essay.

- There is an adequate, although somewhat inconsistent facility with syntax, as well as there can be contained some errors, which can obscure the meaning occasionally, in your TOEFL essay.

Your essay will receive a score of 3 (40) in case if:

- The essay is considered to be organized and developed in an inadequate way.
- It is either inappropriate or there are no sufficient details, which can be used to support or illustrate generalizations, in the TOEFL essay.
- The choice of words or of word forms is noticeably inappropriate.
- There are multiple errors in the structures and / or usage of sentences.

Your essay will receive a score of 2 (20) in case if:

- There is a serious disorganization and / or underdevelopment noticed in the TOEFL essay.
- There are little or no details, which provide support to either thesis statement or which illustrate the main idea of the essay.
- The errors, done in sentence structure or usage are either serious or frequent, or both.
- There are serious problems with the ability to get focused on the main idea of the essay.

Your essay will receive a score of 1 (0) in case if:

- The essay is considered to be incoherent and underdeveloped.
- There are severe and persistent writing grammatical, syntactical and other types of errors, contained in the essay.

Your essay will receive a score of 0 (0) in case if:

- There is no response, contained in the TOEFL essay.
- The essay does not copy the topic, or if it copies it merely.
- The TOEFL essay is considered to be off its topic.
- It is written in some foreign language or consists only of keystroke characters.

Chapter XIV

Peer Correction for Writing I

This chapter introduces an Investigation into Effectiveness of **Peer Feedback**. Copious researches argue the effectiveness of peer-correction in writing courses (e.g., Connor & Asenavage, 1994). Also, Coit (2004) mentions using **peer feedback** for correcting articles through a student-centered environment is a beneficial pedagogy to extend learners' academic writing practice. Therefore, this study focused on investigating effectiveness of peer feedback from communal, cognitive, cooperative and pedagogical perspectives. This study argues that it is English writing teachers' obligation and responsibility that they should ensure their writing learners compose articles in an atmosphere where they can learn from their peers cooperatively.

1. Peer Feedback

According to Coit (2004), "Based on theories in collaborative learning and social cognitive development, peer review has assumed an important role in both L1 and L2 writing classrooms." (p. 902) When students are authorized to take on the role of the editor for their peer's papers to carry out the correction process, they seem to be more confident and motivation-stimulated in their writing courses.

At the beginning of our second millennium, free writing is one of the primary methods that human beings use to convey their thoughts and communicate with each other. In a democratic educational environment of Taiwan, language learners also express their thoughts and opinions through composing articles. However, during learners' writing period, it is possible writers are not able to easily complete their articles due to negative emotions caused by their teacher's corrections.

Krashen (1983) has emphasized, emotional block could be one of the primary key factors to affect how well a learner can learn a language. Hence, this study aimed to release the language learners' stress through a specific pedagogy, peer feedback. In fact, there are many advantages of peer feedback that the students and teachers can identify. First of all, peer feedback is suggested as pedagogy of providing more self-control to language learners (Mendonça and Johnson, 1994).

The reason is that peer correction would provide more flexible and non-coercive decisions about whether the learners should adopt their peers' suggestions. In contrast, students would have less choice and usually have to follow the school's regulations and listen to their teachers' feedback. The peer correction should be a more modern and democratic pedagogy concerning the

self-determining and student-centered concepts, which make students, feel freer and more independent.

In addition, replying to peer corrections and giving suggestions allow students to see similar problems and weaknesses in their own writing (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). Based on the same topic, students would gain opportunities to read different formats of thinking and arguing. Also, they are able to self-evaluate through reading their peers' articles. Then, they can gain an idea of how much they should make progress in order to follow the whole class' learning pace.

John Dewey (1859~1952) argues that the knowledge associated the real life is more valuable knowledge. Also, a democratic atmosphere in the classroom should be a more appropriate mode that respects students' willingness. Consequently, the researchers in this study argues that the language learners in Taiwanese universities should obtain their opportunity to learn writing in a humanized learning environment that takes factors of emotion, real world, and peers' interactive brainstorming into considerations.

2. Literature Review

From the 1970s, peer revision has been widely applied by writing teachers in first language (Bruffee, 1984; Elbow, 1973, 1981, Gere, 1987; Nystrand, 1986; Spear, 1988). Also, this type of modernized pedagogy in early years was also applied in the second language classrooms (Bell, 1991; Hafernic, 1983; Hvitfeldt, 1986). Based on the above studies, the peer feedback in first language and second language were both encouraged and applied four decades ago.

Although these pedagogies had been discussed and executed for a long time, similar studies conducted for investigating and evaluating for their effectiveness were rarely found in Taiwan. Therefore, this study of peer revision in second language learning conducted at a University in Taiwan might be able to present as a significant model that would represent Taiwanese students' characteristics and responses in learning through peer corrections.

A lot of studies had been managed to investigate the effectiveness of peer feedback. Most of them revealed that peer readers can provide useful feedback (Caulk, 1994; Mendonça & Johnson, 1994; Rollinson, 1998). Also, the comments could be accepted either completely or partially (Rollinson, 1998). Hence, it was predicted by the researchers of this study, that the participants in this advanced writing course might also hold a positive attitude toward learning through peer's

cooperations and interactions.

3. Methodology

In order to achieve this significant goal of releasing students' anxiety and raising their confidence in their writings, this study associated with peer correction was conducted and demonstrated at a required writing course assigned by the Department of Foreign Languages and Literature, a National University in Taiwan, Republic of China. During eight weeks of writing training and peer feedback activities, seven volunteers out of sixteen 16 English majors provided their feelings of the selected pedagogies in their advanced writing course in three credits.

This study lasted eight weeks and was divided into four sessions. At first, course members were trained numerous writing strategies and skills in the first two weeks. In the second session, they were guided to do in-class writing with the assigned topics associated with theories and concepts in their professional fields. At the same time, they obtained an opportunity to read their peers' writings and make corrections for them in both first language and second language. After the course members' correction, the trainer (one of the two researchers) also gave her different or similar grades and commentaries on the same papers.

Peer feedback, with its potentially high level of replies and interactions among classmates, gives the sense of confidence through a collaborative and friendly dialogue in which two-way feedback is established and thinking is negotiated between two sides (Rollinson, 2005). Barnes (1976) mentioned that increased opportunities for peer interaction because it allows students to engage in "exploratory talk." (p. 200)

Hence, the trainer in this course assigned several writings to course members as their assignments and made the students exchange their works for revisions. Their writings were thesis papers, which were written based on learned writing strategies and topics of Krashen's theory of "**Affective Filter.**"

At the end of writing training process for eight weeks, volunteers' perceptions of peer feedback were collected through a list of survey questions (see Appendix II). After the answers as well as the data of this quantitative study were collected, their statements about their perceptions of peer feedback style of learning were analyzed and reported.

3. 1 Research Schemas

1. Session 1 (the first two weeks), the power point files introducing writing strategies had to be produced.
2. Session 2 (the 3rd and 4th weeks), course selectors' in-class writing and peer correcting activities had to be executed.
3. Session 3 (the 5th and 6th weeks), researcher cooperators were suggested to find a positions toward peer **feedback pedagogies**. At the same time, the students learned thesis writing strategies with their trainer and their papers were corrected by peers.
4. Session 4 (the last two weeks), data (survey) provided by seven volunteers had to be transcribed, analyzed and reported.

3. 2 Statistical Study through Survey Questions

This was a quantitative study through survey containing ten questions (see Appendix II.). Most of the variables and points on the survey sheet were key concepts investigated by previous studies (e.g. Mendonça & Karen, 1994). They were questions about how the research project cooperators perceived about the updated curriculum design of **peer scaffolding**. Did they support the pedagogies that the teachers had applied in class? Did the language learners in this class enjoy the training setting of peer corrections and interactions? Did they feel supportive through their peer's review process? How much did they improve through learning from peers?

Because the language learners' perceptions of the selected pedagogies might be complex and vary, adopting survey questions with levels of three different degrees: 1. Strongly Agree, 2. Agree, and 3. Not Agree, was regarded as necessary. Through students' answers from their own willingness and freedom, the results of this study would be able to provide more accurate results from students' views. The results of the study would be valuable data for researchers in the field of, English education, and policy makers and curriculum designers in English writing learning.

4. Assumptions

The language learners might support their trainer's application of peer feedback.

1. The language learners hold negative attitudes toward applied **peer revision** pedagogies.
2. The language learners have ambiguous positions toward the discussed issues.

5. Limitations and Solutions

The major limitations and difficulties of this study would be participants' answers offered to the researchers might be not totally frank due to their worry or concern about the final grade scored by the trainer.

The resolutions to this dilemma were that the researchers had to inform the learners in advance that their negative reflections toward the **peer feedback** pedagogies must be expressed and revealed if they perceive any. In addition, the trainer notified the volunteers that any of their negative criticisms and disapprovals toward pedagogies applied would not affect their final grades.

6. Instruments of Training and Data Collection

A laptop was used to create eight power point files presenting the writing strategies by the trainer (a member of two researchers). During trainer's presentations of power point files for introducing writing skills of research papers, a projector of the screen was provided by the school and applied by the trainer. After the training for eight weeks, students' papers were corrected by their peers for three times. After students' correction, the trainer also proofread and graded the students' papers again.

At the end of the eight weeks of learning and correcting processes, seven volunteers were invited to answer a list of survey questions after signing a **consent form** (See Appendix I.). In order to do this research more efficiently without wasting course selectors' learning time in class, volunteers filled the form out using several minutes during the class break. Participants were requested freely and honestly to fill out the questionnaires according to their true feelings about applied **pedagogies**.

7. Contribution of this Study

This study emphasized that language learners must gain knowledge of English writing in a democratic atmosphere where they had more choices on whether the corrections from the others would be accepted. The results of the study provided the administrators in Taiwanese universities valuable suggestions on whether they should include the **peer feedback pedagogies** in the syllabus of writing courses. The volunteers' perceptions of the selected pedagogies were precious information in the field of English education, which advised how the writing courses in Taiwanese universities should be designed and taught.

The trainer as well as one of the two researchers of this study had achieved a challenging peer

feedback study, which was very different from the conventional teacher feedback pedagogy. This research project of English writing not only demonstrated how the pedagogies of peer feedback could be practiced in an English majors' course at a university, but also it provided language learners with the effectiveness of the pedagogies.

8. Findings and Results

The results of this study revealed that most participants believed that **peer feedback** positively assisted their learning in English writing. At the end of eight weeks, seven out of sixteen course selectors used five minutes after their writing course to sign their consent form and answer questions in the survey sheets. The results showed that most language learners had positive attitude toward the pedagogy of peer feedback. Only two answerers indicated that they still need teachers' corrections in their compositions (from Q1, 28.6%). The following explanations showed how students in this study perceived from their learning.

In the first question, five volunteers agreed that they preferred peer feedback to teachers' feedback. Only two volunteers (28.5 %) pointed out that they did not agree with the statement that they usually feel their trainers' corrections influence their emotions and motivation of studying writing subject matters. Two volunteers (28.6%) in this study expressed that they "strongly" agreed with their **classmate's feedback** to be easier to read because they would feel much more relaxed. The rest of the five answerers (71.4%) indicated they "agree" with this point as well. There was no student who could feel undemanding and calm down to examine his/her trainer's feedback when compared with reading peer's feedback.

In the third question, all the seven volunteers (100%) agreed they preferred to read peer feedback to teachers' comments. However, in the fourth question, the researchers in this study surprisingly found that although students felt more contented to read peer's feedback, they felt learning more through teachers' commentaries. In the students' answers for the fourth question, six out of seven students did not agree that they could learn more from their peers than their trainer.

In the fifth question, six out of seven volunteers agreed or strongly agreed that through brainstorming activity, they were more confident and felt supportive because of the proceeding cognitive interaction created by peers. Also, in the sixth question, this study revealed that all of the seven students (100%) felt more comfortable because they gained an access from peer correction to know their peer's writing proficiency.

Seven volunteers (100 %, 2 strongly agree & 5 agree with the 7th Q.) all agreed that they felt

social interaction through writing and **peer feedback** provided them more inspiration and motivations in writing. However, only two participants attributed their improvements to their peer's feedback in the eighth questions. In the last two questions associated with points about their acceptance of peer feedback activity in the writing course, five out of seven research cooperators agreed that they hoped their articles could be revised and proofread again by peers. Also, they believed that the peer feedback pedagogy should be applied in English class.

9. Discussion

From the analysis of the collected data, most participants addressed peer correction activities did make them learning experience more relaxing, confident, and inspiring. On the other hand, they did not totally agree that **peer's corrections** would make them improve much more than the trainer's corrections. Participants perceived that they would be able to have more insights and directions of writing based on their peer's cognitive interactions. This obviously revealed that the participants gained the benefits of linguistics improvements in English writing subject from peer's cooperative activities of brainstorming and group discussions.

From the results concluded in the 4th question, this study indicated that teachers' corrections can not be totally replaced by peer corrections. Language learners might be more traumatic when reading teacher's commentaries. They yet have a preference to face the challenge of the face trouble and endeavor to absorb what their professors suggested. To sum up, this study revealed that both of trainer's and peer's corrections are supportive for language learners when learning and training writing.

10. Conclusions

In this peer feedback research project, English writing learners not only arranged their own contents of writing but also read the contexts created by their peers. Through adopting the positions of interested reviewers, proofreaders, and observers, English writing learners gained opportunities to assist their peers by exchanging ideas of the similar topics. Based on the constructive perceptions of elaborations instead of **peer-competitions**, the corrections given to each other, produced the functions of providing skills of negotiations and diplomacy, verbal communications, giving and accepting criticism, justifying one's positions and assessing suggestions objectively (Topping, 2000).

From this eight-week long research project conducted for English majors in the Department of Foreign Languages and Literature, the researchers discovered that most students agreed peer

feedback had its effectiveness and should be taken into consideration when teachers design their curricula in writing courses. Conclusively, Vygotsky (2000) emphasizes that learning should involve the internalization of social interaction processes, which helps the learner make progress from complex to conceptual thinking.

Moreover, Krashen (1985) on the other hand argues that affective filter caused by teacher's correction would be a block of students' confidence. We recommend that peer feedback based on the concepts of "social and **cognitive interaction**" and "releasing students' anxiety" should be applied in the writing courses at universities in Taiwan.

Appendix I.

Consent Form

I _____ (Chinese name) am willing to help and provide 5 minutes for completing the 10 survey answers. The research of Peer Correction has conducted in my class for eight weeks, and my feelings of the pedagogies applied will be offered.

My answers will be employed as the data of the research and the results will be revealed through Synonym (for protecting my privacy).

I am not coerced to cooperate with Lin and I am a volunteer of this study. I am using the five-minute class break and complete the survey for this study of Peer Feedback. My learning in writing will not be influenced negatively due to answering this survey.

My answers in the instruments of this study will be reserved for five years in Lin's office. My willingness in cooperation will not influence my final grade in this writing course. The data will be destroyed after five years.

Signature: _____ (Name in English and Chinese)

Appendix II.

Survey Sheet of Peer Feedback

You are an English major in the Department of Foreign Languages and Literature, Kaohsiung. Please answer the following questions based on your perceptions and feelings in learning writing during the past eight weeks. In order to ensure the confidentiality of this study, your name both in English and Chinese will be done anonymously. All of the information you gave me will be treated as completely confidential and it will not be possible for people to recognize the information you gave me when I report the results of this study. Please give answers honestly and freely to all of the 10 questions.

When answering the questions, please fill in the following number 1. 2. 3. according to your true perceptions in learning writing through peer feedback.

1. *Strongly Agree* 2. *Agree* 3. *Not Agree*

- Q1. () I usually feel that my teachers' corrections for my paper influence my emotion and motivation in learning writing. I feel not confident and am nervous after reading my teachers' negative comments.
- Q2. () I feel more relax to read my classmate's feedback for my writings.
- Q3. () I prefer peer feedback to teacher's feedback.
- Q4. () I feel that peer feedback makes me learn more in a relaxing way.
- Q5.() Through cooperation and cognitive interaction with my peers, I am able to write more confidently and more supportively.
- Q6. () Through exchanging ideas and knowing my peer's writing proficiency, I feel much more comfortable in the writing class.
- Q7. () Social interaction through writing and peer feedback, provided me more inspiration (ideas) and motivations in writing.
- Q8. () Generally speaking, eight weeks, I feel that I have improved my writing skills because of the peer feedback activity in my Advanced (Writing III) English Writing course.
- Q9. () Hopefully, my essay and thesis can be revised and proofread by my classmates again because I can learn more.
- Q10. () I think peer feedback pedagogy should be applied in English classes if I will work as an English teacher in my future career.

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Chapter XV

Peer Correction for Writing II

This chapter introduces a **peer correction** research as well as a research about collaborative scaffolding. Topping (2000) argues that based on the constructive perceptions of elaborations instead of **peer-competitions**, the corrections given to each other, produced the functions of providing skills of negotiations and diplomacy, verbal communications, giving and accepting criticism, justifying one's positions and assessing suggestions objectively.

The purpose of this study is to investigate how collaborative scaffolding of writing pedagogy is viewed from the perspective of university language learners in Taiwan. These years, collaborative scaffolding is a recommended alternative pedagogy in writing lessons of English as a Second/Foreign Language (ESL/EFL). Its helpfulness has been proved to be positive by a considerable number of researchers (e.g., Chen, 2004; Connor & Asenavage, 1994; Ferris 2003; Harris, 1992; Hyland, 2002; Tso, 2001; Villamil & DeGuerrero, 1996).

1. Teacher Centered Vs. Student Centered Classrooms

The **teacher-centered** instruction of the conventional pedagogies seems to be commonly used in most of the English learning surroundings in Taiwan; therefore, collaborative scaffolding in the writing course might not be considered an appropriate technique from the Taiwanese conventional students' views. This study conducted in a national-level university in National Sun Yat-sen University attempted to hold a disinterested point of view and to inspect the Taiwanese learners' attitudes toward this alternative type of **pedagogy** of writing correction. The researchers, before interviewing participants, clarified this study for the participants about the ongoing investigation, in order to elicit students' true perceptions of this alternative writing pedagogy, that is, collaborative scaffolding.

Eight volunteers out of twenty-six students expressed their feelings about the innovative pedagogy through an open-ended question "How do you feel about collaborative scaffolding?" The result of this study showed that most of the students mentioned that they greatly needed feedback from the teacher. The result of this study implies that collaborative scaffolding might be helpful; yet

it should not be the only or major pedagogy employed in the writing class.

1. 1 An Overview of peer correction

Pedagogy of writing correction in the New Era is different from the traditional teacher correction, since it emphasizes the not only teacher's authentic correcting but also peers' comments and encouragements. In fact, numerous studies have been managed to examine the value of peer feedback (e.g., Rollinson, 2005). Nowadays, many English instructors conducting the activities of peer correcting articles through internet. Thurston, Duran, Cunningham, Blanch, and Topping (2009) report a study of an on-line peer tutoring project, where a group of nine to twelve years old students as well as the experiment group of peer tutoring, were able to do peer tutoring and help each other in English and Spanish.

According to Lin and Chien (2009), "Through adopting the positions of interested reviewers, proofreaders, and observers, English writing learners gained opportunities to assist their peers by exchanging ideas of the similar topics." (p. 262) Most of them have disclosed that peer readers can provide helpful feedback (Caulk, 1994; Mendonça & Johnson, 1994; Rollinson, 1998). In addition, the comments could be accepted either completely or partially (Rollinson, 1998). Similarly, Villamil and DeGuerrero (1996) have stated that, "...peer collaboration in the writing classroom may provide the stage for students to learn not only how to cope with different types of people, abilities, and point of view but also to regulate their own behavior accordingly." (p. 69)

Through classmates' cognitive interactions, language learners might not merely obtain more ideas in writing, but also they can evaluate if their ideas in the essay are acceptable for most of the people in our society. Likewise, Vygotsky (1978) has emphasized that the success of education should be guiding students to integrate with the interactive outer society. Peer collaboration of editing articles consequently can be regarded as a supportive way of leading students into social communication and peer teamwork. Indeed, collaborative scaffolding in the second language classroom has been emphasized by a good number of researchers and English educators (e.g., Chiu, 2009).

1. 2 Through Brainstorm and Discussion

The cooperation in class through brainstorming and discussion is common in current ESL classroom. **Peer feedback** for writing courses appears to be one type of acceptable alternative pedagogy which enhances peer cooperations and positive interactions in class. This study was conducted to investigate how Taiwanese students would view this issue and which might be a more

updated alternative pedagogy of writing for them.

High school students in Asia tend to study in a **teacher-centered** fashion, which implies that it might be a controversy whether students would support or object to this alternative writing pedagogy. The reason is that high school students have never been guided to give commentaries to their peers, so that they might not feel accustomed to this new kind of writing pedagogies after entering universities. That is, we assume that university students in Taiwan might not be able to quickly and naturally get used to a learner-centered environment, even though their class was designed and directed in this unconventional way.

Collaborative writing encourages social interaction among writers and their peers through activities such as peer response. (Ferris and Hedgcock, 1998) Collaborative scaffolding belongs to a student-student interactive approach, which a teacher can work in the classroom like a mentor or a counselor. Students in Asia used to treat their teacher as a parental role of authority, and the students' roles of being taken care were formed for a long time.

Hence, our question of this study is that to what level the university language learners in Taiwan can accept the technique which focuses more on collaborative scaffolding instead of exclusively on teacher's corrections. It has been a long time since they only received their teachers' corrections and treated their peers as competitors due to the exam-oriented pressure. How well can adult learners start to interact and cooperate with each other and provide useful feedbacks and comments through the analytic scoring method to their peers? This eight-week study aimed to discover the answer to the question "How do adult language learners in Taiwan can be accustomed to the new pedagogies of collaborative scaffolding?"

During the last four decades, collaborative scaffolding has been discussed and researched as a significant issue in teaching English writing. This student-centered style of writing course is usually addressed or concluded as a way to improve language learners' writing. Pierson (1967) argued that if teacher-correction does not produce the improvement of students' composition, perhaps peer-correction would be more effective.

In the 1970s, Witbeck (1976), a lecturer in Department of English and American Studies, Comenius University in Czechoslovakia, not only approves of the pedagogy of peer correcting, but also proposes his peer correcting procedures for intermediate and advanced English learners in their composition lessons. He concludes that "...peer correction procedures result in increasingly more accurate and responsible written work on the part of most students and foster a more constructive classroom atmosphere for teaching the correctional aspects of composition." (Witbeck, 1976, p.

321)

In fact, most of the later studies on peer reviews apply the “compare and contrast” ways of the study. Two groups of control and treatment were taught in diverse pedagogies, and then the students’ effectiveness was compared and contrasted. For example, Stanley (1992) has researched interactions of fifteen college learners who were trained to respond to peers’ work and compared them to the interactions of learners who merely took part in a short demonstration course. Like most of the studies, Stanley’s results suggest that collaborative scaffolding made the students’ performance better than traditional teacher-correction method.

Moreover, plenty of recent studies are designed to develop the collaborative scaffolding sheet as well as a rating scale for students which can be used as criteria in a **peer feedback** activity. For example, ten criteria grids are developed by a Manoa Writing Program of The University of Hawaii at Manoa. Through these collaborative feedback forms, students are more able to gain knowledge of learning writing together with regard to how to grade works of their peers. Actually, these criteria should not be only for teachers but also can be for **peer corrections**.

Rayenne (2008) has researched for the effectiveness of peer correction. Through the method of online assistance, Rayenne (2008) compares the different types of online interaction style between the non-native speaker peers and the native-speakers tutors. “Non-native speakers appeared to produce more elaborated turns, but very few initiations of topics or requests for clarification.” (p. 409) Rayenne (2008) reports “...that the peer tutoring technique was highly significant in raising non-native speakers’ awareness on the gaps they had in their Interlanguage. Analysis of the survey revealed that this project was an enjoyable experience despite the few practical issues encountered.” (p. 409)

Suzuki (2008) conducted a research to compare peer revision and **self correction** in Japan, which observed the diverse type of behaviors in peer revision. Suzuki (2008) points out that in his research and course of English composition through pedagogies of peer-revision and self revision, several genres of behaviors can be observed, categorized and revealed,

Analyzing their negotiation episodes and text changes, I categorized within a common coding scheme the types of negotiation from (a) think-aloud protocols of participants' self revisions, (b) transcriptions of their discussions during peer revisions, and (c) changes students made to their written texts in both conditions of revising...stimulated recall interviews with individual students. More episodes of negotiation appeared during peer revisions (682 episodes) than

during self revisions (522 episodes), but approximately twice as many text changes occurred during participants' self revisions (287 text changes) as occurred during their peer revisions (166 text changes).

1. 3 Research in Taiwan

In Taiwan, many studies have been conducted with the topic associated with peer correction as well. For example, Tu (1997) compared the effectiveness of peer correction and self revision in writing classes for English majors. He reported that in terms of students' writing quantity and quality, the peer revision group performed significantly better than students in the self-correction group.

Another example, Teo (2006) in Taiwan "...developed a structured and easy to implement peer assisted writing activity to compensate for the lack of structures in many existing paired writing methods." The processes he mentioned include 1. Pair up students; 2. Warm up activities; 3. Generate ideas; 4. Draft, read, and edit; 5. The final copy; and 6. The teacher evaluates. In the series of six types of activities, the helper (peer) should examine the draft with the writer in terms of editing. Teo (2006) further suggests that peer feedback would help promote ESL/EFL students' narrative writing skills at all grade levels.

2. Methodology

This is a qualitative study, which collected qualitative data of students' learning perceptions. Since the research setting is at a university that emphasizes the importance of doing research, the lecturers of this research project were able to collect data during the break time of teaching Basic English courses. Through a page of paper and some small talk the data were collected in an informal fashion. The reason why the instructors collected data for research in the way that they did not try to bother the students' learning. Therefore, the researchers of this study endeavored to use as less as the students' time to do this research.

2. 1 Population

The study of collaborative scaffolding was conducted at National Sun Yat-sen University in Kaohsiung, where twenty-six freshmen took required Basic English course were requested to cooperate with their lecturer to do this study. In this class of twenty-six learners, there were two overseas students from Hong Kong. Their mother tongue is Cantonese, which is distinct from most of the local students from Taiwan. The local students' mother tongues involve **Holo, Hakka,**

Mandarin and dialects of Mainland China.

All of them learned English for at least more than six years in senior and junior high school. Nevertheless, their writing proficiency was not as good as their reading and testing abilities, since the environment did not provides them with ample opportunities of communicating in English.

2. 2 Course design for the writing exercise

This research project lasted for eight weeks, from the middle of October to the middle of December. In the first four weeks, the instructor taught twenty six students taking the course basic writing strategies, including how a thesis statement should be placed in the introduction of an essay, how a closing sentence in the introduction and a hook in the conclusion should be written, and how the transition signals should be applied before each outline of paragraph in bodies.

Also the instructor made learners exchange their ideas through brain-storming and practice the usages in basic structures of **standard essays**. At the beginning of the eight weeks, the course instructor distributed a list of thirty writing topics in Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) to each student as their home assignment in writing. Outside classroom, students were requested to hand in their 300-word essay to their instructor during the second period of study, the later four weeks of the second session in the research project.

2. 3 Suggestions of peer correction

Students were assigned to write with the topics in **TOEFL**. After they composed their writing, their writings submitted through paper copies or emails were with corrected in detail based on the criteria of analytic scoring and holistic scoring by their instructor. On the other hand, it is recommended in class that the twenty six freshmen writing learners should find one or two classmates and conduct peer discussions themselves.

An analytic scoring criterion was introduced to students for application, since Brown (2004) indicated classroom evaluation of learning should be better through it. Also, students would gain a chance to exchange their ideas in mind in order to upgrade their writing through collaboration. Moreover, they were recommended to find someone to examine their articles before they handed in their final versions of articles to their English teachers for grading.

2. 4 Eight volunteers in the present study

During the eight weeks, eight volunteers out of twenty-six freshmen in the class participated in this research project. Without guiding them the positive or negative effects of peer feedback, the

volunteers were invited to write their viewpoints of peer feedback in blank papers that the researcher distributed them during the class break. The single research question orally provided to the answerer was “How do you feel about the writing pedagogy of **peer feedback**?” “What is your general perception about peer scaffolding?”

It noted that the researcher attempted to elicit the students’ frank responses without putting in the picture that peer correction activities should be promoted and executed in writing courses at universities. In other words, the researcher in this study needs to clarify that the cooperative volunteers could not be guided by any professional and academic aspect since the volunteers were merely offered one blank paper, instead of a list of survey questions that make the students figure out the researcher’s preferences of teaching and might guide their thinking toward this issue. In truth, students in Asia tend to have a custom of pleasing their teacher and follow the form of their teacher thinking. The reason might be because they prefer the atmosphere of their teachers’ parental authority. In addition, they would think to have a higher score or obtain more attention from their teacher.

Hence, in order to reduce the students to speak out their opinions for this research without affecting their English learning, the researcher in this study spared five minutes to remind students that they should totally forget about being graded or teachers’ impression on them and they should honestly answer the questions without assuming the lecturers’ own attitude toward this issue. Consequently, this research project can contribute to report the current Taiwanese students’ learning patterns and inclinations, which would be the data that **curriculum** designer can refer to when designing a syllabus for the writing course.

2. 5 More descriptions about volunteers

The participants in this study, taking their English general course as a freshman, were national university students in Taiwan. Most of the students achieved a high score of English test in the joint examination in order to enter this school. The writing course was regarded as an important skill. It was designed to better the individuals’ writing proficiency. The writing course is welcomed by most of the students, since many of them are planning to take examinations for licenses and overseas studies, which require high writing proficiency.

2. 6 Research setting

The research was conducted in the required English course at National Sun Yat-sen University (NSYSU) in Kaohsiung, Taiwan, which was established by the Founding Father of the Republic of

China (ROC), Dr. Sun Yat-sen. It is previously titled as The Civil University or Kwangtung University (renamed Chungshan University in 1926). This university generated remarkable contributions and played an important role in modern Chinese education history. In 1949, the ROC government moved to Kaohsiung. This research conducted in the program at NSYSU titled General Basic English course, is a series of required course before graduation.

All Colleges of NSYSU required their majors passing the graduation criteria at a certain satisfactory level in English (at NSYSU, from the lowest: level 1, intermediate: level 2, intermediate high: level 3-1, to the highest level: level 3-2). This research project was conducted in the intermediate level 2, in which the students did not achieve a high score in entrance examination and previously only took Basic English level 1 course.

3. Purpose of this Study

Some researchers argue that **peer review** should be an effectual and valuable methodology of giving comments on writing (e.g., Johnson, Johnson & Holubec, 1994). The primary objective in this paper is to explore students' willingness to do the **peer feedback** activity. More specifically, the present study aims to explore whether students in Taiwan would accept the renewed mode of teaching due to the conservative characteristics of Taiwanese students' learning style which has been influenced by the teacher-driven method since junior high school.

4. Research Questions

The present study addressed the following research questions: How do Taiwanese university students feel about **collaborative scaffolding**? What is their attitude toward this new type of alternative writing pedagogies? In other words, how do they perceive when being suggested to find their peer for making progress in English writing?

Through students' answers revealed in a writing course conducted by the instructor, not suggesting the effectivenesses of peer's comment or enforce to find peers for giving comments, this study argues that it will impartially provided insight of students' real feelings and perceptions who were not forced to take part in the activity of **peer feedback**. In other words, the point is that when the students were coerced to cooperate with the research project and execute their behavior of peer-correction, they might not have a freedom to provide genuine perceptions due to their consideration of being graded and their attitudes toward cooperation. That is, this study aims to provide the report that is more close to the reality when dealing with this issue.

5. Significance of this Study

First of all, a significant amount of research on L2 writing correction has positively emphasized the effectiveness of peer reviews (Goldstein & Conrad, 1990; Kroll, 1991; Zamel, 1985, Villamil & DeGuerrero, 1996). The previous research, to the researchers' utmost knowledge, tended to focus on the teachers' sense, rather than on the students' attitudes toward the issue of peer feedback. Contrastingly, the scholars tend to investigate this issue from the teachers' side.

Therefore, it remains unclear whether teachers and students would perceive collaborative scaffolding in a similar attitude. The assumption is that teachers and learners are likely to view the process of feedback and interaction in which they are mutually engaged from different perspectives and that it is possible to impact the ways in which they make sense of a concept such as peer discussion.

Secondly, this study regards that collaborative scaffolding might be still an open question in some Asian areas where updated pedagogies are not pervasively applied. The researchers of this study can hardly find the researches of peer scaffolding and classmate corrections that have been conducted in Asian. Only a paper of Suzuki (2008) was discovered, which is a paper examining the effectiveness of Japanese university students' behaviors in peer revision. It is concerned that EFL learners from collectivism cultures, such as Taiwan of Asian area, might not accept the updated **pedagogies** which suggest their peers to read and correct their writing from the learners' perspective.

Writing in Taiwan traditionally appears to have a tendency to be teacher-centered. Presumably students are accustomed to an environment where there are fewer interactions with their peers than with their teachers. Therefore, the effectiveness of collaborative scaffolding might be doubtable from Taiwanese students' perspectives. In order to provide information associated with this issue from the Taiwanese students' sense, this study was conducted through a nonaligned attitude to elicit students' perceptions of the pedagogy in the EFL writing course.

6. Assumptions

This study assumed that most of the students might be supportive to their teacher's pedagogy, collaborative scaffolding. Also, it is also possible that those students in the first grade of Taiwanese university do oppose to such type of **student-centered** pedagogy, which is different from what they were accustomed to for a long time and from what they expected.

7. Limitations

This study was primarily concerned with **peer feedback** in the learners' perspective. It was conducted under a situation where collaborative scaffolding was applied during students' learning. However, students may have different feelings about peer feedback when they actually are just asked about the feelings toward it instead of really experiencing it.

8. Data Analysis and Results

Among eight students, five students point out that they prefer their essays to be corrected by their teachers instead of their peers. They provide a set of reasons to support their opinions. In a broader sense, although the students accept the use of collaborative scaffolding, they seem to regard teacher feedback as a far more useful and professional technique, thereby attributing greater importance to feedback from the teacher.

More significantly, they contend that the necessity of teacher correction should never be ignored or replaced by **peer feedback**. If collaborative scaffolding activities are employed in or out of the class, they could only serve as an assisted technique rather than the exclusive, chief approach used to help them write and make students have substantial progress.

The five students' names are in pseudonyms in order to protect the confidentiality and privacy of the students. Nick claimed that peer correction is not very helpful owing to the fact that the peer's English level might not be good enough to evaluate his writing. His reflection on this issue is:

I think peer review is not a good way. My classmate will not be able to help me finding out the faults and errors in my writing. Their English might not be better than mine; thereby, I believe that my teacher would be more qualified as a proofreader in my writing. My teacher is an expert in English and she had been trained to correct my article.

The teacher can correct my grammatical structure and lexical errors, but students only can help me from a common view and offer her/his comments. Furthermore, I do not feel safe if my writing is corrected by my classmates. I definitely need the teacher's corrections. I can accept my peer revise my paper. It might be also helpful, but my teacher can help me more.

Ford suggested that teacher's commentaries and corrections would be more acceptable and useful. He recommended that peer correction should be added after teacher's work.

I accept the learning activities that teacher let me exchange my papers to be corrected by my classmates. I will not reject when my teacher want me to read my classmates' articles. However, I still prefer teacher's correction because a teacher has a higher English proficiency in finding errors in vocabulary, grammar, structure and punctuation. Peer's ability in making correction would be weak compared to the teacher's. They might be only able to highlight the problematic parts instead of with detail revise my papers.

It will be not enough if my paper is corrected by my classmate through several notes or suggestions. I need my paper to be corrected by the way a professional read every word from the first sentence to the last one. Teacher corrections usually are more adequate with more detail. After teacher's correction, my paper can be viewed as a perfect model article. I can read my paper revised by my teacher and feel satisfied in learning writing.

I believe that a teacher should correct the essay at least one time. Although my teacher agrees to correct the paper for as many times as we need, I think "once" would be helpful for my making progresses. I think after my paper is corrected for at least once, then, I can discuss with my peers about my writing after teacher's corrections. In sum, I think teacher's correction should be necessary. It is more professional and safer. There will be no more wrong sentences or words.

Betty provided her opinions that are strongly opposed to replacing teachers' correction with collaborative scaffolding. Her position was shown through the following statement.

I do not agree that my writing is only collaboratively scaffolded. If my writing was corrected by my classmate, the comments would be vague. They might only give me very limited comments such as good, bad, or average. Also, if my classmate tells someone else that my writing is not in a good level, there would be some troubles happening to me. If the writing is corrected only by my teacher, the situation would be different. My teacher's comments are always powerful and useful for me. Also they would enhance my writing proficiency.

My paper can be corrected by my classmate but must be corrected by my teacher, since she is the one who would correct my paper from a neutral stance. She will not be like my classmate, who might unfairly point out some parts to be wrong that might be still correct. The reason might be that they would like to gain a higher grade. I think at least my teacher should read my paper no matter if they had been corrected by my classmates or not.

Claude stated that peer feedback might make things worse. He might be confused by his classmate's corrections.

If my article is corrected by my classmate, it is possible that the result of my writing performance becomes worse due to my classmate's unprofessional comment. I am wondering whether my classmates' English would be better than mine. I do not trust my paper will be much more improved after my classmates' corrections than my teacher's.

I would be confused by my classmates' corrections because they are not from professionals' views of an English teacher. Teachers are professionals who were trained to help students. Also, I presuppose that some of my classmates would to some extent revise my writing in a subjective way. From their personal view and level, they could judge my writing and errors in a wrong way. I prefer my writing revised by my teacher, especially the one who would give me corrections in a fair way.

Lily explained that there should be more advantages from teachers' corrections because she could learn more in comparison with peer corrections. She compared and contrasted with the advantages and disadvantages between these two.

One of the advantages in collective scaffolding is that I can learn vocabulary and grammatical structures from my peers. Also, I will be able to assess their points of view and wisdoms. Moreover, I will be stimulated and motivated by my peers' achievements. On the other hand, I believe that my peers might not be able to find my errors in grammatical structures. Also, my classmate could not identify if my words are not used correctly. My emotion might become negative because I would feel that my writing is inferior to my peers.

In contrast, my teacher would be clearer in recognizing my weakness due to her/his

professional training as a writing instructor. More importantly, I will be able to learn higher level expressions through discussing her. She could act as a language consultant who is always be there and helps me when I have questions about language. Her correction is more fair and accurate. One concern about teachers' correction is that I am sometimes embarrassed. I do care about how my teachers evaluate my writing. I am afraid if my teacher gives me negative comment, I would become less confident in writing.

9. Discussions and Conclusion

Many studies of peer corrections for writing pedagogies had been conducted; however, very few had been investigated in Asia. A study of a Japanese scholar, Suzuki's (2008) research into Japanese learners' self revisions and peer revisions of compositions, he compared the effectiveness and impacts of peer-correction and self-correction. This paper of peer-correction in Asia reports that "Peer revisions had more meta-talk than self revisions. Self revision tended to involve brief solitary searches for word choices or self-corrections of grammar based on individual memory searches or repetitions." (p. 233)

The main purpose of this paper was to explore collaborative scaffolding from university learners' perspectives in Taiwan. It did not originally focus on comparing the peer-correction and the teacher correction; however, the students' feedback tended to reveal that they preferred the other way (teacher correction) of writing correction. The result of this study shows that Taiwanese university students might agree and not reject with the effectiveness of peer feedback; however, peer feedback can not thoroughly replace the feedback from the teacher.

As evidenced in the interview data, students view that teachers are more qualified and proficient in correcting their compositions. The results are in line with several studies. For example, Tai and Ng (2000) investigated roles of teacher and peer comments in writing correction among twenty seven secondary L2 learners in Hong Kong. The findings showed that all learners preferred teachers' commentaries and regarded their teacher as a role of authority whose comments guaranteed quality. Similarly, Miao, Badger, and Zhen (2006) explored the similar issue, which indicated students would adopt both teacher and their peers' feedback in order to make progress when learning to write. However, teacher feedback was more likely to be adopted and to lead to a greater degree of improvement.

Therefore, this study concluded that peer review might contribute to Taiwanese language learners' progress in writing, yet the teacher correction should be still supplied to the language

learners in Taiwan. One of the major reasons might be that the education in Taiwan tends to be teacher-centered. When university students have the power to give peer correction, learners might not be able to adjust to the innovative, student-centered atmosphere rapidly as expected by the instructor. As Benson (2001) describes, “Learners who were accustomed to teachers-centered education would also need to be psychologically prepared for more learner-centered modes of learning.” (p.10)

The overall results indicate that the teacher can not simply ask students to give feedback to their peers and expect that students would carry out their peer suggestions in an effective way. It is imperative for the teacher to develop students’ ability of evaluating peers’ essays, to provide evaluation criteria, such as rubrics, and to explicate the importance of collaborative scaffolding. These findings challenge us to reconsider Holec’s (1980) argument over learner training. In Holec’s terms, “training learners how to fulfill student-based learning would be counterproductive inasmuch as students needed to train themselves.” (p 42)

Nonetheless, when it comes to the context of Taiwan, students who are never trained might greatly doubt the assumption that peers and their own skills can be conducive and helpful in English writing. In addition, researches on **collaborative scaffolding** generally suggest that peer review should be carried out on drafts prior to the teacher’s final corrections, so that the peer reviewers would be aware that their correction would not be the final corrections made to the text (e.g., Coit, 2004). The present study supported such a judgment.

According to the findings from the students’ viewpoints, this study also concludes that if there must be a collaborative **peer scaffolding** arranged in the classroom at universities in Taiwan, it should be an ancillary pedagogy rather than a dominant one. The reason is that students need their teacher to exam entire piece of their writing. This point has been argued by many scholars in field of teaching writing (Chiu, 2009; Chen, 2004; Miao, Badger & Zhen, 2006; Zhang, 1995). Taiwanese university students tended to think that their teachers should be much more professional and proficient in assisting them to make improvements in writing than their peers. This result allows us to consider some implications in the research.

Finally, it is essential to reiterate that the participants in this study were never required to give feedback to their peers in the writing class. Thus, follow-up research can require learners to give feedback to their peers in class. The results might vary due to their real experiences of the technique of peer feedback. In addition, the present study reveals the necessity of learner training when peer comment is applied in a writing course. Additional investigations are needed to

understand how to develop the students' ability in collaborative scaffolding and how to facilitate learners to be psychologically prepared for more student-based modes of learning in an effective way. In order to further understand the concept of collaborative scaffolding from the learners' perspectives, both quantitative and qualitative methodologies can be applied to support researchers in exploring this issue and in understanding how learners make sense of collaborative scaffolding.

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Chapter XVI

Pedagogies Considering Affective Filter and CALL

Krashen's (1983) theory of language acquisition consists of five main hypotheses, which might be crucial factors how a learner can learn a language successfully. These five suppositions are "the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the input hypothesis and the affective filter hypothesis." After Dulay and Burt's (1977) introduction of the notion of affective filter, Krashen (1983) also agreed that that the affecting factor would influence learners' language attainment. Negative emotion would be an impediment that could decrease learners' input. Therefore, avoiding the teaching and learning obstacles caused by psychological inducements becomes a noteworthy issue in language teaching and learning.

In addition to discussing Stephen Krashen's (1983) hypothesis of language acquisition, this study will propose several pedagogies based on the above theoretical assumptions. It will present an overview to English educators about the methods that can be used to combine aspects of computer assistance with Krashen's hypothesis in English language teaching in order to release from students' nervous tension.

An empirical qualitative inquiry conducted at a university in Taiwan reveals how English majors in an oral training class reacted to their teacher's applications of movie DVDs and laptop for displaying five of Shakespeare's plays. Seven volunteers among a class of forty-five adult students in an English majors' class participated in this study, and provided their perceptions of learning through computer assistance methodologies. The result of this research implies that through applying updated computer technology, students can be taught in a more liberal environment.

1. Introduction

"The affective filter is an impediment to learning or acquisition caused by negative emotional ("affective") responses to one's environment. It is a hypothesis of second language acquisition theory, and a field of interest in educational psychology." (2010, Wikipedia) Stephen Krashen (1983) argues that five hypotheses of learners' language acquisition allow for assessment necessary to increase their input. He hypothesizes that a positive attitude is one of the primary factors required

for successful learning. When learners have a sense of confidence, lower anxiety, and higher motivation in their educational experience, their language acquisition would increase. After Krashen's discovery of the five hypotheses, the negative impact of affective factors has also been widely discussed by scholars in the fields of English teaching and linguistics (e. g., Ely, 1986; Graham, 1997; Phillips, 19992; Wenden, 1986).

The present study argues that teachers play a proactive role in students' learning and have a responsibility to diminish student anxiety and nervousness that might appear when interacting in an unfamiliar language. Forcing students to listen to teachers or to feel coerced into interactions with their teachers is ineffective and inefficient. The study also argues that negative emotion wastes student energy and may also generate a pessimistic attitude toward future English studies. It is crucial that English teachers fully prepare for establishing the appropriate classroom ambiance. Through taking the students' emotional factor into consideration when teaching, language learners will gain an opportunity to learn English more successfully in a confident and stimulating atmosphere.

2. Literature Review

Krashen proposes an important theory of language acquisition, which consists of five main hypotheses; "Acquisition-Learning" hypothesis, the "Monitor" hypothesis, the "Natural Order" hypothesis, the "Input" hypothesis, and the "Affective Filter" hypothesis. These five hypotheses are closely related to psychological factors, such as the meaningful interaction, reasonable sequence of learning (i.e. from lower to advanced proficiency level), and emphasizing high comprehension during the learning process.

2. 1 Affective Filter Hypothesis

Krashen (1983) emphasizes that a learner's passive mood of learning can be caused by lower-motivation, lower self-confidence and a higher level of anxiety. He points out that these psychological factors controlling the learner's acquisition are what teachers are required to notice during teaching. He argues:

The affective filter hypothesis captures the relationship between affective variables and the process of second language acquisition by positing that acquirers vary with respect to the

strength or level of their affective filters. Those attitudes are not optimal for second language acquisition will not only tend to seek less input, but they will also have a high or strong affective filter-even if they understand the message, the input will not reach that part of the brain responsible for language acquisition, or the language acquisition device. (Krashen, 1983, p. 31)

Krashen (1983) states that teachers need to allow students to learn in a more relaxed atmosphere which helps to construct a positive attitude. For example, he has noted that ‘Those with attitudes more conducive to second language acquisition will not only seek and open to the input, and it will strike “deeper.”’ (p. 31) This indicates students can learn not only more effortlessly and pleasantly, but also more profoundly and progressively. He further argues that teachers should apply pedagogies which can reduce obstacles and increase student intellectual capacity. Krashen (1983) suggests:

...our pedagogical goals should include not only supplying comprehensible input, but also creating a situation that encourages a low filter...The input hypothesis and the concept of the affective filter define the language teacher in a new way. The effective language teacher is more who can provide input and help make it comprehensible in a low anxiety situation. (p. 32)

2. 2 Significance of Comprehensive Interaction

The successful factors of language acquisition can appeal to the learner. In Asia, we observe that many students and teachers have difficulty interacting. According to Wei, the reason is that traditional pedagogies and examination systems over-emphasize reading and writing and ignore communicative competence.

Many university students are able to achieve high scores in English examinations; however, they encounter difficulty communicating naturally and comprehensibly in English. This is an urgent problem that university teachers in Taiwan need to resolve. Due to globalization, comprehensive and meaningful interaction in English is much more important than it was in the past. McKay (2002) argues “Communicative purpose” (p. 126) has been regarded as one of the most significant

developments in language learning in today's global village, where people from all countries may be expected to communicate English. Hence, this article argues that teachers in Taiwan should start to find solutions for students to overcome the challenge in meaningful interaction.

Vygotsky (1987) argues that "...speech cannot be separated from understanding." (p. 50) The goal of English learning should be understandable and precise communication. Vygotsky's (1987) statement is actually parallel with Krashen's opinion; they both think comprehensible interaction is what language learners should pursue. Since understandable communication is the final goal of language learning, English language educators should think of the ways that they can assist students to achieve this goal.

3. Pedagogies Recommended

Based on Krashen's fifth hypothesis, many English teachers are applying newer pedagogies, such as **Community Language Learning** (CLL) suggested by Curran (1976), Suggestopedia by Lozanov (1982), and Song Pedagogy by Lo and Li (1998), to reduce students' negative emotions when interacting in a foreign language.

3.1 Community Language Learning

Community Language Learning (CLL) proposed by Curran (1976) argues that learners must focus on social interaction to learn a language well. The process of learning must be a process of cooperative learning like cooperation and interaction in a community, but not a process of forcing students to merely listen and follow their teachers. Students may experience obscurity and evolve a pessimistic attitude of learning, if they neither appreciate their teacher lecture, nor have a chance of participating in other group/pair activities. For this reason, students should be assisted to develop closer social relationships with their peers who can help them promote interaction in English.

CLL argues that a student-centered classroom would be much livelier than a teacher-centered classroom. In a student-centered classroom, learners would be more relaxed and more able to learn from their peers. Within the concept of "CLL," the role of the student is much more significant than that of the teacher. Students can not be coerced to face their teachers. Instead group discussions could be held more frequently to encourage students to learn in a cooperative form. A language class should be constructed like a community, where students can interact,

discuss, and compete with their peers freely. According to Curran (1976), in a CLL environment, the security, attention, aggression and determination can be enhanced during learning.

3. 2 Suggestopedia

Lozanov's (1982) **Suggestopedia** is a system of liberation, because it assists students to be liberated from complicatedness caused by their negative thoughts. Lozanov (1982) suggests that relaxing, spontaneous and flexible attitudes are effective elements in language learning. According to Wu, in Taiwan many adult learners in colleges and vocational schools experienced frustrations in high school.

Hence, after the students entered college, professors at universities should make compensation for them and try to build learners' confidence through peer discussions, where the interlocutors' communications are in a free and friendly way without concerning the pressure of entering a top university, so they would not be discouraged or discriminated against due to the negative type of competition. On the other hand, we assume that students may be able to learn English from their peers more easily, due to their similar ages, mode of living their daily lives and conceptions of thinking.

Suggestopedia corroborates the importance of students' psychological status. According to Lozanov, four important elements imply that students might relax and feel comfortable under **Suggestopedia**; these are authority, infantilization, double-planedness, and classical music. When a teacher has more knowledge and confidence, and is able to treat students like his/her own children with parents' senses of authority, students may achieve a sense of security like children under stressful learning. Children are less anxious and more confident in the presence of their parents. Also, music would be a perfect treatment that cast all the anxiety away during learning. Therefore, teachers might wish to imitate parental roles under the atmosphere of authority, and treat students as their own children with warm words and even with sincere hand shakes and hugs. Based on the theoretical foundation of **Suggestopedia**, the use of music, songs, and games will act to soothe nervous and unconfident students, and parental attitudes of teaching will lessen their unnecessary awareness and pressure.

3. 3 Song Teaching

In order to avoid affective obstacles in class, Lo and Li (1998), and Schoepp (2001) recommend songs as a way to provide a break from classroom routine, and allow students a respite. They point out that songs develop a non-threatening classroom air and help students to develop their language proficiencies with greater ease. Similarly, Saricoban and Metin (2000) have found that songs help in the development of the four language skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Eken (1996) also argues that songs can be used:

...to present a topic, a language point, lexis, to practice a language point, lexis, to focus on common learner errors in a more direct way, to encourage extensive and intensive listening, to stimulate discussion of attitudes and feelings, to encourage creativity and use of imagination, to provide a relaxed classroom atmosphere, and to bring variety and fun to learning. (p. 46)

Singing should assist language learners to reduce affective filters and develop their English skills (Adamowski, 1997; Bechtold, 1983; Domoney & Harris, 1993; Griffee, 1992; Guglielmino, 1986; Lems, 1996; Little, 1983; Monreal, 1982); hence, English teachers should find some good songs for students to sing, to learn and to develop their language proficiency.

4. Technology Application

4. 1 Current Trend of Technology Application

Computer-assisted classrooms are designed and employed by administrators and English teachers because computers may allow students to conquer their nervous tension. They are widely accepted, especially in the industrialized countries. Windschitl and Sahl (2002) mention,

It is arguable that the universal use of portable computers by students in schools is inevitable. With it comes the need to better understand how that trend affects the lives of teachers as well as the character of institutions, and the need to make informed recommendations that will allow good teaching to flourish- with or without technology. (p. 203)

Windschitl and Sahl (2000) observed three American secondary schools in 2002 and pointed

out that technology should be applied to certain areas in teaching, although teachers might have to face the block of new teaching methodologies which result from computer application skills and the new complex curriculum assigned by the institutions which support new technologies.

In response to Windschitl and Sahl's (2000) statement, the laptop is functional in helping students become more independent and skilled language learners. For learning vocabulary, computers are appropriate vehicles to stimulate lexis acquisition.

4. 2 Challenges of New Technology Application

Auxiliary teaching through computers may contribute to language learners' motivation. However, new technology challenges educators to integrate the technology within schools (Windschitl & Sahl, 2002). These challenges are associated with educational resources, teachers' skills in using new technology, financial resources available, students' financial ability to purchase a computer, and students' determination to carry a heavy laptop to class. However, if all the potential challenges can be resolved, the laptop could act as a catalyst to promote students' learning (Windschitl & Sahl, 2002). To cope with the challenge because of limited computer resources, dictionary software can be set up in advance, which allows students to learn independently. In addition, the internet dictionary that can be accessed by the learners will help them solve individual learning difficulties. In a **student-centered** classroom established through self-governing learning styles, the problems of difficult sentence patterns or arduous syntax can be resolved by students themselves autonomously.

5. CALL Demonstration

5. 1 Top-Down Process through Laptop Pedagogy

Through using the skill of "top down processing" (conceptually-driven processing) , teachers can convey the background knowledge of the content to the learners (Gough, 1972). For example, to achieve an objective of learning vocabulary in songs with laptop applications, the meanings in the lyrics should be learned before students start singing. When the students are informed by the background story, their motivation to learn the vocabulary in the song might be stimulated because of the stirred interest by the tale of the song. Additionally, Power Point software can be applied to present the background story of the songs with adequate details.

In a prepared Power Point file, students can understand the stories in songs and get to know the deeper implications. They can watch the photos that show clear information for subjects and points

in the story of songs, which stimulate their motivation in learning new words in the lyrics. For instance, before students start to sing “Starry Starry Night,” they can be led to study some of the paintings of Vincent Van Gogh, or read articles about Vincent Van Gogh’s tragedy, in order to be familiar with the artist’s legend, and how his marvelous works were done.

To create each individual’s self-governing study environment in a laptop-assisted classroom, the use of earphones to avoid nuisance from classmates is essential. In addition, allowing students to study autonomously with laptops in a calm psychological frame of mind, the English teacher can walk around and discuss background knowledge with learners to confirm that they have understood the new words and difficult grammatical patterns in the context.

5. 2 Bottom-Up Process through Laptop Pedagogy

Adhering to “bottom-up processing” (data-driven processing) proposed by Rumelhart (1997) the teacher can construct a glossary for students. By surfing the Internet, dictionary websites can be accessed to clarify unknown words. The more prepared and conscientious the teacher, the more effective the teacher can be in applying dictionary software to assist learners in understanding and practicing each word in the lyric thoroughly. Subsequently, the teacher should play the rhythm of the song in the synchronous step of the lyrics displayed via PowerPoint on the screen. This assists students to search for the right sentences.

5. 3 Advantage of Laptop Assistance

The laptop is a useful tool in a language learning classroom (Messy, 1998; Parks et al., 2003; Warriner et al., 1998). More significantly, it can be a welcome and fresh tool for freeing an **emotional block** in language learning. According to Krashen’s (1983) affective hypothesis, a learners’ psychological status can not be ignored. Teaching songs while allowing the use of laptops is seen as a convenient and humanistic method in language teaching.

The innovative and creative pedagogies made possible by using laptops will assist learners to manage their own learning speed and feel in control of their own learning. Because of the rapid development of computer technology, schools can allow students to use their own computers to learn English. Indeed, how to maximize advantages from the technology to enhance the students’ **language acquisition** is a profound topic that concerns many educators in the field of teaching English. **Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)** is one of the most significant developments in the area of English teaching because laptops and computers for individuals can play roles of educational implementation, which guide students to learning through self-tutoring and

using their own laptop.

The role of the teacher in this type of pedagogy can be both like a mentor in English learning and a consultant in the use of computers. The difference from a traditional classroom found in a laptop-assisted classroom is that students learned in a self-controlled progress, instead of a teacher-centered pace. Most of the time, students learn individually and autonomously, instead of focusing on the teacher's lectures that might not be fully understood.

6. The Present Study

An empirical study was conducted at a university in Taiwan. Forty-five English majors taking a night course were taught. Students were exposed to Shakespeare's plays through movies using a laptop and a projector. The primary research objective is to explore whether the laptop should be applied in language learning and how it can be applied in order to help students learn better.

6.1 Research Question

Under the trend of **CALL**, one of the theoretical foundations applied in this study was to apply computer assistance and laptop to investigate students' perceptions of using computers in their classrooms. Combining the emphasis of learning concerning affective filter and **CALL**, this study focused on how students' learning motivations can be increased and learning anxiety can be decreased through the designed curriculum. According to O'Brien and Heglheimer (2007):

Despite the increase of teacher preparation programs that emphasize the importance of training teachers to select and develop appropriate **computer-assisted language learning (CALL)** materials, integration of **CALL** into classroom settings is still frequently relegated to the use of selected **CALL** activities to supplement instruction or to provide additional practice. (p. 162)

One research question guided this study: Do the pedagogies of Krashen's (1983) theory and **CALL** contribute to students learning in a relaxing, confident and effective way? This study anticipates that after a series of the instructor's lectures, students would gain diverse ways of learning and reviewing learned content through an alternative and relaxing mode, which can be created through lap-top application.

6. 2 Significance of the Study

The present study is significant because of the paucity in papers offering a pedagogy which combines the theory of affective filter and computer technology. It provides a model that demonstrates the value of **CALL**. To apply Krashen's (1983) theory and conquer the difficulties caused by affective filter, this article suggests that computer assistance should be used as a tool to cope with emotional difficulty. Although many scholars suggest that computer technology should be applied as a tool in English teaching and learning (e.g., Fischer, 2007; Kessler, 2007; Kim, 2008; Lai & Kuo, 2007; Ward, 2006), so far it is still problematic for teachers to approach suitable pedagogies through computer assistance that focuses on their need of reducing students' affective block. Kessler (2007) perceives that it is uneasy for current teachers to assess resource for computer-assisted language learning:

Recent research suggests that there is a general lack of a **computer-assisted language learning** (CALL) presence in teacher preparation programs. There is also evidence that teachers obtain a majority of their **CALL** knowledge from informal sources and personal experience rather than through formalized preparation. (p . 173)

Therefore, to provide English educators with a formal approach to apply computer technology with pedagogies concerning affective filter, this study contributes several patterns of teaching methodologies. Field-workers in English teaching may realize the convenience of computer technology and the significance of students' emotion and attitude during learning.

6. 3 Methodology

6.3.1 *Naturalistic Inquiry*

This study used a **naturalistic inquiry**, which helped the researcher obtain data from students' own perspectives rather than manipulated and controlled the data. This qualitative study assessed student feelings and feedback of learning English through watching movies. Forty-five adult English learners taking a night course at a university in Taiwan were taught Shakespeare's stories through booklets of the play-transcripts; the five DVDs were played five times through a set of laptops and a projector. Every three weeks, the teacher played Shakespeare movies for the learners

and after displaying five movies in eighteen weeks in spring, 2008.

Their reflections on their learning were collected. Students' reflections of learning were recorded. Besides observing learner attitudes and reactions, seven volunteers were invited to talk about their feelings after watching five movies of Shakespeare's plays. An interview with each learner allowed the researcher to explore their feelings of learning English through the use of laptops, cloth-screen, projectors and movie-DVDs. The interview questions were (1) How did you feel about learning literature through watching movies? (2) Did you feel more relaxed and more self-assured when learning through watching movies? (3) Did you learn literature better this way?

6.3.2 Assumptions

1. The students might feel that they learned Shakespeare relaxingly and confidently through watching movies.
2. The students might feel that watching movies is not the right method to learn literature which is associated with their imaginations. Scenes in movies might limit their ability to create the plots.

6.3.3 Limitations

1. The themes reflected by only seven volunteers might not represent the feelings of all Taiwanese adult learners.
2. The students might avoid some negative opinions due to their concern of a low final grade.

6.3.4 Techniques Applied and the Qualitative Data Collected

With DVDs the teacher found from an on-line book store, students were guided to learn about Shakespeare's plays of *Hamlet*, *Macbeth*, *Othello*, *Taming of the Shrew*, and *The Winter's Tale*. Each movie lasted for one hour, which was played in two 45 minute sessions.

The teacher from time to time paused or decelerated the movie in order to give instructions and details of the stories. During the break, the teacher explained the metaphors of Shakespeare's plots and famous sentences and provided literature comments for significant themes in the plays. In order to reconfirm that all students had viewed several important plots, the functions of backing and rewinding were used.

6. 4 Results and Discussions

Seven volunteers were interviewed after watching five movies. They talked about their feelings of learning Shakespeare through watching movies. Each of the volunteers talked about their learning experiences. The responses from the seven volunteers illustrate that almost all of them enjoyed learning Shakespeare through movies. They discovered many advantages that they had

obtained from watching movies of Shakespeare's plays. The following below were their reflections of learning Shakespeare. In order to protect privacy and enhance the confidentiality of this **empirical research**, pseudonyms were used.

Sophia Yu Hui Lin:

Previously I thought learning western literature is stressful and difficult all the time. At this moment, I feel differently. Our teacher used a laptop to play movies for us. It was a great experience watching Shakespeare's plays in such a short time. Our teacher expanded my views and led me to have deeper thoughts about Shakespeare. I am able to give comments about some plots now.

My teacher explained the new words with definitions in dictionaries and illustrated the stories with commentary lectures by stopping the movie play for a while. Laptop was convenient for her to give lectures because of its bottoms of pause, repeat, and decelerate. I learned the stories maturely through learning the extra comments that the teacher provided in the middle of playing the movie. It seemed she had previously done a lot of research before coming to the classroom. Her simple introductions in the beginning of each plot and summaries at the end of the movies made me clarify several doubts during watching movies. I think laptop developed my literature knowledge in a very effective way.

Steven Shune Fa Chang:

I learned many important quotes in *Hamlet* such as "Brevity is the soul of wit," "Doubt that the sun doth move, doubt truth to be a liar, but never doubt I love," and "To be, or not to be: that is the question." The teacher paused the movie when some famous sentences appeared in the movies. She then analyzed the grammatical structures, illustrated the meanings and gave literature comments. She made us recite the sentences and double checked whether we had understood. I learned central meanings of each plays very quickly and joyfully. I could not learn well, if the movie was played without laptop's pause function. One more advantage from watching movie was that words on the screen were much clearer and bigger than the written words on the blackboard.

Nancy Kwang Hui Wei:

The beautiful music relaxed my nerves. The clear pronunciations of native speakers in the movies allow me to relaxingly learn English. In fact, when reading teacher's handouts of Shakespeare's stories at home, I had many questions, including how to pronounce the roles' names and some new

vocabulary in the plays. After watching the movie, I had no difficulties in pronouncing them. The sounds provided by the DVD were clearly articulated, which seemed to be recorded by British speakers..

Alice Yun Shu Wu:

The movie screen was like a perfect smart board. My teacher pointed to certain roles on it and gave lectures at the same time. It was clear and efficient for us to realize which character the teacher was talking about. Laptop should be the best learning equipment I had ever used. I read the English caption to understand the story details. After I answered my teacher's questions about the story contents correctly, she praised me. Our teacher stopped the movie for a little while and allowed us to check the difficult words in the dictionary.

Roland Yuin Ling Lee:

I prefer learning Shakespeare through watching movies to reading the scripts. It was much easier to know what the stories were about through watching movies. The actors and actresses were attractive. The puppets in animation movies were cute. The customs, buildings and the props fully reflect the times and atmospheres of the plays. It is easier for me to understand through watching movies than reading.

James Tien Tsai Lu:

This class is not traditional at all. Our teacher created a fun and easy language classroom. I felt relaxed and shared sweets with my classmates during my learning about Shakespeare. I chatted confidently about the content of Shakespeare's plays with my classmate sitting beside me and felt I was in a movie theatre. This class provided me with an opportunity to learn literature in a very comfortable way. I could correctly narrate stories of Shakespeare by recalling the plots seen in the movies that our teachers had played and lectured for us.

Dorothy Mei Mei Liu:

I learned foreign literatures much more easily than I was in high school. After watching the five plays, I went to Block Busters and rent many more movies related to western literatures for my own children. I can enhance my English and literature knowledge through watching enough movies.

The teacher once displayed power point file and movie file of Taming of the Shrew interactively. It was effective. When an important plot appeared in the movie, she opened the window in the power point file and gave a tiny lecture for five minutes. Then, she continued the movie after her explanation for the same spot.

From the data collected, the students were like both audiences in the theater and language learners in the English classroom. Their learning motivations were stimulated due to the rapidly gained knowledge and curiosity for western literature. The functions of repeating, pausing, transferring to power point file, screen-interaction, and rewinding...etc, built in the laptop allowed students to learn in a more effective way. The characteristics of laptop provided the instructors with opportunities of the five lectures when the movie was playing, which made students clearer about the movie plots. All in all, Taiwanese university students welcomed the use of laptops in their classroom. Based on the students' need, doubts and difficulties appearing in the middle of a movie, the teacher was able to provide instant resolutions of explaining a concept, repeating a scene, or controlling time to fit the curriculum design, which made students learn in a more successful way.

7. Conclusion

In conclusion, technology benefits **student-centered** learning in a cooperative form (Baker et al., 1996). Kim (2008) has argued that "There have been many promises about the benefits of computer-assisted language learning in classrooms. The assumption underlying those benefits is that computers would be used in a student-centered and a constructivist learning approach, departing from a teacher-centered teaching approach." (p. 241) Learning English through laptops should be an adoptable and even an essential option that millennium contemporary educators should consider because the experiences of learning English through laptops assist students to cooperate with their teachers in a self-governed way.

Learners are able to find an approach to independently learn more vocabulary and quote from plays according to their individual needs and at their own pace. The major reason that they can do above tasks in a student-centered and self-directed way was that each learner could monitor their own lap-top and select desired contents and learn based on their own speed, level and progress. Learning through a self-determining atmosphere made it unnecessary for aggressive adult learners to wait for their peers in the same classroom who might prefer to learn at a slower or faster pace. Furthermore, they did not have to worry that they might be embarrassed by their teacher or **peers**

because they were able to manage their own rate of thinking and learning that might be different from most of the other classmates in the same classroom.

Pedagogies that allow singing and using laptops to play movies can reduce student anxiety, raise confidence and self-sufficiency and learn in an active and self-controlling environment. Dynamic pedagogies based on the concepts of **CALL** and Krashen's hypothesis of **affective filter** should support students to learn in a both contemporary and humanistic fashion rather than the traditional method. Therefore, it is concluded that it is the English teachers' obligation to use more innovative technologies and equipment from time to time to establish a comfortable and effective educational environment for their language learners.

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