

Constructive Destruction: Designing Language Awareness Raising Activities for Taiwanese Adult Learners

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A Master's Paper

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of

The Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts in TESOL

Major Advisor's Signature

Date

**University of Wisconsin-River Falls
2012**

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Introduction

Taiwan, with its geographical advantages, has embraced international trade and, hence, started to invest in English education in the 70s. Following other governmental promotional maneuvers and recognizably increased needs of cross-border communication, the awareness of English as an important addition to one's ability increased, and its learning could be called a national sport. However, underneath the national consensus that 'English is important,' English serves additional functions. For the academically ambitious, it carries the scores they need in public exams to attend prestigious schools. For publishers, it induces fierce wars on bookstore shelves. For profit-driven private institutes (or *Bu Shi Ban* in the local term), it brings about recession-proof business. For corporations, it is a "must" in the criteria for job applicants. All in all, enabling communication does not seem to be the primary motive for learning English.

Language has a multifaceted nature; it is at the same time: a) a communication coding system that can be taught as a school subject, b) an integral part of an individual's identity involved in almost all mental activities, and also c) the most important channel of social organization embedded the culture of the community where it is used (Dornyei 274). This paper will construct a series of lesson plans for a specific group, Taiwanese adult learners, who have gone through a long history of learning but may have experienced more failures than success regarding effective communication.

In an English as an Foreign Language (EFL) contexts where there is no apparent communicative need outside school and school is usually "the first and only" place where most English learning takes place, the language can frequently be seen primarily as a school subject.

When a language is perceived this way, its primary function as a communication tool will be devalued. As a result, deficits in communicative competence motivate many adults to return to English learning after school education when their proficiencies receive a “reality check” in professional areas.

In a test-driven learning culture where both the teacher and the students’ goal is to make the highest possible marks, Taiwan’s English teaching and learning tend to rely on grammar translation, rote learning, drills and testing. Hence, negative learning characteristics such as reluctance or passiveness develop. Schools often resemble factories which aim to produce products in uniformity; learners’ individualities are neglected with a dearth of carefully-crafted, corresponding instruction strategies to promote learners’ autonomous learning and language discovery. It turns out that schools are good at producing grammarians, test takers and English “outcasts” (those who give up their English learning at some point) but not competent users. Ku points out that “consequently, the . . . English teaching method often forms a group of passive and unproductive students who excel at being tested but who are incapable of engaging in genuine communication” (qtd. in Cheng 129).

For adults’ continuing learning, what they need is not a replicate of school education, but an “over-haul” in how they view English and approach its learning. They need to get rid of the infamous names of “good grammarians but bad speakers” or “good test-takers but bad users.” On that note, we will rely on the Language Awareness Approach as the main means to bring them back to see the nature of language, or language as language. Fundamentally, “language is functional” (Christie 759) and its functions are definitely not restricted to helping one enter his/her ideal schools or receive promotions.

The primary purpose of this paper is to construct a learning experience that raises

Taiwanese adult learners' Language Awareness in the hope of turning the knowledge they have acquired during schooling and from outside-school exposure into actual communicative competence. The learners are expected to go through the experience best characterized by "constructive destruction," where their conceptions about English and its learning will be examined and purged for the establishment of functional beliefs and strategies to enable life-time, effective learning. The first section will be an in-depth discussion of their previous learning issues, primarily focusing on the constraints in school education and the culture. The next chapter will tap into the topic of adult learning, seeking for a comprehensive picture of how adults learn, so we can increase their strengths and minimize their weaknesses. Then, the paper will proceed to argue for raising language awareness as the first and most crucial step for teachers and learners in an adult classroom. Finally, I will introduce example lessons through which the outcomes will promisingly "mold" the adult learners into not just good English speakers but also life-long successful learners.

Chapter I: Inside the EFL Context in Taiwan

1.1 An Overview

Having realized the importance of English in gaining a competitive edge, the government of Taiwan has been laying the groundwork for English education since the 70's. English has since then been a required subject in compulsory education. Later, criticisms about the obsolete system have pushed out several revolutionary movements. One of the most significant changes made as a response to theoretical trends and language educators' consensus was lowering the age at which elementary school students start to take English lessons.

Originally for students from Grade seven to Grade nine, mandatory English instructions have been modified and required for younger learners. In September 2001, English was introduced in Grade Five (in which learners are 10-11 years of age), but this was then lowered to Grade One students (aged 6-7) in 2002. Classes are taught 1-2 hours per week during two 20-week semesters in each school year. (Nunan "Global Language" 603)

Continuing English education through high schools, college students have to fulfill required credits in English courses, which are enforced by law, and face evaluations of their English proficiency as part of the criteria for graduation. For a Taiwanese student, pursuing a college degree, English is supposed to have been included in his/her education for at least fifteen years.

Has this nationwide devotion paid off? According to the statistics from the Ministry of Education of Taiwan in 2010, 163 colleges in Taiwan accommodate over 1.3 million college students every year (the overall population in Taiwan is 23 billion). However, according to a report from a local newspaper, *The Liberty Times*, in 2007, Taiwanese students' average scores

in IELTS (International English Language Testing System) put Taiwan in the seventeenth position among the twenty non-English-speaking countries where IELTS is the most frequently given examination. In 2010, according to *United Daily News*, Taiwanese test takers' average performance in the 2010 TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) was under the global average and the twentieth among thirty Asian countries. These unsatisfactory results explain why adults account for a considerable percentage of the English learning population in Taiwan given that the majority of the test-takers of the two abovementioned assessments are either college students or college graduates.

How has learning in a traditional environment contributed to Taiwanese students' struggle with desirable competency? The upcoming discussions will investigate adult learners' previous education and cultural constraints that have had a great impact on how they approach English learning.

1.2 The Education

a. “Tradition” and “Passive Learners”

As a typical student who received an education in the public system of Taiwan from the age of 7 to 18, I suppose I can be a credible source to illustrate what usually happens in a classroom. I remember sitting in the classroom, taking notes, highlighting new vocabulary, and listening to the teacher explaining the meanings of new words and grammar rules in Chinese with my mind set to make accurate guesses about what could be, or could not be, on the next exam. The teacher spoke most of the time. The only times we were allowed to let our voices be heard were when the teacher told the class to read the contents from textbooks and the chances to leave our chairs would be “restroom breaks.”

In the field of language education, “traditional” is usually synonymous with terms like “teacher-fronted,” “interaction-deprived,” “spoon-fed,” or simply “obsolete.” Above all, a traditional format of language teaching tends to impose the danger of distancing learning from the nature of language. Imagining the learners are chronically under instructions encouraging them to take in instead of to give out (listen/read v.s. speak/write), to swallow instead of to digest (memorization v.s. internalization), to analyze instead of to affectively engage (science v.s. humanity), or to know instead of to use (linguistic knowledge v.s. communicative competence), we will not be surprised to find them well-informed but poorly-skilled. According to Andrew, traditional language teaching:

1. emphasizes the structures instead of the meanings.
2. assumes a single standard of correctness. Little room is allowed for language variations to support the attempted uniformity.
3. uses artificial, unnatural and false examples rather than authentic, natural and true language use by real people in real contexts.
4. assumes a prescribed model of performance instead of a developmental model.
5. stresses control by the learners over isolated and decontextualized language elements and neglects many of the language aspects as a human endeavor. (30)

English education in Chinese-speaking settings is known for “its traditional, teacher-centered, book-centered, grammar translation methods with emphasis on rote memory” (Anderson 472). In Cortazzi and Jins’ depiction, English education in Chinese-speaking contexts is “set within taken-for-granted frameworks” (“Cultures of Learning” 169). To this relatively vague generalization, they add that the frameworks are comprised of “expectations, attitudes, values and beliefs about what constitutes good learning, about how to teach or learn, whether and

how to ask questions, what textbooks are for, and how language teaching relates to broader issues of the nature and purpose of education” (“Cultures of Learning” 169).

Having been a practitioner “inside” this context, Cheng raises cautions by stating that English learning is devalued by Chinese students because the instructions are disconnected from their real-life experience (130); vocabulary teaching is mainly conducted with isolated word lists (meaning is interpreted in direct translation without contextual applications) and grammar is always elaborately explained (132); teacher-student interaction is not encouraged; and the mode of class organizations is still teacher-fronted and teacher-centered (133). In addition, based on his teaching experience in Hong Kong, Harvey notes that English education in Chinese-speaking contexts can be generally described as:

a concentration on intensive reading as a basis for language study; a preoccupation with the careful, often painstaking examination of grammatical structure and a corresponding lack of attention to more communicative skills; the use of memorization and rote learning as a basic acquisition technique; a strong emphasis on the correction of mistakes, both written and oral; a view of literature and a reverence for the printed word which tends to lead to the teaching of non-extensive skills; the use of translation as both a teaching and a learning strategy. (183)

Luchini observes that English education in Chinese settings has these characteristics: 1) careful explanation of word meaning and usage followed by drilling and mechanical exercises, 2) dated language material, 3) the use of memorization and rote learning as a basic learning technique, 4) and the use of translation as both a teaching and learning technique. He also points out that “the rigorousness of teaching and learning to written exams” fueled by the “monolithic examination system” is among the most obvious characteristics (3).

In sum, in traditional educational formats, learning is not a dynamic, vigorous process. It is executed in the manner of one-way transmissions of knowledge which is described by many as “cramming.” As Gortazzi and Jin detail:

a predominant role for learners is to listen and watch carefully and make a strong effort to learn and remember – some students deprecate this as being stuffed like a Peking duck, ‘We Chinese get used to a pouring and filling method’ – but learners are expected to internalize models thoughtfully.” (“Changing Practices”¹¹)

Maley corroborates that “for many Chinese students and teachers books are thought of as an embodiment of knowledge, wisdom and truth. Knowledge is ‘in’ the book and can be taken out and put inside students” (101). Language teaching anchored in such a culture lays special emphasis on “memorization” and “understanding and analytical ability” (Connell 203), rather than “the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes” (Brown, “Principles of Teaching” 43). The most serious problem is that the essential nature of a language is tremendously obscured. It is no wonder many Chinese students are often characterized as passive learners. Consequently, they are not adventurous and in active charge of their own learning. McCarthy and Anderson provide their insights that in traditional environment, “students passively absorb pre-processed information and then regurgitate it in response to periodic multiple-choice exams....The traditional format encourages students to concentrate on superficial indicators rather than on fundamental underlying principles, thus neglecting deep learning” (279).

b. “Teacher” and “Unmotivated Learners”

The impact teaching has on learning is undeniably great. Teachers, in their positions as

the group leaders, embody the “group conscience” and thus “student attitudes and orientations toward learning will be modeled after their teachers” (Dornyei 278). In that sense, non-interactive teaching leads to interaction-reluctant learning styles, or L1-dependent teaching produces L1-dependent students.

Back in the time when our current adult learners were school students, the selection system and training of public school teachers were vastly government-controlled. The selection system was the College Entrance Exam, and at public normal universities, students completed the regular four-year course as the training process. The trainees’ graduation was closely followed by two rewards: qualifications and teaching positions at public schools, and life-time tenures. Until educational reforms, which took another few decades, the teachers in public schools did not have to teach effectively. Of course there had been many excellent, devoted and caring teachers, but the seemingly unbreakable safety-net could have been the cause of their lack of motivation, and thus, made them non-motivating.

Further, it appeared that the price a public school teacher had to pay was to be faithful to the educational orthodoxies. S/he would be required to follow strictly the prescribed syllabus by the Education Department, use only the government-issued materials or textbooks, and do anything possible to supervise and propel learning based on one single aim, the national public exam. In response to the situation, Hu states that “in spite of the efforts and resources expended, numerous Chinese teachers and learners of English do not seem to have gone through any fundamental changes in their conception of effective language instruction and in their daily practices” (94).

Tan, in an account of the learning environment in Taiwan, once said that teachers are “partly responsible [for students’ loss of interests] as they usually expected predetermined

correct answers from the students, which stopped the students from experimenting with new ideas and the target language” (96-97). Hwang has also noted that, in response to students’ inquiries, teachers may take pride in providing de-contextualized reasoning, rather than “striving for genuine proficiency through acquisition and internalization” (2).

Even a motivated teacher could be left powerless in managing communicativeness-oriented instructions. Teacher-centeredness has been the dominant mode across his/her school and teacher education. Therefore, when at the podium, s/he delivers teaching as how s/he has been taught because teacher-frontedness is the only way s/he knows. Brown points out that traditional settings with their teacher-domination, as well as “a host of institutional constraints that glorify content, product, correctness and competitiveness” tend to “fail to bring [the teachers and] the learners into a collaborative process of competence building” (*Teaching by Principle* 388). Because, in teacher-dominated situations, 1) responsibility is not allocated to students; 2) students’ options and choices are generally deprived, and 3) students do not have a say in establishing priorities, there is no enhancement of self-determination and intrinsic motivation (Dornyei 278).

Vigorous teaching which adopts learner-centered philosophies is, basically, not feasible for several reasons: the big size of class (40 students or more), the rigid syllabus, the fact that, according to Ministry of Education of Taiwan, English is just one of the “TEN” subjects on a high school students’ weekly schedule. Also, the school authorities, the parents and the students all set their eyes on exams.

c. “Assessment” and “Superficial Learning”

“The first practical reason the students must learn English,” as Anderson states, “is to

pass the national exam” (472). In Gao’s study where two Chinese students learning strategies are investigated, he concludes that “exam-orientedness is the most salient feature of the two learners’ learning approaches” (13). He further describes the impact of the exam-focused culture on shaping their learning approaches and the way they pursue higher academic achievement. “The learners attached increasing importance to exams as they became fully aware that exams provided a means of competition for them to move upward in the educational hierarchy to gain better access to higher positions in the social hierarchy” (13). Cortazzi and Jin observe that “there is wide recognition that passing exams in English is not only necessary to complete senior middle school, but to enter and graduate from university, and to open doors for professional and business success” (“Changing Practice” 10).

Despite the high stakes, the exams are designed with little intent to foster communicative performance. They are mainly in written form, testing students’ vocabulary or grammatical knowledge with multiple-choice items and rigidly follow textbook contents. “One of the consequences of such an exam-oriented learning approach is that learners conceive learning as cognitive activities involving memorization and reproduction of discrete knowledge” (Gao 14). Claxton claims that an exam-driven education tends to present language as “cut and dried universals,” and the learners would be “implicitly led to engage learning strategies that simply record” the knowledge (51). Finally, Kennedy elaborates on the danger of “such exams”:

“Such exams . . . promote surface learning—the ability merely to repeat information without a real understanding of meaning or of how the new information relates to previous knowledge. Exams act as a barrier to creative expression, critical thinking and problem-solving in education and, subsequently, in work too. (432)

1.3 The Culture

a. “Collectivism” and “Anxiety”

In a collectivism society, people are integrated into strong cohesion in groups. Harmony is a value with members deeming the prosperity of group as superior to individual achievement and growth. Collectivism is reflected in Chinese learning culture, and as Nelson notes, “students learn through cooperation, by working for the common good and by supporting each other” (9). However, whereas peers can be an asset in learning as generally recognized, they could be a detrimental factor within the culture where the harmony is fulfilled by not elevating oneself above others (Nelson 9).

Voicing opinions or showing enthusiasm in class are thought of as “showing off.” Liu conducted a program incorporating *reflective journals* to collect insiders’ testimonies about Chinese students’ reticence and low participation. Excerpts from the subjects’ weekly journal reveal Chinese learners’ inhibition about active participation and the predisposed caution about others’ judgments may have led to self-effacement. One of the subjects in his journal writes: “If you are too active, you will be thought of as one who likes to show off. People will not like you. So many people will not say anything although they are very knowledgeable and have their own opinions in the mind” (Liu 228). Another student writes, “Chinese culture teaches us not to be the first nor last, so that the majority prefer to wait for someone to speak first rather than make themselves the first one to try” (Liu 229). In addition, behaviors against collective norms may put an individual at the risk of losing face (Kennedy 431).

b. “Confucianism” and “Compliance”

Confucianism is a strong force shaping the teacher-student relationships in Chinese educational culture. The teacher-student relationship is one of the five coded social conducts, which requires the inferior to pay respect to their superiors with, ideally speaking, full compliance. Liu notes that “the hierarchy of human relations in the Chinese culture may drive some Chinese students to respect authority and regard teachers as authority figures” (221).

The behavioral regulations may widen the distance between the authority figures and the subordinates. Especially in language attainment, where the need to communicate is a significant driving force and the growth depends on interactions and meaning-negotiations with the interlocutor, distance could mean denial of students’ learning opportunities. Under the influence of Confucianism, students are educated to deal with authority figures with complete acceptance of instruction as a form of propriety and teachers’ knowledge and competence is taken for granted. “Such socio-cultural attitudes promote conformity and reinforce passive, compliant roles in class. Students are not encouraged to speak out, to question and to criticize” (Kennedy 431). Therefore, asking questions can be perceived negatively as a challenging act. When the teacher takes pride in feeding knowledge to young minds which are “respectfully” not inquiring, not critically thinking, not emotionally participating, and not channeling feedback, it is, after all, not education.

1.4 Taiwanese Adult Learners’ Learning Predicaments

a. Between “Passiveness” and “Autonomy”

In the world of language education, learner autonomy has been a “buzz word” in the past decades, especially in its relation to lifelong skill-attainment. Across areas of education, autonomy is argued to be an instrumental property for any sort of human conduct relevant to

learning; it can be said to be the goal of education. Ho and Crookall refer to it as “the philosophy of learning” and “an unavoidable option” for teaching objectives (236). Benson and Voller synthesize many works on learner autonomy and conclude that autonomy in learning can be applied in the following ways:

- a) for *situations* in which learners study entirely on their own
- b) for a set of *skills* which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning;
- c) for an inborn *capacity* which is suppressed by institutional education;
- d) for the exercise of *learners’ responsibility* for their own learning;
- e) for the *right* of learners to determine the direction of their own learning. (2)

Education, with one of its central purpose being promoting learners’ autonomy, should be considered as a process of developing learners’ sensitivities to what to learn and how to learn, as opposed to how much or fast one learns. Thurber contends that education should have a rudimentary “focus on students’ ability to learn rather than on the speed or rate of learning” (17). Carl Rogers defines an educated man as “a man who has learned how to learn; a man who has learn how to adapt and change; a man who has realized no knowledge is secure, that only the process of seeking knowledge gives a basis for security” (104).

Highlighted by Rogers, “the process of seeking knowledge” may be present as the source of the current problem. Given what we have learned about Taiwan’s English education, it is hard to argue that its students would come out as autonomous learners from that process. As Benson and Voller shows, “studying on one’s own” is merely one of the ways, and perhaps the most superficial one, to understand autonomy; the associated skills and mentalities are, even, more essential. Therefore, their struggle between their “passiveness” and their desire for autonomy should not be linked to unmotivatedness or unwillingness to learn, but be understood in

association with their deficiency in knowing how to effectively learn, which subsequently contributes to a psychological dependence on instructions.

b. Between “Big Concepts” and “Little Control”

When an adult is limited to repeatedly using a few simple structures in an attempt to address “deep” issues such as “global-warming” or “insider trading,” it invites concerns. Adult learners are recognized for their capability to conceptualize rather intangible, abstract ideas because of their life experience and accumulated world knowledge. Taiwanese adult learners’ linguistic knowledge is impressive in the eccentric way that they are able to identify grammar elements and call out the terminology, but they may fail to form structures of complexity and diversity. This phenomenon could be attributed to “language anatomy” (Andrew 29) in traditional education, where language is chopped into discrete linguistic elements when presented to the learners. “Traditional syntax and sentence parsing have become firmly ensconced in language study, representing in some schools a tacitly mandated curriculum” (Andrews 29). As overemphasis on isolated morphosyntactic elements replaces systematic understandings of their interplay, the learner’s linguistic repertoire, consequently, is a constitution of disconnected units. Their acquisitions, as a result, are processes marked by incoherence.

Chinese students’ learning is oriented toward exams, which go hand-in-hand with the anatomic nature of teaching approaches. I would like to present two multi-question text items to illustrate how language is introduced in a segmented manner and the students are presumed to have the ability to construct the pieces together in their own power.

1. Parts of New England were _____ to hit the low 50s Tuesday, which could be considered

balmy to some who braved the freak October snowstorm that dropped more than 2 feet of snow in some places over the weekend.

(1) expecting

(2) expectation

(3) expectable

(4) expected

2. While the temperatures are on the rise for parts of the Northeastern United States, millions were still in the dark, _____ with widespread power outages.

(1) sealing

(2) appealing

(3) dealing

(4) stealing

In the examples, the correct answers require attention only to the neighboring elements. For the test-takers, it is logically redundant to understand the formal organization of the whole sentence. We also see an irony here. These test items are constructed with rather complex lexical units to reflect the learners' advanced level but, in fact, the difficulty of the words does not yield assessing effects. We can make a linkage between the students' fragmental language repertoires and the properties of the exam designs. The students' expressions are restricted to linear, unit-by-unit processing, hampering the "flow of thoughts." Upon production, when meanings and forms are competing for processing capacity, learners, in order to get the messages across, tend to use simplistic structures, making their productions child-like.

c. Between "Beliefs" and "Actions"

Years of practices as both an English learner and teacher has made me extra cautious about the negative influence of first language (L1) knowledge. As an English learner, even after more than 15 years of study, I have to admit that my L1 is still “in play” when I deal with English communicative situations. In teaching, I had witnessed how L1 created a learning paradox, as it facilitates L2 attainment on the one hand and limits overall language growth on the other. L1 knowledge is found to most profoundly interfere with L2 learning in the domain of lexical acquisition.

Starting from the very beginning stage of learning, learners have developed a habit of using L1 labels for learning the L2. For example, on a flash card for teaching “flower,” there are often three elements—the image of a flower, the English word “flower,” and its Chinese character. The teacher, with the flash card in his/her hand, may ask the students to identify what the object is “in Chinese” and then tell the students its English representation. As their learning proceeds into a stage of more complexity and abstractness, the reliance on translation creates problems. For example, the proper usages of “provide” and “offer” could be confusing because they are usually translated into exactly the same Chinese phrase.

The emphasis on translation methods in school education has played a big role in shaping learning styles. In Liao’s investigation about Taiwanese high-school learners’ learning strategies, she reports that the participants “overwhelmingly” “use translation to learn English vocabulary words, idioms, phrases, and grammar, to read, write, and speak English, and to check their reading and listening comprehension” (203). Liao’s study also reveals that the students are generally aware of the negative influence of translation but “such a viewpoint, however, is often in conflict with students’ perspective, based on the findings of this study that learners draw on knowledge of their native language and rely on translation as they try to discover the

complexities of English” (210). Even after their learning has proceeded into more advanced levels, translation is still among the most common learning strategies. As Prince observes, “the sheer ability of learners to assimilate large quantities of words with their translation is impressive” (479). Therefore, this ability, as corresponding to and reinforcing the preferential strategy that learners adopt in early stages, is difficult to relinquish (479). In a word, in Taiwan, “English is everywhere,” but it hardly stands alone and seems to be always accompanied by Chinese references.

The following questions/requests are drawn from my previous teaching experience to demonstrate Taiwanese learners’ habitual reliance on L1 processing:

1. “Teacher, could you translate this whole sentence into Chinese?”

The learners resort to L1 knowledge as the primary (and sometimes “only”) means to cope with ambiguity in comprehension and largely neglect other strategies such as contextual inference, or searching for definitions in English. Over-reliance of L1 knowledge in L2 learning represents a problem of self-contradiction; the materials used in the attempts to cross the barriers simultaneously heighten the barriers. James claims that, when a learner mediates the FL through the mother tongue, it evokes in the learner’s mind an image labeled by L1 which makes the new L2 concept less accessible (107).

2. “Why do they have to put “ed” at the end of past verbs? It is so troublesome. We don’t have that in Chinese.”

This question/statement is to illustrate that L1 dependence may hamper the appreciation of cross-linguistic differences for “convenient” reasons. L1-dependent learners, predisposed to believe that all problems associated with L2 comprehension can be solved by finding L1-L2 equivalents, would be less willing to have positive attitudes about and then actively understand the

uniqueness of L2 (because they do not make sense in the reality built upon L1).

Regarding learners' errors, L1 interference is argued to be the central attribute to *transfer errors*. Brown claims that "before the system of L2 is familiar, the L1 is the only previous linguistic system upon which the learners can draw" (224). Therefore, there is a transfer effect whether directly or indirectly of the L1 to the new interlanguage "It seemed that a strategy involving a partial reliance on native language structure might be able to explain second language errors which appear to indicate a process of transfer" (Taylor 393). Consider the following L1-interference examples:

1. English expression intended: have some soup

English expression used: drink some soup

Corresponding Chinese expression: *he yidian tang*

Literal translation in English: drink some soup

and

2. English expression intended: turn on the TV

English expression used: open the TV

Corresponding Chinese expression: *dakai dianshi*

Literal translation in English: open TV

Evidently, while there is no way for us to determine whether the learner has received explicit instruction about "**have** some soup" or "**turn on** the TV," we can see how L1 speakers could withdraw to their "comfort zone" and mediate L2 productions based on L1 knowledge

L1 dependence represents only partially the mismatches between Taiwanese adult learners' beliefs and their actual strategy employments. As traditional methods dominate, students are not encouraged or given opportunities to investigate and modify their learning mechanisms.

Therefore, we can assume that even with functional beliefs, the learners may not sufficiently perform in concord with functional guidelines. In other words, the students may not always “do” what they “know” is good for them because they either become accustomed to ineffective strategies or simply do not know what the effective strategies are. “Symptoms” reflecting the incompatibilities can be seen elsewhere, such as the conflicts between the belief that “speaking is important” and their reticence as a result of no speaking training at school; that “making mistakes is normal” does not promote their risk-taking attitude because of the little room for mistakes in the high-stakes exams and their fear for “losing face”; or that “understanding is more important than memorization” and the fact that one might write a new word ten times on paper when learning vocabulary because there might be a spelling test tomorrow.

Chapter II: How Adults Learn

2.1 Learning Styles

The field of Second Language/Foreign Language education has identified “learner styles” as one of the most important variables in predicting outcomes. A learner’s style is described as “cognitive, affective, and psychological traits that are relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, respond to the learning environment” (Keefe 4). Oxford defined “learner styles” as “the general approaches...that students use in acquiring a language or in learning any other subjects” (2) and these approaches are “the overall patterns that give general direction to learning behaviors” (Cornett 9). Also, “learning style is the biologically and developmentally imposed set of characteristics that make the same teaching method wonderful for some and terrible for others” (Dunn and Griggs 3). While “style” is consistent and predictable (as indicated in the definitions that they are “relatively stable patterns”), connotatively speaking, it also suggests that “each individual approaches a learning task with a unique set of expectations and assumptions and a preferred mode of learning” (Nyikos 273), and these variables are said to be factors leading to different levels of achievements in teaching and learning. Supportive statements include: 1) “There is general acceptance that the manner in which the learners choose to and are inclined to approach a learning situation has a impact on performance and achievement in learning outcomes (Cassidy 420), and 2) “these variables must be accounted for in any psycholinguistic study if the results of investigations into learning are to be validly extrapolated to similar situations” (Nyikos 273). To bring about optimum outcomes in adult education, first we need to understand our subjects.

2.2 They are Self-Directed

Adult learning is voluntary and intentional as opposed to children's compulsory education. Brockett and Hiemstra reason that an adult accepts self-perceived responsibility for learning and being proactive (26). Self-directedness is the means and the goal. This propensity follows the natural course of human development, and from self-directedness adults increase self-knowledge and achieve self-realization. Subsequently, they move from a dependent state to one that is more "autonomous, independent and self-reliant" (Cercione 143). Self-directed learning is defined by Knowles as "a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies and evaluating learning outcomes" (18). Brookfield claims that self-directed learners "take control of their own learning, in particular how they set their own goals, locate appropriate resources, decide on which learning methods to use and evaluate their progresses" (2).

The emphasis of adult education is often on external or institutional constructs, such as how the process should address the students' social awareness or cognitive maturity. "The overriding theme of self-directed learning has been the external management of learning process" (Garrison 18). Self-directedness has been generally theorized in three dimensions, sociological, pedagogical and psychological in the field of adult education. The scholarly world has yielded a substantial body of works centered on sociological and pedagogical dimensions, which are external constructs, but there has been less devotion to the psychological dimension, which focuses on learners' internal variables. This implies that, while self-directedness is a major psychological attribute differentiating adults from children, adults may have still been treated

like children with their self-directedness being a neglected factor.

Due to their various backgrounds whether in learning or experiences, adults do not necessarily respond to external stimuli with the same effects:

Adults engaging in self-directed learning do not necessarily follow a definite set of steps or linear format. In essence, self-directed learning occurs both by design and chance- depending on the interests, experiences, and actions of individual learners and the circumstances in which they find themselves (Merriam and Caffarella 54).

It is no wonder Long suggests learners' internal factors be more sophisticatedly understood in adult education because the "critical dimension is not the sociological variable, nor is it the pedagogical factor. The main distinction is the psychological factor" (3). Bearing this in mind, a further exploration of learners' internal factors related to self-directedness will be carried out in the next chapter.

2.3 They Rely on Experience

Continuous learning reflects the human's need to build new pathways to be closely connected to our perceived world. The perceived world is built upon countless interactions with people and events we encounter. From a constructivist point of view, the world is not given to us by nature, but constructed with our experiences. "All our knowledge begins with experience... Knowledge is made up of what we receive through impression" (Kant 25). Constantly, we perceive and interpret events with a conceptual mechanism, which gradually becomes structured along with time. Brookfield refers to this mechanism as a "perceptual filter," functioning to generate readings and personal associations with the events. This notion has initially explained

the importance of experience in knowledge growth. “The gradual accumulation of experience across the contexts of life is often argued as the chief difference in learning in adulthood” (Brookfield 4). Experience as an asset in adult learning was expressed in Lindeman's frequently quoted aphorism that “experience is the adult learner’s living textbook” (7). This is to say that knowledge is embodied in experience and “learning is a process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience” (Kolb 38).

“To make ‘*meaning*’ means to make sense of an experience. We make an interpretation of it” (Mezirow “Critical Reflection” 1). These interpretations generate references—what is good or bad, beautiful or ugly, right or wrong etc. The references together form our perspectives, which reflect beliefs, values or expectations. According to Mezirow, knowledge is not “out there,” but is “discovered from interpretations and reinterpretations in light of new experiences” (in “Contemporary Paradigm” 162). Therefore, uncritically assimilated information retained from transmission, as in contrast to transformation, tends to be devoid of personal perspectives and ostracized from the experience-interpretation-knowledge cycle. The processing machinery responsible for the formation of knowledge in a transformative nature is termed by Mezirow as “meaning schemes,” which are sets of related and habitual expectations governing ‘if-then’, ‘cause-effect’ and category relationships as well as event sequences (“Critical Reflection” 1).

In other words, if “learning is a holistic process of adaptation to the world [and] not just the result of cognition” (Kolb 41), then adults are logically the defter learners. Kolb reports that when adults undertake to learn something through their own initiative, they start with a concrete experience. Then, they make observations about the experience, reflect on it and diagnose what new knowledge or skill they need to acquire in order to perform more effectively. Then, with the help of material and human resources, they formulate abstract concepts and generalizations, from

which they deduce what to do next. Finally, they test their concepts and generalizations in new situations, which refer to the new experiences (21).

2.4 They are Life-Centered

Adults can be ordered into a classroom and prodded into seats, but they cannot be forced to learn for the sake of learning itself. The fact that their learning is life-driven gives rise to two of their propensities: goal-orientedness and relevance-orientedness. Adults are generally characterized as goal-oriented. Upon enrolling in a course, they usually have in mind what they want to achieve and assume leaderships in their learning. “Adult students usually know what they want to learn, and they like to see the program organized toward their personal goals” (Cerccone 145). Adult learning is intentional, and the intention must be a branch off some goal, based on which they evaluate their progress, monitor their strategies and eventually define and envision success.

Consider the following two sentences:

1. I have to improve my English, *so I can* be promoted.
2. I have to improve my English, *or I cannot* be promoted.

The combination of these statements shows that the same goal can be based on opposite psychological states. Given the proactive nature of adults, problems can serve to be the motivation of learning. After school-driven, knowledge-based education, adults enter a task/problem-centered, skill-based phase of learning where they learn not only for desirable growth but also to prevent crisis. “As the person matures, the orientation towards learning become less subject-centered and increasingly problem-centered” (Knowles 39). A goal can be both achievement-driven and problem-driven. Cerccone contends that driven by their problem-

centered learning styles, adults attend to learning with an preconception that learning is for preparation for more challenging tasks in the future, rather than the current ones (Cercone 144).

Adults' relevancy-orientation has been accounted for by Knowles: "they need to know why they are learning something" (in *Self-directed Learning*). The predetermined goals have fostered the decision-making of continuous learning. "They experience a need to learn it in order to cope more satisfyingly with real-life tasks or problems" (Knowles "Modern Practice" 44). Learning for adults is a "coping response" (Zemke and Zemke 32) to life events. They start with a need and seek out learning opportunities with obvious hopes of eliciting immediate benefits. Consequently, learning must be relevant; "adults learn best when convinced of the need for knowing the information. Often a life experience or situation stimulates the motivation to learn" (O'Brian). In successfully coping with on-going or future real-life tasks, adults also develop competencies. Therefore, we see Zemke and Zemke taking another perspective to explain adults' relevancy-oriented learning. "Adults are competency-based learners, meaning that they want to learn a skill or acquire knowledge that they can apply pragmatically to their immediate circumstances" (31).

Chapter III: Language Awareness

3.1 Introduction

Learner styles manifest the cultures, the values and the prescribed norms of the environment. Gregorc views a learning style as: “consisting of distinctive behaviors which serve as indicators of how a person learns from and adapts to his environment (234). Also, Hunt writes that a learning style “describes a student in terms of those educational conditions under which he is most likely to learn.” (27). In the earlier chapter, we saw that education in Taiwan’s schools is questionable in terms of providing a healthy environment for Taiwanese adult learners to develop functional learning mechanisms. Therefore, undesirable features are detected as they: 1) indiscriminately “swallow” and superficially process language data; 2) passively attend to their own learning and depend on mainly deductive methods; 3) heavily rely on L1 interpretations and; 4) withdraw themselves from communicative uses.

Later, after entering professional lives where English proficiencies receive a “reality check” in authentic settings, adults realize exam scores do not mean communicative competence and better understand the essence of language as a social tool for communication and conveying meanings. However, basically, learning to a great extent entails “adopting a ‘habitual’ . . . mode of acquiring knowledge” (McLoughlin 223). With this being said, it is easy to argue that these “habits,” which have developed through prolonged practices in previous learning, are carried by adult learners to their continuous learning and bring in “conflicts” against their present learning tendencies:

1. They are psychologically ready for self-directed learning but not equipped with adequate metacognitive awareness for functional strategy employment and may be still accustomed to

teacher-fronted, lecturing type of teaching. .

2. They are experienced in learning but at the same time might be doubtful about the values of those experiences given the fact that they have to come back to an English classroom.
3. Their relevancy-orientation and life-centeredness drive the expectation of immediate application of what is learned in a classroom, but they could easily forget how much they can learn outside of classroom in life.

Adult learners must not be “blank sheets” in terms of preconceptions about language learning. However, they may not be aware of the effects of their own preconceptions, including the negative ones. Therefore, “language learners,” as Holec contends, “must go through a sort of psychological preparation or ‘deconditioning’ to rid themselves of preconceived notions and prejudices which would likely interfere with their language learning” (27). Similar advice is provided by Knowles: “‘unfreezing’ experience built into the early phase of a course, workshop, or other sequential educational activity is one way of helping adult students look at themselves more objectively and free their minds from preconceptions” (45). Given what has been portrayed about the school education, it is difficult for us to be convinced that the learners would have developed functional (“correct” would be too much of an arbitrary term) views toward what English essentially is as a language.

What is English? Many would answer it with “a language;” however, “what is a language” might be a head-scratcher. Indeed, Schmidt once compared language to air, commenting that language is commonly taken for granted, nothing like a striking fact of life. It often appears as “nothingness” (26). Schmidt’s notion reveals that even an individual with the highest competence (a native speaker) might not necessarily have adequate understanding about how language works in regulating behaviors, facilitating communication, reflecting cultures and

creating a reality in its presence.

Foreign language learners are naturally unprivileged in interacting with the world where the target language is used. Of course artificial learning has somewhat closed the distance between the learner and the target language, and there has been ample evidence showing that the natural disadvantages can be overcome. However, as the learners are engrossed in an environment where learning and misconceptions seem to be sealed in eternal conjugation, what is left that is stable and reliable in the learners is the awareness of being linguistic performers. Therefore, to capitalize this gift will outweigh introductions of physical linguistic items in adults' English education.

After this long discussion, to sum up, we are able to argue for at least three principles in Taiwanese adults' English education:

1. It must not be an extension of traditional modes:

Formal curricula reflect what powerful groups think students should learn and what kinds of knowledge are considered important. In contrast, learners are at the center of policy and practice in adult learner-centered institutions, which are characterized by flexibility and individuation for self-directed, empowered adults.
(Thurber)

2. It needs to match their learning styles: The key to using adults' natural motivation to learn is tapping into their most teachable moments (Zemke and Zemke 34).
3. It needs to rid them of misconceptions and redeem the linguistic status of English, in contrast to English as a school subject: "We must disabuse students of deleterious misconceptions about language learning before they can become effective self-directed learners" (Horwitz 292) and must assist the student in restructuring those views (Confrey 109).

For most English educators, it is routine work to search for activities and materials to maintain learning as a vigorous, diverse and fun experience for the students. We keyed in “activities for teaching grammar/pronunciation” on Google, attended conferences to see other colleagues’ demonstrations or stopped by bookstores regularly for up-to-date information. While many activities are conducive in facilitating teaching and learning, they may focus more on the skill-training in a narrow domain rather than conceptual development. Therefore, what we need is an “approach,” an approach that can serve our purpose to help the learners understand what a language is. In searching, I came across the Language Awareness Approach and have developed a loyalty to it because its principles are compatible with an ideal English education for Taiwanese adult learners. First, the Language Awareness Approach is far from being traditional. Secondly, it conforms to adults’ learning characteristics, i.e., their self-directedness, reliance on experience and relevancy-orientation. Third, its ultimate objective is to, as the term suggests, raise learners’ awareness of language, which is a necessary precondition for better understanding of what a language is in its nature.

Language Awareness is not only an integral part of learning readiness for linguistic advancement but also should be an objective across the borders between content areas. Supports can be found in Karl Kraus’s famous quotation. “Language is the mother of thought, not its handmaiden.” In addition, in one of the most influential passage about language and thought, Vygotsky writes:

The relation of thought to word is not a thing but a process, a continual movement back and forth from thought to word and from word to thought. In that process, the relation of thought to word undergoes changes that themselves may be regarded as development in the functional sense. Thought is not merely expressed

in words; it comes into existence through them. (218)

3.2 What is *Language Awareness*

To understand what *Language Awareness* is, we could begin with what can cause someone to not have Language Awareness. The first one is the lack of knowledge. In the most extreme case, one is prevented from having Language Awareness when a language does not yield any meanings; its words appear as randomly drawn lines and its sounds appear as noise. Another cause pertains to a perception about language that may suppress the growth of Language Awareness and cause what Schmidt calls “linguistic naivety,” namely *referential* language. As McRae explains:

Referential language remains what it is meant is a dictionary sense; one word has one meaning, one grammatical construction is right and another wrong. The words mean what they say, no more and no less...At the stage of language use, any text or communication is on one level only- purely informational. (17)

A *referential* view about language leads to a learning process where language study operates in a purely scientific fashion with most of the humanistic values vastly “trimmed off” from the enterprise of language. Chan notes that in *referential* learning, “the likely questions generated from the context ask what the words denote, but not why they are chosen and what they are patterned to connote. Students are seldom required to express their feelings, use their imagination or make an aesthetic response”(39).

The Language Awareness movement started as a reaction to a theoretical climate where “most theories have foundations in an atomistic view of language which works from separate levels of language organization, such as grammar, lexis or phonology, and which engages first,

and sometimes only with the smallest and systematizable units” (Bolitho et al. 253) and to traditional language learning which was “generally typified by atomistic analysis of language, and reinforced by narrowly formalistic methodologies, such as grammar translation, drills, and pattern practice” (Carter 64).

In contrast, Language Awareness adheres to a holistic view of language and language education. The formulation of the term *Language Awareness* is quite general. It can be defined as explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use. It covers a wide spectrum of fields. Language Awareness issues include exploring the benefits that can be derived from developing knowledge about language, a conscious understanding of how languages work, of how people learn them and use them. It posits that the growth of a part is beneficial to the growth of the whole. As experiences tell us, learners who have integrated skills tend to be the more successful ones.

From this view, “there is no such a thing as neutral description of language” (Masuhara in Bolitho et al. 253) and “just as language is complex and complicated, so is its study. It would be very difficult to decide upon a definite list of language features comprehensive enough to include everything and please everyone” (Arndt et al. 19). Based on its holistic view, the Language Awareness Approach gives prominence to the balance in learning between each aspect of language learning, e.g., social/cultural elements, productive/receptive skills, formal/meaningful attainments, or the balance between KOL (Knowledge of Language) and KAL (Knowledge about Language). If the weaving of different components fails, the learning outcomes may consist merely of discrete, segregated skills. Andrew contends against traditional approaches and insists on language having its “totality” that should not be dismembered when presented to the students for the sake of their competency development:

As students become more aware of the totality of language and its varying human characteristics and meaning-making uses, they are more likely to attain metalinguistic awareness and will, consequently, be more competent in using language with spontaneity, with precision, and with elaboration” (Andrews 30).

Language Awareness is “a mental attribute which develops through paying motivated attention to language in use, and which enables language learners to gradually gain insights into how languages work. It is also a pedagogic approach that aims to help learners to gain such insights” (Tomlinson 251). The most prominent principle of Language Awareness as a language education approach is raising learners’ “awareness of language as an important phenomenon in our lives” (Schmidt 25). From Carter’s perspective, Language Awareness refers to “the development in learners of an enhanced consciousness of and sensitivity to the forms and functions of language” (64). James ascribes a developmental nature of Language Awareness and recognizes its important role in linguistic internalization. “LA is broadly constituted of a mix of knowledge of language in general and in specific, command of metalanguage (standard or *ad hoc*), and the conversion of intuitions to insight and then beyond to metacognition” (102). Hence, Language Awareness defines “knowing a language” as comprehensive knowledge of the ways in which sounds and words are combined and linguistic units are structured to convey meaning according to culturally specific social purposes.

In practical conduct, encouragements of Language Awareness for learners include, “finding things out about language, becoming conscious about one’s own and others’ use of it in speech and written form, developing a sensitive relationship to it, and being able to explicitly talk about one’s insights into it” (Smith 25). This description immediately ascribes the nature of Language Awareness to a processed-oriented approach:

It is a process-oriented approach, which includes steps of discovery, investigation, and understanding, which contrasts markedly with the traditional product-oriented approach in which one is told the rules and has to drill and memorize them, a method found even in recent grammar books for teaching purposes. (Bourke 15)

3.3 Language Awareness Approach and Adult Learning Styles

a. Language Awareness and Self-Directed Learning

“Self-directed learning was the first attempt by adult educators to define adult education as a unique field of practice, one that could be differentiated from learning in general and childhood education in particular” (Merriam 11). The title “adult learners in Taiwan” represents a contradiction in terms of their properties; learning in Taiwan makes us pessimistic about their autonomy and the status of adult suggests their high self-directedness. This identification is helpful for us to determine the first task in their education, which is “to learn how to learn” to enable their self-directed learning.

It is necessary to highlight the differences between these two often interchangeable terms, “autonomy” and “self-directedness.” For the current argument, I would opt to view autonomy as a skill-bound capacity which will positively respond to external training. “Learner autonomy... is a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action’ (Little 4). On the other hand, self-directedness is more of a psychological trait developing naturally as one matures—a “mental organ developed over time through a particular history of social interactions (Grow 128). In others words, autonomy is “a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning” (see 1.4. a).

To reinforce autonomy in self-directed learning, first of all, the learner needs to be

equipped with adequate metacognitive knowledge, which includes knowledge of general strategies that might be used for different tasks, knowledge of the conditions under which these strategies might be used, knowledge of the extent to which the strategies are effective, and knowledge of self (Pintrich 219). Learning and learning how to learn should proceed simultaneously; “Like learning, learning how to learn should be thought of as both a goal or outcome and process” (MacKeracher 15).

The objective of turning the learners into able metaconitive strategy employers will require the teacher to relinquish the role of a commander who expects the students to follow rigid, step-by-step instruction. A teacher should create the activities where learners themselves can discover new knowledge, modify and improve their skills, especially when the learners are all experienced in learning in their lives. It is not being said teaching metacognitive thinking is useless or impossible. The more significant problem with our learners is that they are barely familiar with the concept and its importance in becoming life-time learners.

The question here is: how is learners’ awareness of metacognitive thinking stimulated and activated? This question will find its first answer in the spectrum of “control” in the teaching-learning relationships. In a long line of literature about independent or self-directed learning, “control” has been a key factor. Grow proposed a model composed of stages where instruction and learning interact actively toward learners’ self-directedness as the goal. The most noticeable feature of Grow’s model is that as the education proceeds, the control shifts gradually from the teaching end to the learning end; the central philosophy of teaching in each stage moves from *coaching*, through *motivating* and *facilitating*, and finally arrives at “*delegating*.” He suggests, in *facilitating*, that teachers and students need to share in decision-making, with students taking an increasing role and the teachers being just the “providers” of tools and techniques for students to

manage their learning (133). In the last stage, *delegating*, the teacher, as a consultant and negotiator, is to cultivate the students' ability to learn with a focus on the productivity of learning. Grow, at the end, provides a powerful message in light of adults' autonomous learning saying that "the ultimate goal is the learners' own empowerment" (135)

Adult educators also need to consider another dimension, which is learners' active engagement, or, "willingness" to be involved. Intensified engagement brings forth increased attention, more active participation and greater devotion. Across educational fields, the idea of "learners' engagement" has invited a great deal of scholarly interest in providing guidance, of which Morgan's provision is highly representative:

1. Content delivery should require active learner involvement with complex, even controversial materials.
2. The classroom environment should be one of "change or novelty."
3. Students need to struggle with complex materials and reach their own conclusions, rather than just be the passive receivers of information.

Students should become aware of their own attitudes toward language. (73)

As Turner warns, when the contents are deviant from learners' interest, the dependent learner mode will dominate. They will be inclined to relinquish control of the process to the teacher and demand carefully articulated structure and clear guidance (2). So, how do we ensure a high level of learners' engagement in the process? Fisher et al. once wrote, "competencies required for self-direction can be developed to some extent and the best way to learn autonomous behavior is to behave autonomously" (157). However, the transformation from dependent learning styles to autonomous learning is unlikely to occur overnight, or, in Turner's term, to "flip" simply because "the teacher says so" or "it is the right thing to do."

“Adults are motivated to learn by internal factors rather than external ones” (Merriam and Cafferella 272). Learners’ willingness is basically a matter of intrinsic motivation supported by interests. This poses another question as to how to promote learners’ intrinsic motivation (IM). Vallerand identifies three types of sources: 1) IM-Knowledge: learners are motivated from exploring new ideas and developing knowledge 2) IM- Accomplishments: learners are motivated from knowing they are approaching mastering a task or solving a given problem 3) IM-Stimulation: learners are motivated from the sensations stimulated by performing the task, such as aesthetic appreciation, cultural immersion or simply excitement (qtd. in Noels 61). Noels concludes that “the common basis of these three subtypes is the pleasurable sensations experienced during the self-initiated and challenging activity” (Noels et al. 61)

However, according to what we have learned about Taiwanese adult learners, it is hard to ascribe “intrinsically motivated” to them owing to that English learning has been predominantly driven by external forces whether in their previous or continuous learning. Plus, the three sources in Vallerand’s identification, as Noel et al. point out, are available “during” the tasks. So, is there something exploitable even before the execution of self-initiated and challenging tasks that will possibly lead to subsequent inquisitive and explorative behaviors? The answer can be found in Deci’s statement: “curiosity makes people seek out personally meaningful interests and desires and thereby is intrinsically motivating” (qtd. in Kashdan et al. 291). In linking curiosity to one’s motivational factors, Kashdan et al. writes:

Curiosity is an important motivational component (but not the only one) that links cues reflecting novelty and challenge (internal or external) with growth opportunities...Curiosity prompts proactive, intentional behaviors in response to stimuli and activity with the following properties: novelty, complexity,

uncertainty, and conflict (291).

Let's turn our focus back on the Language Awareness Approach, and see what it has to offer. As an approach, Language Awareness postulates that learners should "discover language for themselves" (Bolitho et al. 251). This principle may tell a lot more than it appears. First of all, with "discovering language," the Language Awareness Approach is a departure from traditional top-down transmission of knowledge and seeks to stimulate learners' inquisitive desires (curiosity) for more active thinking.

Secondly, although learners might be told to perform according to certain preset procedures or directions for the discovery, meaning that the actions may not be self-initiated, the results, namely the discovered features or information, are self-gained and self-owned. This is why learners are encouraged to discover language "for themselves." If we contrast the routes of thinking and the results between two different mental processes, "figuring out" and "remembering," the self-gained quality of discovered knowledge may become more salient. For example, we have the target feature being the morphological element, "inter-," and the learners are presented with two words "international" and "interpersonal." The mental products induced by the teacher asking "what is the relation . . . ?" or directly explaining with "the relation is . . . " are destined to be different in quality; the former one is self-gained through paying deliberate attention whereas the later one is characterized by passive memorization. According to Lin, self-achieved realization is more available for the succeeding integration and internalization (125).

So far, the argument has been constructed in a *pedagogical* domain. Nevertheless, we shall not forget the Language Awareness Approach develops from Language Awareness, which needs to be understood as a mental resource in a psycholinguistic sense to explain its significance in independent learning. First of all, by claiming that we all have "organs of

language,” which are innate schemas comprising “linguistic universals” as part of our genetic inheritance, Chomsky expresses the optimism that we are naturally endowed with the ability to carry out language learning without really being taught. Secondly, if not “innate,” Language Awareness is also not instilled by external force. Tomlinson asserts that Language Awareness is “gradually developed internally by the learners” and enables them to gain insights into how language works (123). We may reasonably infer from the combination of these two accounts that while everyone is empowered with a language learning mechanism, Language Awareness is a crucial in bringing forth higher-leveled, more sophisticated understanding of inward data, namely, transforming input into insights. An autonomous learner is keen in seeking new language features, negotiating for the meanings and testing his/her hypothesis and is reflective about his/her language and the learning process. All of these learning activities will not result without acquired insights and are aimed at generating new insights.

In sum, learner-centeredness and learning-centeredness are further assumed in the Language Awareness Approach. Its proponents have strong faith in learners’ inherent capacity of successfully, and most importantly, independently learning a language. It is oriented to trigger, capitalize and cultivate adult learners’ intrinsic motivation by actively involving them in their own learning process. “Language Awareness approaches . . . value even more highly on the active engagement between learner, language data and learning process” (Bolitho et al. 256). This active engagement is a preliminary of the development of metacognitive knowledge and ability for refined strategies in light of adults’ self-directed learning.

b. Language Awareness and Experiential-Learning

The name of “adults who return to English learning” suggests two predictions. On one

hand, generally, adults are highly motivated because, in nature, most of them are in constant pursuit of self-realization, self-reliance or better life quality and, practically, they have apparent needs to advance their proficiency outside the classroom. All these contribute to learning readiness. On the other hand, the fact that they, although voluntarily, have to return to English learning after their schooling could be a nagging reminder of their failures from previous learning. Bandura claims that an individual's gauge of his/her own ability involves skills in "managing aversive emotional reactions that can impair the quality of thinking and actions" (118).

Indeed, a part of adults' learning is to battle "aversive emotions." Many of the adult learners I used to work with at first came into the classroom with "regrets" or "self-doubts." They may have regretted they had not pushed themselves harder to learn English when the time and resources were adequately provided, and they had doubts about whether they could ever become competent users. Therefore, despite their high motivation, ironically, they could be more vulnerable than those without as much learning experience when setbacks occur in English learning. Adding to the complicatedness of Taiwanese adults' English learning in terms of experience is Merriam and Cafferella's notion that "experience is an ever-growing reservoir an adult accumulates" (272); experience could be an asset, but at the same time, the failed one will be remembered.

"Language Awareness approach is essentially experiential" (Bolitho et al. 252). In the coming section, I will attempt to show the values of Language Awareness based on its adoptions of the philosophies from *experiential learning*. After all, the truth that the reservoir of experience is ever-growing may cause optimism about adults' continuing learning because that means our chances of pouring in new, constructive experience are unlimited.

At the outset, what is the role of experience in learning? A long line of literature has identified that the emphasis on experience is the watershed between *rote learning* and *meaningful learning*. “Rote learning is arbitrary, verbatim, and not related to experience with events or objects” (Chin and Brown 109) while “a focus of meaningful learning is consistent with the view of learning as knowledge construction in which students seek to make sense of their experiences” (Mayer 227). Moreover, substantiation of experience is the key internal factor that *deep learning* advocacies hold to distinguish it from *surface learning*. In deep learning, “there is an internal emphasis that the learner personalizes the task, making it meaningful to his or her own experience and to the real world” (Chin and Brown 110). In contrast, surface learners perceive the task as a demand to be met, memorize discrete facts, reproduce terms and procedures through rote learning and view a particular task in isolation from real life as a whole (Chin and Brown 110). In surface learning, information and facts are remembered but not applied, and learning outcomes rest on how efficiently one can retrieve the taught information instead of how successfully the knowledge is transformed into practical skills.

Under the principles of experiential learning as a type of deep learning, cognitive activities take place on higher levels of processing. For example, *remembering* in surface learning represented “an end in itself” for retrieving information in isolation from context, but now it is “an end,” which is integrated within the larger task of constructing new knowledge or solving new problems (Mayer 228). In a similar vein, Kennedy comments about one of the most common cognitive strategies in learning, *memorization*, and provides an advanced view in light of experiential philosophies. “Memorization has never been seen as an end in itself but as a prelude to deeper understanding—mentally ‘photocopying’ texts, committing them to memory, enabled the ‘learner’ to savor and reflect on them later, and, finally, to integrate them with

his/her prior learning and experience” (433).

Two characteristics of adults’ learning in light of experience have been identified: 1) they have rich life experiences and; 2) their previous learning experience is not contributory for current learning. The task, for exploiting the strengths and countering the weakness, needs to be guided by the principle of constructing a new learning experience which taps into their life experiences. To combine this principle with the importance of direct actions, language educators should then be motivated to create activities which will engross learners in an atmosphere of genuine communication and elicit language productions which carry out communicative purpose--to base the learning on actual doing. Supported by adults’ superiority in life experience compared with younger learners, the maneuver of constructing scenarios associated with real-life situations should be employed. Experience obtained through authentic activities is argued to be attached to more meanings and relevancy, and thus facilitates comprehension of the language in its authentic use (Fragoulis 114), and most importantly, “transforms” the knowledge into practical skills by mapping the it onto one’s schemas (mental structures that represent an aspect of the world). That is to say that experientially transformed knowledge fosters the learner’s view of the target language as a component in his/her conceptual reality, thus, changing him/her from being “a learner” closer to “a speaker.” Built on the ground of “learning by doing” in the construct of *experiential learning* are two central pillars that deserve no oversights. The two concepts have been “quietly” infused in the discussion above but not specifically addressed. They are “language learning experience” and “language use experience.”

Resonating with Aldous Huxley’s words that “experience is what one does with what happens to him”, the Language Awareness Approach posits that learners ought to be the “architects” of their own learning experience. Kohonen explains this idea:

Experiential learning theory provides the basic philosophical view of learning as part of personal growth. The goal is to enable the learner to become increasingly self-directed and responsible for his or her own learning. This process means a gradual shift of the initiative to the learner, encouraging him or her to bring in personal contributions and experiences. Instead of the teacher setting the tasks and standards of acceptable performance, the learner is increasingly in charge of his or her own learning. (32)

Guo and Li recognize that, among many of the trends driving contemporary language curriculum development, a shift from a transmission model of education to one of experientialism has had the most profound effects. They provide the comparison of these two models (as seen in Table. 1.) and conclude that the shift resides in the increase of learners' responsibility and involvement and that learning is a process of self-discovery (19). These central philosophies of experiential-learning are also explained by Rogers:

It has a quality of personal involvement-the whole person in both his feeling and cognitive aspects being in the learning event. It is self-initiated. Even when the impetus or stimulus comes from the outside, the sense of discovery, of reaching out, of grasping and comprehending, comes from within. It is pervasive. It makes a difference in the behavior, the attitudes, perhaps even the personality of the learner. (5)

So far, the argument has been centered on adults' learning experience. However, there is another dimension we should tap into for a more complete picture, which is the experience in language use. At the outset, Horwitz et al. once shared an intriguing observation that in adults' experience of second language use, there commonly exists a psychological phenomenon

Dimension	Traditional Model: Behaviorism	Experiential Model: Constructivism
View of Learning	Transmission of knowledge	Transformation of knowledge
Power Relationship	Emphasis on teachers' authority	Teachers as "a learner among learners"
Teachers' Role	Providing mainly frontal instruction; professionalism as individual autonomy	Facilitating learning; collaborative professionalism
Learners' Role	Relatively passive recipients of information	Active participants
Learning Experiences	Knowledge of facts, concepts and skills; focus on content and product	Focus on process; learning skills, self-inquiry, social and communication skills
Control of Process	Mainly teacher-structured learning	Emphasis on learners; self-directed learning
Motivation	Mainly extrinsic	Mainly intrinsic

Table 1. < Traditional and Experiential Models Compared > (Guo and Li 20)

attributable to adults' frustration and anxiety. The writers term it "crippled genuineness" and provide the following explanation:

Authentic communication also becomes problematic in the second language because of immature command of the second language relative to the first. Thus, adult language learners' self-perception of genuineness in presenting themselves may be threatened by the limited range of meaning and affect that can be deliberately communicated (Horwitz et al. "Anxiety" 128).

This is to say that, for example, when an extroverted person finds it challenging to socialize with people, or a funny person cannot give humorous comments due to his/her limited proficiency, frustrations could arise because s/he is unable to present the “true self.” It is like putting a pianist onto a piano that does not make sounds. They also add that the disparity between the “true self” as a person and the “limited self” as a language learner is what distinguishes language study anxieties from other academic anxieties such as those associated with mathematics or science (128).

Difficulties stemming from linguistic deficiency are a more direct force in crippling one’s genuine self-expression. Indirectly, the psychology-related discomforts arising during using L2 can also be as much inhibitive. Based on my observation, there are at least three ways to explain the discomforts in adults’ history of learning:

1. Most of their available conversation partners are from the same L1 community. In this situation, they have to force themselves to use the less familiar L2 for the sake of practice while knowing that communication would be easier with their shared mother tongue.
2. It can be a struggle to be culturally and socially detached from the reality built upon their L1.
3. Internally, they have not developed a linguistic identity associated with L2 in their self-knowledge.

The psychological inhibition may partially explain learners’ reticence and low participation in activities anchored in verbal, interactive practice. Avoidance could occur as a result of the original L1 identity being confronted by the “different self.” With this in mind, expressing the “true self” requires more than linguistic competence. Learners also need to develop the identity associated with L2 through experience where the L2 uses are motivated by natural communicative intentions in order to feel comfortable and confident in expressing

themselves. The importance of encouraging “the use of language for the sake of expression”, as opposed to “the use for the sake of practice,” to assist the growth of L2 identity is further underscored by Horwitz et al.: “no other field of study implicates self-concept and self-expression to the degree language study does” (128). So, the next question would be, “how?”

When I was in high school, there was a particular article in our textbook, “MacArthur’s Prayer for His Son.” Even today, 14 years later, I can still clearly remember the feeling of being touched by the great man’s love and expectations for his son, his sincerity and humbleness in front of God, and his inspirations to any other young men, even though the exact words are now blurry. Another thing I can also remember clearly is how the lesson was taught. The teacher explained the grammatical rules, circled new vocabulary and told us there would be a test of the vocabulary on the very next day. In this particular experience, nothing about humanistic values, such as emotions, religions or aesthetic values in literature in this article were brought up for discussions or exploration. The students’ were engaged in a mode of data storing/retrieving with little or no emotional responses to the language presented.

Personalization fuels the process of the transformation from external events to one’s own experience. We “assess the experience, assigning our own meaning in terms of our own goals, aims, ambitions and expectations” (Saddington 1). It is a process controlled by an individual’s meaning schemas (see 2.1.b). Learning is said to have occurred when there is a change; a change in behaviors, a change in understanding and a change in actions. “The exploitation and processing of experience [is] aiming not only at acquiring knowledge, but also at transforming the way of thinking and changing attitudes” (Fragoulis 113). So, when experiential learning is happening, it means the learners are making changes and starting to cast personal interpretations to L2 input or to use L2 as the means to connect themselves to the world as if they do with L1.

By personalizing linguistic encounters, learners are expected to have changes in how they perceive language data. For example, originally “what the word means” may become “what the word means to me,” or “how I should say the sentence correctly” may become “how I can manage to say what I mean to say.” To activate this transformation, as implied in the last paragraph with my learning experience about “MacArthur’s Prayer for His Son,” we need to rely on affective engagement:

Affective engagement with the language in use also has the considerable advantage of stimulating a fuller use of the resources of the brain. Positive attitudes, self-esteem and emotive involvement help to fire neural pathways between many areas of the brain, and to achieve the multi-dimensional representation needed for deep processing of language (Bolitho et al. 256).

Concerning the present topic, “language Awareness offers opportunities for affective engagement Support comes from researchers who argue that affect gives values, reasons and motivations for learning” (Bolitho et al 253). In addition, Bolitho claims that “sensitivity to affect . . . may help [the teachers] to ‘unblock’ failing students by encouraging them to respond affectively as well as cognitively to language input of various kinds” (Bolitho et al. 256). However, the concern here is that it would be too naïve to assume that students’ affective involvement would be triggered after the teacher tell them to “speak the language like you mean it” or to “make the language personal.” What we need is a functional arrangement which will spur their interests, maintain a high level of motivation and provide hands-on experiences on stretched scales where learners can explore the language and fine-tune their learning strategies in a step-by-step manner. *That’s right!* I am talking about a task-based approach. As Carter points out, “initial research in language awareness has shown increased motivation resulting from

activities, especially task-based activities, . . . which allow learners time and space to develop their own affective and experiential responses to the language” (65).

Thousands of years ago, Confucius gave the world this proverb: “I hear and I forget. I see and I know. I do and I understand.” “Learning by doing” is a philosophy that lays the groundwork of experiential learning. “Experiential learning refers to the organization of the learning process on the basis of the pedagogical principle of “learning by doing”” (Kotti 32). The Language Awareness approach, with its experiential nature, posits that learners should be the architects of their own learning and be provided with both the freedom and blueprints. Also the Language Awareness Approach allows linguistic experiences to become personal, from which the new identity associated with L2 can develop, so the learners can achieve genuine self-expression.

c. Language Awareness and Practical Learning

Knowles et al. once wrote, “Adults become ready to learn those things they need to know and be able to do in order to cope effectively with their real-life situations” (87). As discussed earlier, the need for effective communication in adults’ professional realm is a paramount motivation for their decision to continue English education. After the school education where English was a school subject, they are now required to display communicative competence, rather than what CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) categorizes as linguistic competence, such as abilities of grammatical analysis or vocabulary memorization. English now has life-relevancy so that the learners begin to realize how language is essentially an important phenomenon of life (see in 3.2 *What is Language Awareness*).

According to Cervero and Wilson, “the highest professional and moral principle for adult

educators is to involve learners in identifying their needs (29). This statement may generate two concerns. First, McRae provides a noteworthy observation about an adult classroom. He speaks about how oftentimes education is conducted on a referential base at the expense of students' customized needs because every learner wants to know clearly the "pay-off" of learning and referential learning is practiced with more specific standards, which prevent obscurity in the determination of "pay-off." Given that an adult English class is comprised of specialist learners from a variety of fields with different language conventions, it appears to be a "mission impossible" for a teacher to fulfill everyone's needs and anticipations. In this situation, "the teacher is often caught between non-specialist awareness/ignorance and referential language expertise which the learners may consider inappropriate or redundant" (McRae18).

Another concern is efficient learning. Considering adults' limited time allowed for language study due to their multiple roles and responsibilities as professionals, students or parents, they need to be able to learn autonomously outside of formal contexts, and what is learned inside the classroom should be of great applicability in their lives. Combining these two factors, we can argue that what they need is something reliably at their disposal at all times, something they can carry with them as traveling through life where English is a phenomenon and institutional education might just be a small part. The identification of this need is pertinent to informal learning, which "can take place in any space, such as the workplace, the family, a religious institution, the community and the like" and use a diversity of resources, "including books, newspapers, TV, the internet, museums, schools, universities, friends, relatives, their own experience, etc" (Schugurensky 5-6). In short, what adult learners need and can rely on is Language Awareness.

Language Awareness is beneficial for adults with respect to their life-centeredness

because it takes learning beyond the boundaries of formal learning. It involves “encouraging learners to gather data from the world outside school” (Hawkins 5). Needless to stress, English data is now ubiquitous given the fact that it has been an international language and the wide popularity of American pop culture. In fact, in Taiwan, the signs at almost every public facility are complemented with English; English phrases are written into the lyrics of Chinese songs; birthday cards use short, wishful English sentences; or English movies and music are available in assorted media, to name just a few.

However, many learners, especially those in EFL contexts, may think that learning takes place only in formal education settings and learning materials are those in the textbooks, handouts, teachers’ handwriting on the board, or exam-sheets in classes. Even for self-educators attempting to learn outside the classroom, learning is to study the books or watch English teaching TV/online programs. It seems that they would not perform learning unless there is something clearly displaying its purpose for teaching. For example, movies are widely known materials for English learning. The misconception that learning must follow teaching gives rise to irony when one entirely depends on the subtitle to understand a movie at the theater and then “studies” a book titled *“Learning English through Watching Movies”* at home.

If language data are abundantly “out there” and learning opportunities are ubiquitous in life, the next topic is how Language Awareness fulfills our desires to turn those language data into learning materials and widens learning opportunities. First, Chomsky’s account that each individual is inherently equipped with an “organ of language” needs to be revisited as the basis of argument, which is mainly composed of two procedures: the sensitization and the sophistication the “organ of language.” The sensitization of one’s linguistic organ refers to the reinforcement of “noticing.” As Tomlinson claims, “noticing can give salience to a feature, so

that it becomes more noticeable in future input, and thereby contributes to the learner's readiness to acquire that feature" (Bolitho et al. 252). Linguistic sensitivity based on the concept of "noticing" can be discussed in two dimensions: one is the "attitude," as to whether one can appreciate the language data encountered unintentionally in informal contexts and pay active attention to them. The other is linked to the "ability," as to whether the learner can isolate linguistic features upon processing data, similar to what we have described about "discovering language." With these understandings, we see that "noticing" in the conceptualization of Language Awareness has a wider range of applications than its origin in traditional theories where there is a predominant focus on the forms of input

The second procedure taps into our natural tendency to have organized, patterned understanding toward things. For that, we count on "inductivity," especially in situations where directions are absent. Inductivity is "the ability of people to make accurate generalizations from a few scattered facts or to discover patterns in seemingly chaotic collections of observation" (Michalski 111). Inductivity is what we human beings rely on to construct existing knowledge. It can be argued that knowledge becomes deductible only if it was established and organized by inductive processing in the first place. Indeed, it sounds absurd to imagine one individual in power who had ordered that "from now on, we must keep the main verb in its original form whenever it is tied to an auxiliary verb in a sentence" and then people followed the rule afterwards. Instead, similar to scientific appearances, language began as a phenomenon which attracts efforts to understand its embedded intricacies. As early as 1915, Sigmund Freud pointed out inductiveness was the "normality" of knowledge pursuit:

The true beginning of scientific activity consists rather in describing phenomena and then in proceeding to group, classifies and correlate them It is only after

more searching investigation of the field in question that we are able to formulate with increased clarity the scientific concepts underlying it, and progressively so to modify these concepts so that they become widely applicable and at the same time consistent logically (qtd in N. Ellis 38).

The Language Awareness Approach, aiming to create autonomous and competent learners outside institutional settings where teaching is largely practiced in deductive modes, is, hence, “essentially inductive” (Bolitho et al. 254). Bourke explains that “LA is data-driven. Learners are not told the rule, but are given a set of data from which they infer the rule or generalization in their own way,” and then, “they check their tentative rule against other sets of data and then see if it still holds in a number of contexts of use” (15). In a similar vein, the procedures in Tomlinson’s provision are sequenced as:

The learners are asked to focus on a particular feature of the text, to work with others to identify the instances of the feature, and to make discoveries and generalizations about its use. They are then encouraged to test their generalizations by searching for other instances in other texts. (Bolitho et al. 252)

If we consider learners and language have a relationship, then inductive learning is a manifestation of the learner’s devotion to the relationships because it means the learner is more willing to spend increased and self-initiated mental effort. The values of learners’ active extrapolations are expressed by Hulstijn:

When subjects have to infer or induce the solution of a problem, they invest more mental efforts than when they are given the solution to the problem. Information that has been attained with more mental effort can later be better retrieved and recalled than information that has been attained with less mental effort (113).

Consider the following anecdote. One day Amy is using a famous online social-network system and has a casual conversation with her friend. While she is waiting for her friend's next message, she notices an advertisement about a book in the upper-left corner of her screen, with a slogan reading, "Be an interesting person to your friends." Normally, advertisements do not catch her attention, but this time it seems to be different, not because she was not interesting enough as a friend but because of the phrase, "interesting person." She remembers her high school teacher once taught them "Ving" was for describing events or objects, and to describe a person, the form should have been "Ved." Then, it occurs to her, "if a person can be interesting, can s/he also be exciting, satisfying or moving?" Although she does not take immediate action to solve the puzzle that evening, she bears this question in mind. After numerous encounters where she attends to the feature analytically, she finally realizes the generalization she used to hold is false. She then repairs it and forms a new one: it was not about whether the subject was a person or non-person but about the effects of the actions. Now, the choices of Ved/Ving in input make more sense, and she has developed a better command over the particular usage. Not only that, through this experience, she recognizes her own ability to learn independently. Therefore, now she is more attentive to her encounters with English because she knows that there must be some "hidden treasures," as long as she tries hard to connect what she sees to what she has already known. If she cannot find relatable information from her already-acquired knowledge to a certain feature or usage, she is even more excited because that means it is new. She believes that soon the same or a similar feature will show up again somewhere sometime and she will have a better understanding of it then.

From Amy's experience (although it is hypothetical), we see that she has developed refined cognitive skills and become an independent learner with positive attitudes toward

language and language learning, which enable her to learn beyond the classroom (Bolitho et al. 252). However, we may not overlook that her very first “noticing” is somehow incidental, suggesting the whole experience begins with an unplanned, unintentional act. If she did not pay attention or notice the language use in that advertisement and had “let it slide away,” we would not even have a case here.

It should be obvious now that Language Awareness, the mental resource, contributes to learning readiness by directing learners’ attention to valuable data that could be easily passed. In addition, it ought to be stressed that the sensitivity framed in Language Awareness represents a stable, automatic mental registration to language; it needs no “instructional cues” to take effect and ideally operates consistently. For adult learners, the unique factor of being specialists in various fields further underscores the importance of learning outside the classroom. Each of them, having identified his/her own communicational needs, should be expected to establish proficiency “within” his/her professional areas and “from” related linguistic contacts. For example, a worker in international trading should be able to learn from his/her own E-mail box, instead of from a book or a course teaching the composition of business e-mail letters. As clearly stated by Özmen with the title of his article, one of the primary purposes of adult language education is to “Make Them be Aware, not Beware of Learning.”

3.4 Language Awareness and What a Language is as a Language

a. Language is Context-Driven

Imagine you are a student sitting in a classroom. The teacher walks in, stares at you for three seconds and tells you, “Say something!” You might be immediately engulfed in confusion, linguistically paralyzed or, at your best, come up with something appearing to be random. This

is not an everyday scene in the classroom for we understand that to elicit students' participation, we cannot just give a coming-from-nowhere request like, "Say something." So, in a role-play activity, we usually describe the situation, explain the characters or provide other information critical for our participants to have a base from which they can form and organize their linguistic productions.

The information base is *context*. Natural linguistic productions can never be independent from contexts. Even, as Widdowson contends, language in most situations is complimentary to context and used only to compensate for what the context does not provide (707). Language is context-driven; a certain context exists prior to the language produced within it. I often told my students that there was so much to learn from what is most learners' first English sentence: "How are you?" This is a good chance to prove it. In a logic sense, there must be a social context where greeting is prompted as two (or more than two) individuals register their minds to the context before any one of them says, "How are you?" It cannot be that the context is the result of the greeting act. If the scenario is that one does not see in the first place the other, who then catches the first person's attention with greeting, there is still a pre-existing context that "two people know each other and one of them does not notice the other." Furthermore, even with a little twist added to this event by assuming that the "actors" do not know each other, the context could still be: "one falsely recognizes someone." It is predictable from the context that the approached person would make an interrogative utterance such as, "Sorry, do I know you?" or an assertive one like, "Sorry, I don't know you." Finally, the nature of language as a context-driven communication system is explained by Widdowson:

Speakers use language in the normal business of communication to engage in social action, to enact a discourse in speech or writing. The pragmatic meaning

they achieve realizes that discourse and is, of its nature, linguistically inexplicit because it is context dependent. People communicate by using language so that it makes an appropriate connection with the context of shared perception and knowledge (707).

If language uses are dynamically bound with context, it must follow that better understanding of the used language can be achieved by gathering contextual information. In SLA theories, Slobin claims the “destinations” of extracted forms are what differentiate children’s and adults’ language learning ability in terms of grammar acquisition. According to him, children obtain perceptual salience of the extracted grammatical elements through mapping them onto a *contextually-determined* context, whereas adults are more limited in doing so as their successfully isolated forms are directed to the semantic conceptual regime that tends to be *discourse-determined*. This natural tendency of adult learners imposes an obstacle because the construction of grammar requires repeated *revisions* of semantic concepts, “along with what may well be a more difficult task of perceptual identifications of relevant morphological elements” (242). In other words, children make sense out of language as language “in contexts” and adults do so as language “in linguistics.” This inherent difference may partially account for the phenomenon that children acquire a language in a seemingly effortless way while adults’ L2 acquisition is often described with words such as “grapple” or “struggle.”

Indeed, the communication tasks adult learners face are more complex, which may force them to employ intensified cognitive thinking. However, from Slobin’s argument, it can be inferred that the different destinations of isolated linguistic elements are results of different priorities in processing language; a child, perhaps due to his/her less experience in using language, may be keener in collecting contextual information in order to conceive here-and-now

situations, and conversely, an adult might skip attending to the contexts and depend on linguistic information to understand the ongoing events. Krashen claims that the reason why we are able to understand language that contains structures we have not yet acquired is that we know linguistic competence does not do all the tricks and we use context, our knowledge of world or extra-linguistic information to help us (21). Bastone also argues that “making discoveries about form/function mappings is facilitated when learners first establish the relevant meaning by heeding contexts” (21). Together, these two accounts tell us one thing, which is, comprehension of language is more context-dependent than form/structure-dependent.

How do contexts impact meaningful abstractions of language? First, without contextual considerations, the inference of meanings is anything but definite. Take the sentence “You have a green light” for example. The interpretations could be:

1. You have a green ambient lighting.
2. You can go ahead with the project.
3. You can start driving (when at a crossroad).
4. You have in your possession or are carrying a green light bulb.

Moreover, the clarity of intended message is reduced by possible ambiguity. For example, for the sentence, “Jason saw the guy with binoculars,” it can be understood as “Jason used the binoculars to see the guy” or “Jason saw the guy who was holding the binoculars.”

Other linguistic phenomena highlighting the importance of contextual understanding include *rhetorical questions* and *ellipsis*. “While an ordinary question seeks information or an answer from the hearer, a *rhetorical question* does not expect to elicit an answer . . . [and] has the illocutionary force of a strong assertion of opposite polarity from what is apparently asked” (Han 237). It is that “they are not what they appear to mean” that gives the special characteristics

to rhetorical questions and even, they actually mean the opposite. Without the context, we would not be able to determine the meaning of, for example, “What hasn’t John done for Sam?” because it could be a typical interrogative question or an assertion that means “John has done everything for Sam.” *Ellipses* refer to the omissions of words or more than one word, which must be supplied by the listener or reader, in well-formed sentences for they are assumed by the speaker/writer to be clearly understood and redundant based on the common knowledge or shared information in a community. “*Ellipsis* can be an artful and arresting means of securing economy of expression” (Corbett 469) but basically, it is a manifestation of language being complimentary to contexts.

In sum, referential meanings without contextual considerations constantly risk obscuring the “truths” in the messages. Sperber and Wilson lend their support with their account:

Linguistic meaning recovered by decoding vastly underdetermines the speaker's meaning. There may be ambiguities and referential ambivalences to resolve, ellipses to interpret, and other indeterminacies of explicit content to deal with. There may be implicatures to identify, illocutionary indeterminacies to resolve, metaphors and ironies to interpret. All this requires an appropriate set of contextual assumptions, which the hearer must also supply (4).

“Contextual sensitivity was part of our pre-human heritage, and was not relinquished when language developed” (Ervin-Tripp 8). Only with contextual assumptions language can be alive, accessible for discussion, reflection and negotiation. The Language Awareness Approach, as a strong force to counter the “monotone of singularity of vision and intent” (McRae 19) in traditional referential teaching, entails emphasis on contextual sensitivity as the premise of

competent and appropriate linguistic performance. “The emphasis on language in use and in contexts entails the view of language as social and cultural medium” (Bolitho et al. 253).

b. Language is Functional

“Of course language is functional!” Many learners might immediately give this response to the introduction of this concept the title suggests due to their long-time practice of language (L1) as a tool to mediate communication extensively in life. What needs to be addressed is the extent to which they understand, not only the function, but also the “power” of language and apply this understanding to their language learning. That “words have power” is a common saying, but to understand how language generates power is not necessarily a goal when they attend to language learning. If we ask EFL learners if they know the quotation, “Ask not what your country can do for you. Ask instead what you can do for your country,” I believe the majority of them would say yes because it is very likely that this famous quotation by John F. Kennedy has been translated into their mother tongues even before they heard its original version. However, if we ask them how and why this quotation is still famous worldwide, what impacts it has created on the contemporary world map, in what contexts it is packed with so much power that even today, fifty years after, it is still one of the most well-known quotations in human history, we would probably be disappointed with the answers. This section of discussion will tap into the functional aspect of language and discover the values of the Language Awareness Approach in terms of its potential to meet adults’ competency-based learning.

At the beginning of this chapter, I drew on *referential* learning to illustrate a widely observed (especially in exam-bound learning cultures) attitude toward language that focuses on the symbolic coding system in presenting language, with its de-contextualized materials and

rule-bound teaching. In *referential* learning, dictionaries and grammar books are the “Holy Books,” and “the mere understanding of what is read or heard is little more than constructing lumpen meanings out of foreign words and phrases” (McRae 19). The Language Awareness Approach, on the contrary, adopts a *representational* view toward language education. *Representational* language, according to McRae, cannot be understood with unthinking acceptance of meanings but involves understanding of point of view, the notion of the contexts where the language is produced and captured, intentionality and elements of uncertainty (20). In this sense, representational thinking provides insights of, for example, why the language on the warning sign of a train station is composed the way it is, why the language used in the advertisement on newspaper can be unique in its own way, or why the directions on a shampoo bottle are worth of attention.

Nonetheless, at the end of the day, as often as language is taken for granted, even native language users may not be aware of the impact it has created on our lives, not to mention the L2 learners, who could be caught up in dictionary-meaning-hunting. When processing data, they might feel that “the job is done” after lexical meanings are found because, first, looking up word meanings has cost them a fair amount of effort and secondly, they have the ability of “connecting the dots.” The “dots” are the meanings of lexical items and what they would do is to put them together and experiment with different combinations for an “acceptable” message, leaping from one word to another and leaving what is in between untouched. Foreseeably, with the “holes” in processing and vaguely extracted messages, they are kept from “seeing through” how linguistic units work together to carry out the functions of language. The awareness of language represents an advanced understanding of language’s various effects, which takes form beyond and above the mere mechanical aspect of language.

“Language in use” occupies a central position in the conceptualization of Language Awareness. “Language Awareness . . . develops through paying motivated attention to language in use” (Bolitho et al. 251); “paying deliberate attention to features of language in use can help learners to notice the gap between their performance in the target language, and the performance of proficient users of that language” (Bolitho et al. 252); and “an organic approach provides opportunities for learners to explore grammatical and discoursal relationships in authentic data” (Nunan qtd. in Bourke 20). Why is “in use” important? Language Awareness is a person’s sensitivity to the nature of language in human life, and in the life we share, language plays a significant role in helping us achieve a particular purpose in context (Hyland 150). Christie claims that any natural language comes into being only when it is organized fundamentally to reveal purposes (759). With this in mind, the “real purposes” of language are reflected when for example, a girl is touched reading a love letter from her significant other, when the speeches in a commercial seminar intrigue its attendants or when a news coverage comprehensively and precisely addresses what the audience needs to know. Instead, language is de-functionalized when there are only considerations about its mechanical workings. With that, Chan expresses his concern that “in the EFL context, as a result of the utilitarian orientation, the nature and function of language is biased and misrepresented. Students and teachers know the language well as a system . . . within the confines of the classroom in examination”(40).

Therefore, language education has the priority of enhancing learners’ awareness of how language functions to fulfill intended purposes. Purposes are usually concealed in language. As experience tells us, we hardly see, for example, “This article is to tell you John’s life” in John’s biography; hear “Today, I am selling you this blender” in an infomercial or “I want to make you laugh” from a comedian. Language is empowered to stimulate thoughts, instill knowledge,

change perceptions or influence ideologies and relies on mindful and sometime ingenious arrangements of linguistic units to do so.

In achieving this goal, the Language Awareness Approach forms an inseparable link with text awareness. “Language is understood as text: any passage of language that serves some social purpose. Text is intimately related to context Text is known only because of the context that gives it life; conversely, context is known only because of the text that realizes it” (Christie 760). Texts can be as short as a word or a phrase. A text can be a constitution of other texts. The luxury of a text is often underestimated; learners could approach to texts with little or no attention on their “purposefulness.” The exploration of texts can take place as casually as on a shampoo bottle. Usually on a shampoo bottle, we can see two types of texts. One is the passage for commercial purposes, which contains rather dramatic descriptions aimed to market the product’s outstanding quality and impress the buyers when it is juxtaposed next to other products. The other type of text on a shampoo bottle is the directions with its clear, monotonous arrangement of language. Driven by the purposes, the styles, the word choices, the structures or the organization of information, all become variables under consideration.

Promoting text awareness in learners helps them to develop insights into “what is being done with, to and by language” (McRae 21). The essential nature of a text lies in the fact that “it is more than the sum of the features” (Neuber 127). Kitis and Milapides argue that language study should have a focus on “higher-level organizational features as well as on rhetorical structures and semantic and pragmatic relations as they contribute to the general style of the text, thus yielding desired versions of reality and ideologies” (557). Because of this nature, the exploration of a text should be open to discussion and “the longer a piece of text, the more can be done with it and the more open the whole process can become” (MaRae 22). This “openness” is

much needed in both teaching and learning. Given that “the teacher is a learner among learners,” as indicated in the model of experiential learning, “openness” provides opportunities for teachers to expand their own horizons and range of competence in whatever directions they feel possible. Also, openness means learners are allowed more freedom of individual interpretations and emotive reactions based on their values and worldviews. They should be encouraged to “work with ideas.” One interesting point here is: why they are “allowed” to do something they are never prohibited to do?

The answers are hidden in the educational culture. If we recall, first, they are accustomed to the teacher-dominant mode where teachers’ authority and knowledge are nearly unchallengeable. Second, in Chinese education culture, the worship of textbooks tends to result in learners’ unreflective acceptance of the presented knowledge, which gives memorization a superior status as a strategy and excludes affective engagement to the texts. Third, the learners may depend on the quantity (i.e. how many words/grammar rules are learned), rather than the quality, to define learning. Therefore, learners must be (re)informed about the freedom of working with ideas. Otherwise, the physical component of language would override the organic one in importance and prevent them from “seeing through, seeing round and seeing into the workings of the texts themselves” (McRae 21). With this note, our focus will be directed onto the “pay-off” level of learning. Of course, the process-oriented nature of the Language Awareness Approach does not exclude eventual competency from its vision for the learners, especially when it is meant to address the issues related to a competency-driven group of learners with higher expectations about the outcomes of learning.

The chances are slim that adult learners would be required to produce texts at a mere sentence-level in their daily-life communicative tasks. Shorter texts might work better in

demonstrating the power of language, but it could be an immediate mistake to assume our learners are all slogan creators, warning sign writers or birthday card composers. Predominantly, most usual communicative tasks adult learners encounter require producing texts at length, whether they are e-mail letters, project outlines or autobiographies for employment. This requirement highlights the importance of presenting ideas on a large scale and underscores the need of expanded scopes in textual comprehension. Knapp and Watkins argue that:

[Textual comprehension] first considers how a text is structured and organized at the level of the whole text in relation to its purpose, audience and message. It then considers how all parts of the text, such as paragraphs and sentences, are structured, organized and coded so as to make the text effective as written communication. (8)

Text awareness is often discussed intimately with training of writing and reading skills in EFL class. However, given the holistic nature of the Language Awareness Approach, printed language in the current framework is not of the highest concern. Rather, the emphasis on texts, its purpose-driven nature and its awareness is concerned with one fundamental principle of language learning, namely engagement. The engagement may take shape in three dimensions, each of which is necessary:

1. The engagement in the messages is where the learners are encouraged to affectively respond to the language being presented so “subjective experience” can subsequently result.
2. The engagement in the communication of thoughts with the text creators is where the giving side and the receiving side of the texts “dance together following each other’s steps” (Hyland 150) and provides opportunities for the learners to emulate the thinking of proficient users.

3. The engagement in the society of the target language. It is where learners experience a wide variety of practices relevant to and appropriate for particular contexts where times, places, participants, and purposes interact. These practices are integral to form our individual identity, social relationships, and group memberships associated with the target society (Hyland 150).

In conclusion, the multiple benefits of the Language Awareness Approach, with its close relationship with text awareness, are summarized from Christie's work below:

1. Learners develop a principle way to identify and focus upon different types of English texts, providing a framework in which to learn features of grammar and discourse.
2. Learners develop a sense of generic models that are regularly revisited in an English-speaking culture.
3. Learners develop the capacity for different ways of making meaning that are valued in English-speaking communities.
4. Learners form a basis for reflecting on the ways in which knowledge and information are organized and constructed in the English language. (762)

c. Language is a System of Functional Forms

English grammar is a set of "rules," regulating and standardizing the organizations of language. In learning, it would not be surprising to know that learners, longing for freedom in expressions, find grammatical rules troublesome, with constant skepticism about their necessity in communication. However, what most learners lose sight of or disagree with is an opposite perspective. Indeed, rules can mean restraints but without rules, freedom is merely an illusion (Dorn 15). The most insightful words on the freedom made possible by rules in language are

seen in *Shanna* by the Nobel-Prize winning writer, Rabindranath Tagore, as he elaborates:

In learning a language, when from mere words we reach the laws of words, we have gained a great deal. But if we stop at that point and concern ourselves only with the marvels of the formation of a language, seeking the hidden reason of all its apparent caprices, we do not reach that end, for grammar is not literature... When we come to literature, we find that, though it conforms to the rules of grammar, it is yet a thing of joy; it is freedom itself. The beauty of a poem is bound by strict laws, yet it transcends them. The laws are its wings. They do not keep it weighed down. They carry it to freedom. Its form is in law, but its spirit is in beauty. Law is the first step toward freedom, and beauty is the complete liberation which stands on the pedestal of law. Beauty harmonizes in itself the limit and the beyond – the law and the liberty.

For most English learners, “grammar” is probably the single most obvious feature of the language and extremely representative of cross-linguistic differences. Grammar rules can range from as simple as the differentiation between “a” and “an,” to as complex as those governing the structures of relative clauses. The learning of grammar is often seen as primary in EFL contexts, and its command is prevalently used for the evaluation of proficiency. The emphasis on grammar learning is reflected in the dominance of “syllabus learning” in the world of English education. “A structural syllabus consists of a list of grammatical items, usually arranged in the order in which they are to be taught. This kind of syllabus is probably still the most common in language teaching today” (R. Ellis 91). Highlighted by Ellis, the major feature of syllabus learning is that it is a prescribed, structured model intended in a step-by-step manner to impart the system of the language. Moreover, it is based on the assumption “that language consists of a series of

grammatical forms that can be acquired sequentially and additively” (Nassaji 908). However, the question to be asked here is that, how much of what is taught is learned? The first problem of structural syllabus mode, according to Ellis, is the *learnability*, “the extent to which it is possible for learners to learn the structure they are taught” (92).

The incongruity between what is learned and what is internalized is, of course, frustrating to the learners themselves. Presumably, it would not make an adult learner happy when s/he is able to read, let’s say, from an English magazine a report about the latest technology in cellphone (maybe with the help from a dictionary) but finds him/herself struggling with producing, for example, an essay about his/her hobbies. Inspired by this discovery concerning this “gap,” the next part of my discussion will be devoted to investigating “what the learner is thinking” in grappling with the rules of English.

“Conscious processing is constrained by limited working memory capacity and thus only permits the consideration of a restricted amount of information at any one time (Roehr 83-84). The consensus has been reached in the world of language acquisition that a learner’s processing capacity is limited, with his/her attention “swings” over the spectrum of meaning and form upon processing language data. Naturally, as Patten argues, learners 1) process input for meaning before they process for form; 2) process content words before anything else and; 3) prefer processing “more meaningful” morphology before “less or non-meaningful” morphology (32).

We may have located the inherent preference of meanings to forms for the explanation of Taiwanese adult learners’ deficits in formal control, but it apparently does not suffice to explain why the emphasis on the formal aspect in teaching and learning often falls short of anticipated outcomes. Indeed, with the syllabus-oriented, exam-bound learning context, it would be very difficult for us to imagine the learners are even encouraged to attend to meaning over form. So, if

the learners do attend to form and its learning elicits their most investment, the last piece in the puzzle must be “how the data are processed.” This paper has focused on the nature of language, with the central argument that adequate understanding of it is a requisite to avoid ineffective, misconducted processing. With that being said, our attention would be directed onto what could be the shortcomings in learners’ perceptions about the formal aspect of English that make its attainment a long-lasting battle.

Language is a system, an organized set of doctrines governing the interactions, interrelations and interdependence of language units to form a complex whole. Therefore, regarding learners’ predicament of formal attainment, the first identification of their flaws in perceiving language emerges as the lack of a systematic view toward language, or the downplaying of the concept of “inter.” As noted earlier, traditional syllabus teaching tends to chop the language into pieces when presenting it to the students. As the course proceeds, teaching seldom encourages reflective actions and continuously pushes the learning forward according to the syllabus. As a result, the students have broken networks of linguistic representations and the knowledge “scattered around.” The danger of a non-systematic view about language is the reduction of learners’ inductivity. The consequence is a sense of “non-progression” because the learned knowledge is underutilized in processing new information. Using an example from vocabulary acquisition, one who cannot use the learned words, “cooperation” and “labor,” to construe “collaboration” will have to spend extra time on looking up its meaning. While this example is concerned with the receptive domain in language processing, how important is the perception of language as a system to the productive domain?

Language is dynamical and adaptive. According to Beckner et. al., these qualities of language give rise to many phenomena, including, “stage-like transitions due to underlying non-

linear processes” (3). However, language in its presentations (spoken or written) is predominantly linear. This linearity predisposes us to focus on one-way relationships rather than the circular or mutually causative ones between linguistic units. Formal regularities are programmed into one’s language mechanics as a bundle of parallel rules with untouching ends, resembling those that linguists refer to as “Finite State Grammars.” Finite State Grammars are usually comprised of strings of nodes with arrows depicting in what serial orders the nodes can be collocated (e.g. $x \rightarrow y \rightarrow z \rightarrow t$). This may appear familiar to many learners as their formal instructions often explain the rules using depictions like, “S(3rd person, singular)+Vs,” “S+BeV+Adj+Prep+Ving/Noun,” or “have/has+BeV(p.p)+V(p.p).” Patten argues for three critical deficiencies which render Finite State Grammars non-language-like. First, they fail to show “one of the fundamental aspects of syntax that learners of natural languages must acquire: movements and restrictions of movements” (30). The second deficiency is the omission of surface features; for example, **action** and **activity** are indistinctively categorized into noun. The last one, which makes Finite State Grammars most unlike natural language, is that “they are devoid of any representational or social meanings” (30). With linear processing, the unique property of language that “allows infinite combinations, hieratically organized” (Chomsky 4) seems to be left only in fantasy.

The way in which learners manage their productive performance can be a reflection of how the inputs are processed. Accustomed to the linear, non-systematic manner in processing inward linguistic information, the learner is likely to apply the same linear thinking on processing outputs. So we see that accuracy-oriented learners resort to low-complexity structures as their control allows for manipulations only within the ratio of neighboring or close linguistic items, or fluency-oriented learners commit errors like run-on sentences or fragments because of

rickety conceptual establishments of sentential well-structuredness. In addition, as experience shows, learners may “fluctuate” in the qualities of their productions; at one point they might convincingly exhibit ability in certain areas of formal control, but this impression could be overturned moments after, making the instructor wondering “what just happened between this and that.” For example, a student’s essay could contain a sentence, “After he saw the dog, he decided to take it home,” followed by, “When his mom knew that. She got mad.” The instability in formal command can also be attributed to loose connections among elements in the system.

If we compare the system of language to a beehive where linguistic elements are separately stored in the little spaces inside, the position that will allow us to have a clear view of it is definitely not anywhere inside the beehive, but above it, where one is able to ‘overlook’ the interrelationships of each component. To ascend to that overview, the learners need the boost from “metalinguistic awareness.” Metalinguistic awareness “evokes individuals to distance themselves from normal usage of language and thus shift their attention from the transmitted contents to the properties of language used to transmit them” (Gombert 3). Also, Benveniste writes, metalinguistic thinking provides the “possibility of raising ourselves above language, of abstracting ourselves from it, of contemplating it, whilst making use of it in our reasoning and observations” (qtd. in Gombert 2).

“It is one thing to find an adequate way of treating the comprehension and production of a language. It is quite another to succeed in adopting a reflective attitude with regard to language objects and their manipulation” (Gombert 1). The use of language (L1) normally requires no particular cognitive effort and conscious control. However, there are times when certain aspects of language become the principle object of attention. This is where metalinguistic awareness originates. As distinguished from naturalistic linguistic activities within social, communicative

situations, metalinguistic activities take the language itself as their object. Once language is objectified, it implies that it can be “played”; it is an object whose properties can be studied by subjects who, in turn, are able to enjoy insights into it, construct hypothesis about it or acquire knowledge about it (Gombert 1). It is also worth of noting that the objectification of language within metalinguistic study focuses not on language as a thing, but the logics of it. “Use of metalinguistic knowledge is typically associated with performance patterns characterized by consistency and systematicity” (Roehr 76).

In concurrence with heightened metalinguistic awareness is the growth of metalinguistic knowledge. Defined by Smith, “metalinguistic knowledge is the kind of knowledge to which we may have access and which we can make increasingly sophisticated by consciously studying the intricacies of language in a more or less academic, analytic fashion” (269) and “it includes explicit knowledge about categories as well as explicit knowledge about relations between categories” (Roehr and G´anem-Guti´errez 166).

Metalinguistic awareness is closely related to Language Awareness. Some argue that the former is the manifestation of the later (Simard et al. 510). The use of “awareness” in both terms emphasizes conscious learning and the qualitative “explicitness” in knowledge. As Roehr and G´anem-Guti´errez explain, metalinguistic knowledge is “knowledge that can be brought into awareness, that is potentially available for verbal report, and is represented declaratively” (165). Also, in defining Language Awareness, Hales states that “language awareness could be glossed as a sensitivity to . . . the effect on meaning brought about by the use of different forms and the process . . . to see how they function, and from this deriving an explanation for their use” (217).

While metalinguistic awareness and Language Awareness both maintain “articulability” in defining linguistic knowledge, a difference sets them apart, which is the functional view

toward forms. Quite frankly, learners learn better in the presence of “meaningfulness.” It is necessary to stress that “meaningfulness” is not achieved by lexical or semantic understandings, but the psychological satisfaction when the learners understand “why they are learning what they are learning.” When forms are understood from a functional perspective, it becomes quite explicable why, for example, the learners have to know about *passive voice* when *active voice* is available, why there is a relative clause when they can just use multiple sentences to convey the same meanings, or why in some given context, “stop to V” is a better formal choice than “stop Ving.”

In a very apt and instructive imaginary conversation in Newmeyer, the functionalist illuminates this issue. “The functions of language...have left their mark on language structure to a degree that it’s hopeless to think that you can understand anything about the structure without working out how it’s grounded functionally” (2). Following this view, the Language Awareness Approach has the objective to help the learner study, observe and develop insights into how formal/structural manipulations affect the dynamics of messages. “LA comes out of an initial focus on meaning. The objective is to investigate which forms are available in English to realize certain meanings, notions, and language functions LA is a grammar of meanings, functions, and form-function mapping” (Bourke 14).

Chapter IV: Lesson Plans for Language Awareness Approach

In this chapter, I will present a series of lessons based on the philosophies of the Language Awareness Approach. The lessons will move along four stages, *Preparation*, *Awakening*, *Sensitizing* and *Exploration*. Each of the stages, while infusing multiple concepts that have been mentioned in our previous argument, is anchored to a central philosophy, as I briefly explain below:

1. **Stage One–Preparation: Are you aware of what you are thinking/doing when learning?**

The goal of these lessons is to enable adults to become life-long, autonomous and self-empowered learners. Following the principle that learning needs to go hand-in-hand with learning how to learn, an important objective for the initial stage is to equip the learners with metacognitive thinking and critical attitudes toward their own learning tendencies.

2. **Stage Two–Awakening: English is everywhere, but is it to you?**

Whereas adults seek relevancy in their continuing education, they often neglect to discover for themselves the learning opportunities already existent in their surroundings. The focus of the stage is intimately tied to “collecting data outside the school” (see in 3.4.b) in order to establish a “data hunter” attitude.

3. **Stage Three–Sensitization: Has your language learning mechanism been an “organ” or a “hard drive?”**

On the opposite end of Language Awareness is language “numbness”; the learners may be accustomed to being emotionally detached from language data. So, increasing the learners’ affective engagement with the language is the core objective in this stage.

4. **Stage Four–Exploration: Why is it that you are “always” learning?**

Possessing the false equivalence between knowledge and ability, the learners put faith and find comfort in the reception of and devalue the production of language. The lesson adopts genre-based and task-based principles to alter the misconception that “exposure to language data will do all the trick.” The activity is intended to instill “language user” into the learners’ self-concepts.

Also, it is worth noting that the course follows the principle of “from learning to using,” not “from the easier to the more difficult” as in our traditional understanding of curriculum design. In this sense, one material is chosen ahead of another not because of its “size” or complexity, but its suitability of carrying out the intended messages related to functional beliefs about language learning. For example, the materials chosen for Stage One, Lesson One, are “reading passages,” larger in scale than the “sentences” for materials in Stage Three, Lesson One. However, these two lessons tap into two concepts that the learners may be familiar with at different levels. The former serves the purpose of confronting their habitual attention to meanings/forms, and the later is to raise their affective engagement to language data, arguably a more novel idea

Under the principle of “from learning to using,” the students’ workloads will increase with the progress of course. This is to fulfill one of the primary objectives of enabling autonomous learners. After each lesson, the learners will be asked to conduct research and collect information “outside of the classroom,” and present the results to the class for an educational experience based on the principles of “learning by doing” and that “the best way to learn is to teach.” Adults have much to share, such as their knowledge or opinions, and thus self-effacement must be discouraged. By having the learners do presentations on a regular basis, they are expected to gain confidence in presenting themselves as users of English, which will nourish the

growth of the identity associated with L2.

Because the Language Awareness approach is essentially aimed at bringing about conceptual transformations at a fundamental level, which will depend on explorative discussions to bring the discovered points to conscious awareness, the use of native language in class should be allowed. Insights can yield more value than the “countable” words or grammatical rules because the internalizations of the insights are what make desired changes possible. We should avoid doing what vocabulary or grammar books can do. Second, besides having a firm grip of the fundamental principles and thorough understanding of the purposes of each activity, the teacher ought to, with an open mind, encourage the learners to form their interpretations of the presented texts, add their real-world knowledge into discussions, voice their opinions or thoughts, and basically, participate in the discussion. Third, to generate discussions that will deepen learners’ understanding of how language is used, the teacher ought to prepare questions in advance to stimulate learners’ responses and discussion. For the fourth principle, the teacher should help the learners to express themselves and make sure the insights from one are valuable for all. To avoid the blurry of the line between “discussions for learning” and “chatting for fun”, the teacher needs to mindfully keep the discussion on a constructive track, and always assign outside-classroom tasks to support the establishment of the concepts introduced in each lesson.

The lessons presented in this chapter are suggestions. The holistic view of the Language Awareness Approach toward language and its learning should serve as a reminder that no single lesson, lecture, activity, or mixture of these can magically install in the learners the awareness of how language works overnight. This approach requires the instructor to mindfully observe and monitor the students’ learning behaviors and the learners themselves to constantly and actively engage in communication with the teacher about changes, motivations, improvements or

setbacks in the on-going learning process to ensure the development of Language Awareness, which may not be reflected by traditional assessment formats.

The Class

The class, offered by a private English institute in Taiwan, is composed of 10-15 adult learners. They are grouped and assigned to this advanced class by a placement test conducted when they sign up for the course. The majority of them hold college degrees and are currently involved in professions that require adequate English proficiency to cope with communications with foreign clients, suppliers and business partners. Also, most of them are confident in their English ability in dealing with basic daily conversation but not with communicative tasks of higher complexity and demands of clarity and accuracy.

Stage One--Preparation: Do You Know What You Are Doing/Thinking When Learning?

Learners know they are learning, but do they know what they are doing when learning? In general, for adult learners who would spend extra time and money to return to English learning, they know that there are “problems” in how they previously learned. They usually come to the class hoping that the teacher will take care of the problems or the problems will be gone automatically through increased exposure. What they do not know is that the problems could be stubborn and more importantly, they themselves are the primary problem-solvers. To bring about the “deconditioning” that will rid them of preconceived prejudiced notions (see in 3.1.) and transform them into the doctors of their own learning, the first procedure is to facilitate metacognitive thinking, which, as argued previously in section 3.3.a, is crucial for developing

autonomous learning. It enables the learners to withdraw from their own learning, objectively examine the mental activities associated with learning and to refine their employed strategies. In addition, metacognitive thinking is a prerequisite for the learners to be more actively in charge of the learning progress, so a whole new “language learning experience” can follow (see in 3.3.b.).

Lesson 1: The “Swing” between Form and Meaning

In the argument (see 3.4.c), it is identified that learners prefer processing meanings to forms. However, in another section (1.4 .a), we learn that the inadequately designed assessments and the desires to harvest exam scores sometimes cause the learners to ignore the meanings and focus entirely on the forms. The manner in which they process data can be called “swinging between the forms and meanings.” The result is “discounted comprehension”—the meanings could be captured and the grammatical elements could be isolated, but they are not mapped onto the language learning machinery together and the understanding of how forms and meanings interact in carrying out the messages, therefore, contains “holes.” To fill up the holes, the first thing to do is to locate the source of the problems.

In this activity, the learners will be informed about the types of the texts prior to their engagement. In order to evoke learners’ expectations about text types, a joke and a biographical passage about George Washington have been chosen because a joke is usually for fun, and an informative passage imposes a textbook-like impression, which is meant for knowledge and not for entertainment. Supposedly, during the engagement in both texts, “meaning” would be the focus, especially for the joke. The “traps” to stimulate the learners’ to reflect upon how they usually approach language data in terms of “form-focused” or “meaning-focused” are in the second, “less fun” text, which intentionally contains incorrect formal usages. We want to see if

the learners can detect the errors, which will indicate their attention to the “system” of language. This activity is to: 1) understand “knowing what it means is far from adequacy;” 2) remind them to utilize their energy on data processing to its fullest as they attend to both meanings and forms at the same time; and 3) help them examine whether they know “what they are thinking when learning.”

Materials

Material A: A Joke

Patty was sitting in her back yard digging a hole to bury her dead goldfish. Mrs. Johnson, who lived next door, was watching her over the fence.

Mrs. Johnson said, "Patty, what are you doing?"

Patty said, "I'm digging a hole to bury my dead goldfish."

Mrs. Johnson said, "Patty, don't you think that hole is a little BIG for a goldfish?"

Patty said, "No...it's inside your damn cat!"

Material B: A Passage About George Washington

George Washington (1732-99) *is commander in chief of the Continental Army during the American Revolutionary War (1775-83) and served two *term as the first U.S. president, from 1789 to 1797. The son of a prosperous planter, Washington * raised in colonial Virginia. As a young man, he worked as a surveyor then *fight in the French and Indian War (1754-63). During the American Revolution, he led the colonial forces to victory over the British and became a *nation hero. In 1787, he was elected president of the convention that *written the U.S. Constitution. Two years later, Washington became America's first president. Realizing that the

way he handled the job will *impacted how future *president approached the position, he handed down a legacy of strength, integrity and national purpose. Less than three years after leaving office, he *die at his Virginia plantation, Mount Vernon, at age 67.

Note: words marked with * are intentional errors to see if the learners can detect them as they process this text.

Procedures

- The learners will be presented the joke on a hand-out (Material A) and asked to read it. Then, the learners are to share their interpretations in terms of “what happened.” To make sure the students understand the story, they will be asked to use one or two sentences to retell the story and take turns to report their summaries.
- The learners will next read the passage about Mr. Washington (Material B) individually and silently. To see if the learners understand the material, despite possible new vocabulary, the teacher may initiate a few questions whose answers are straightforward enough so that the learners can locate the answers easily: What year was Mr. Washington born? What positions had he been in? How did he become a hero? After the learners have possibly enjoyed the sense of achievement from correctly answering the questions, the teacher will, without notifying the learners, start the “grammar talk,” whose rules include: 1) past tense 2) plural noun 3) passive voice
- The learners will be asked to look at the reading passage one more time to prepare for the next coming question from the teacher: “Why do you think I have to teach you what you already know?” The learners, probably in astonishment, will begin to think about the purpose of the grammar discussion. It is not predictable whether the learners will come up with the anticipated answer that “because the passage contains errors related to those three rules,” but

the assumption is they will not. Based on the discussion in 1.2.a, the learners are prone to believe the “truths” in given materials when aware that they are in an educational setting.

- It is necessary to let the learners know the teacher is not trying to make fools out of them. To allow the learners to discover factors about their own learning, the reasoning will be conducted with a teacher-learning conversation in Q&A form. The following questions were prepared in advance:
 1. In one sentence of the joke, “Patty was sitting in her backyard digging a hole to bury her dead goldfish,” did you notice there are three verbs, “sit,” “dig,” and “bury” and why are they in the forms of “sitting,” “digging” and “to bury”? What are the differences in terms of the functions of the forms in the context? Do you think the different arrangements have different meanings?
 2. Before, when you took exams whose apparent purpose was to test your grammar knowledge, did you try to understand the meanings of the whole test items?
 3. Are you always “rushing to the meaning,” especially when you read English materials not purposefully teaching English? If grammar is really important as everybody says, why is it that you would skip attending to it?
 4. What is your definition of the word “comprehension?”
 5. When you are struggling with production, is it because you do not know what to say or how to say what you want to say? Which one is a bigger problem to you? Why?
- The teacher will go through each of the questions and encourage the learners to voluntarily share their thoughts, experience, or any feedback. Also, the teacher will need to be cautious about the line between discussion and chatting, ensuring the discussion revolves around our theme. At the end, the teacher will explain the importance of having balanced formal and

meaningful processing efforts for growing competency. To illustrate this idea, the teacher will ask the class, “To make a delicious brownie, is the best way to take a bite of brownie or taste its ingredients separately and “imagine” how the ingredients would work together?”

- An experienced teacher will not tell the learners to reflect on the insights at home because actions speak louder than words; s/he will follow the principle of “learning by doing” and arrange an assignment that does not necessarily take much time but will yield substantial effects. To solidify the concepts introduced in the lesson, we will rely on a simple idea: reverse thinking. The learners pay more attention to either the forms or the meanings according to the task demand. What if they have to do the opposite—when they are supposed to attend to the forms, they need to focus on the meanings, or vice versa? The assignment consists of two parts.

1. The learners will try to find one grammar-oriented multiple-choice item that comes with the correct answer. The resources are everywhere. It is recommended that they search through the internet or stop by bookstores looking for books aimed at coping with tests. After they decide on a test item, they need to paraphrase the sentence(s) in that item. This is to direct their attention to the meanings when the task is traditionally about grammatical knowledge.
2. The learners will try to find one sentence in a news article and alter the original sentence by creating erroneous grammatical usages in it. This is to direct the learners’ attention to the grammatical aspect when they could ignore it.

The learners will send the results through email before the next class. The teacher will check whether the paraphrased sentences are error-free or the messages conform to the original ones. For the second part of the assignment, the teacher will see if the learners have created

“critical errors.”

- In the first section of the next class, each of the learners will receive the return of their assignments on a sheet, to which the teacher will attach a note explaining why the modifications have been made, giving advice and recognizing the learners’ efforts and good performance. Grading is not necessary. More important is whether the learners applied what they have learned in the lesson on doing the assignment. The teacher will initiate a conversation where the learners will be encouraged to report about the “changes” they have perceived in how they process language during this assignment and how the “changes” alter their views about English learning. To end this entire process, the teacher will write down the words on the board: “Always, always, I mean, always attend to both the meanings and the forms of English.”

Lesson 2: Where is the “Sound?”

The learners have learned English in a silent world; reading and writing are the focal areas of learning with scarce emphasis on the “sounds” of language. The overreliance on reading and writing in learning is not only the reason why the learners may find speaking “dreadful,” but also why a foreign language stays foreign forever; we learn how to speak before we can write, an universal factor in learning our native languages. With this activity, we are drawing the learners closer to the sounds.

Inductive learning is the other focus of this activity. The learners do not necessarily apply their existing knowledge on processing target information. Sometimes, it is not because they do not know how to do that, but because they do not know they can/should do that. Therefore, they need to be introduced to their underutilized inductivity. It is suggested that the chosen materials

should be more difficult than what the learners can fully comprehend; if the texts are too easy, it leaves little room for introducing and seasoning their inductivity. In addition, we need complex structures or difficult words to “distract” the learners so the shortcoming (neglect of the sounds) in their processing could be made more obvious. The hypothesis is when meaningful abstractions are not achievable, the learners might give up attending to other aspects of language. In this case, it is the processing of sounds that deserve more attention.

In this lesson, through the enhancement of the learners’ morphological and phonological awareness, they are expected to: 1) realize that the “intimacy” with a language results from the familiarity with its sounds; 2) understand the sounds of English are etched in the words; 3) be able to rely on themselves, not always on a dictionary, to approximate to the correct pronunciations 4) begin to understand they know more than they think they do once they embrace the innate capacity of generating patterns.

Materials

Materials A: The Definition and Explanation of “Strategic Management” Provided by Wikipedia. Com

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Strategic_management

Strategic management is a field that deals with the major intended and emergent initiatives taken by general managers on behalf of owners, involving utilization of resources, to enhance the performance of firms in their external environments. It entails specifying the organization’s mission, vision and objectives, developing policies and plans, often in terms of projects and programs, which are designed to achieve these objectives, and then allocating resources to implement the policies and plans, projects and programs.

Note: the shaded words are key resources which will be used to test the learners’ phonological sensitivity. The material is chosen because it contains complex structural uses and difficult lexical items.

Procedures

- The teacher is not supposed to disclose the purpose of the activity hidden behind the could-be challenging reading passage before the learners really have the chance to attend to it in their own ways; if we want them to examine their own learning, they need to first perform non-instructed learning. Therefore, the first procedure is quite simple—to read the text. The text will be printed out on sheets for each learner. The teacher will tell the learners, “take your time to read the passage,” and observe how they approach it. It is predicted that the learners’ interpretation of the teacher’s request is not associated with sound processing, so a silent period of class should be under way, which has to be allowed so the teacher can make a clear point later.
- The next step would be to direct their attention to the sounds of language. The teacher will “speak” several words in order, which are not found in the text but phonologically relatable to the words in the reading material. The learners are to locate the words in the text and mark them with the numbers. For example, the teacher can give the instruction, “Mark ***I*** on one of the words in the text you think is relatable *to politics*.” The words are:
 - 1. politics 2. chief 3. subject 4. retail 5. detergent 6. pacify**
 - 7. complement 8. revolve 9. align 10. advocate**
- Here, it is necessary for the teacher to initiate the exploration of: 1) the importance of “sounds” and 2) the possibility of inductive processing. The exploration will rely on a discussion which is based on these questions:
 1. Do you always pay attention to how the words are spoken in reading passages?
 2. Did you start speaking first or writing first when acquiring your first language?

3. Do you give up trying to figure out the pronunciations of words because they are too difficult?
4. Have you ever thought about why is it that “responsibility” has six syllables and you seem not to have too much difficulty pronouncing it, and “external” has only three syllables but you cannot pronounce it automatically?
5. Have you realized there are patterns in the pronunciations of words and try to apply what you know on what you are unfamiliar with?

The discussion will proceed question by question with the teacher encouraging the learners to reflect upon the concepts behind these questions and articulate their thoughts. In the meantime, the teacher ought to explain to the learners that when they are grappling with the answers, they are actually performing metacognitive thinking. Of course the learners do not need to know it is “metacognitive thinking” they are doing given the highly technical property of the term, but they need to keep in mind to constantly ask themselves questions about their own learning.

- After the discussion, we will need to further assure the learners that they are ready to stretch their abilities to learn inductively and provide them more opportunities of hypothesis-testing. The teacher will first write a target word on the board and then read two hinting words (which are those seen in the last section of the lesson). The class will be told to read aloud the target word instantaneously right after the teacher read the first two. Underneath is the material, where the first two words are used to give the “feeling” of how the target word should be pronounced and the bold ones are the targets. Note that the teacher ought to make sure the learners capture the correct pronunciations of the target words, which means repetition can be necessary, and give the learners recognitions once they pronounce correctly.

Politics→ Policies →**Polish** Pacify →Specify→ **Petrify** Chief →Achieve →**Deceive**

Complement→ Implement→ **Supplement** Subject→ Project→ **Reject**

Revolve →Involve→ **Evolve** Retail→ Entail →**Curtail** Align→ Design →**Malign**

Detergent→ Emergent→ **Resurgent** Advocate →Allocate →**Suffocate**

- Again, learners need not only to practice the language but also how to learn the language for the internalization of the concepts introduced through the lesson. For the assignment, the learners will be asked to find three words that have obvious phonological and morphological connections and discover their correct pronunciations. Many online websites provide virtual word pronunciations in audio form. For the correct, human-spoken pronunciations, the learners could use the *Google Translation* system or online dictionary services, such as *Dictionary. Com* or *Merriam-Webster. Com*. The learners will also be required to send the results of their research prior to the next class for the teacher to determine the quality (whether the three words are potentially new words for the rest of the learners and have profound phonological connections). They will have to practice the pronunciations of the three words so they can be confident for the presentation. Yes! There will be presentations, but the task is not too complicated. In the first section of the next class, each class member's presentation will follow what the teacher has done today. On the board, each learner will write down one of the three words s/he has found as the target word and then read aloud the other two words s/he has prepared, one closely after the other, and point at the target word as a cue for the audience to pronounce the word. Note that before each presentation, the teacher should double-check with the learners whether they have obtained the correct pronunciations of their materials. During the presentation, the teacher, if necessary, will provide extra relatable words to help with the identifications of target pronunciations. But of course, the

teacher is just an assistant. When it is observed that the audience are having difficulties providing correct target-word pronunciation, the presenter will be encouraged to think of other hints “on the spot” before revealing the answer. At the end, the teacher will briefly restate the central point of this lesson to the class. “Always attend to the sounds of language in printed form because it will immensely help with your relationship with English, if you ever aspire to become a competent ‘English speaker.’ Also, try not to turn to a dictionary as your first step when you have a pronunciation-related difficulty. Very often, you probably know how to pronounce the new words. You just don’t know you do. Take some time to use what you have known to analyze the unknown and soon you will find the patterns.”

Stage 2--Awakening: English is Everywhere, But Is It To You?

Entering Stage Two, the learning has a primary focus on language in use. The initial goal of this focus is the transformation of learners’ perception about English--from English as an institutional requirement to what it is supposed to be, a language. We want the learners to, in the face of language data, have insights about how language meets its purposes, instead of “diving into” the study of grammar and the search for new vocabulary. Most often learners come to a teacher with the request, “Could you check my grammar?” For them, correctness often represents the upper limit of their desired achievement. However, foreign language education is not supposed to aim at creating grammarians; competent “users” are what learners are expected to become.

In this stage, since “language is an important phenomenon in our lives,” and the awareness of it is crucial to motivate naturalistic use, the lessons will be intended to tear down the fence between English learning and life. The materials for this stage of learning will be those

“collected outside of school” from authentic communicative settings, which may be easily “run into” but just as easily be ignored. Also, we have learned that the designs of linguistic elements are decisive factors of messages conveyed and received, so the data will be those containing room for discussions about the designs. Therefore, utter standardness in the forms and structures will not be included in the criteria of data choices.

Lesson 1: News Titles

News reports or articles in English are now easily accessible through multiple medium in Taiwan. The CNN Channel is regularly in the package provided by cable companies. Shelves for newspaper at convenience stores usually make room for the *Washington Post* and *Taipei Times*, a local news agency providing domestic coverage in English. Online websites of leading global news services are a few clicks away. A news title can be exploited to raise language awareness because it is stylistically intriguing, due to its unique and multiple purposes--to help the readers swiftly locate the news of their interests, to condense the information underneath it, to economically reflect the “gist” of the content . . . and so on. Therefore, a news article is often composed with deviated-from-standard arrangements, which meets our requirement for the materials as it “leaves room for exploration.” Because a news title is rich in purposes, it is suitable for generating an open and interesting discussion. At the end of the lesson, the learners will expectedly be equipped with: 1) insights into how linguistic arrangements fulfill language functions in terms of the composition of news titles 2) initial understandings of the diverse faces of language when it is “in use;” 3) the ability to use a few words to expressively convey intended information, which, if applied conversely, help them to “stay focused on topics” in writing or organized speech.

Materials

Material A: A collection of news titles

1. Los Angeles Protesters Cause Traffic Snare
2. McDonald's Supplier Accused of Cruelty
3. Californians Willing to Pay Higher Taxes For Better School
4. Scarlett Johansson alleged hacker targeted another actress, FBI says
5. Police seek help in finding transgender woman's killer

Material B: Excerpts from the news articles

The News	
Hundreds of anti-Wall Street demonstrators blocked a downtown Los Angeles street on Thursday, snarling traffic on surrounding freeways before police moved in to make arrests and break up the rally.	Another three people were arrested in a separate downtown march in the afternoon after they strayed into street traffic, police said.
McDonald's and Target dropped an egg supplier this week after an activist group released a disturbing video showing what it says shows animal cruelty at three of the company's barns.	It shows hens crammed in crowded cages, workers burning beaks and one, trying to shove a bird inside the pocket of a co-worker, apparently for fun.
A strong majority of California voters is willing to pay higher taxes to boost funding for public schools even in a grim economy, a new poll has found.	After three years of budget cuts that have battered schools with extensive teacher layoffs and deep cuts in art, music and other programs, 64% of those surveyed said they would spend more for schools.
A man accused of hacking into the computers of actresses Mila Kunis and Scarlett Johansson and singer Christina Aguilera was charged this week with	Mining details of the stars' personal lives in celebrity magazines and websites as well as Twitter and Facebook posts, Chaney looked for potential passwords

hacking at least one additional actress, federal officials said.	that would give him access to their accounts, the FBI said.
Authorities are seeking the public's help in identifying a man who shot and killed a transgender woman in Hollywood late Thursday night and who may also be responsible for the attempted armed robbery of another transgender woman in West Hollywood less than an hour late	The Los Angeles Police Department said Vickers had a gunshot wound to the chest and was pronounced dead at the scene by paramedics. The shooter apparently ran away and the motive for the slaying remains unknown, police said.

Note: the excerpts are chosen based on two criteria: obvious connections in information with the title and obvious connections in information between each pair.

Procedures

- The learners will first be presented with a news title the teacher writes on the board: *Youths Are Watching, But Less Often On TV*. Then, they will be asked to identify what type of text it is. We might just need one news title to initiate the whole exploration because providing too much information is close to telling them the answer directly. Verbally, the teacher will encourage the learners to provide their guesses. After the class successfully identifies it is a news title, there will be another question seeking the learners' answer: What could the news under this title be about? Expectedly, it will not take too long for the class to reach the conclusion that the news is about the shifts of show-viewing habits in younger people
- In this procedure, the learners will name the places or situations where a news title could be seen. We need to encourage the learners to give as many answers as possible. In fact, "in the newspaper," as most learners would immediately respond, is certainly not the only place news titles can be seen. We want the learners to be imaginative and creative! So, "the pile of newspaper at the convenience store," "the junk mail in my mail box," "NewYorkTimes.Com," or "Channel CNN" are all acceptable answers. We should not forget that making the learners aware of the ubiquitous learning opportunities in life is one of our objectives.

- Then, the teacher will set up an open discussion initiated by the question: what do you think a news title is for? The learners will be given a few moments to organize their thoughts, and each of them will take turns to express their ideas. The teacher will give feedback to each student. Note that the understanding of the purpose of the texts is crucial preparatory knowledge before the next stage, where features of the text designs are the aims. Learners might use different expressions to express similar interpretations or ideas; for example, the purposes in their understandings could be “helping the readers locate their interested topics” and “making it easier for me to find what I want to know more about.” Each of the learners should be encouraged to talk, even if his/her ideas are similar to the others’ in essence because it is a crucial step to personalize the learning experience.
- The learners will be given handouts of a collection of news title (Material A) and encouraged to discover the features of them: for example, the omission of verbs, the possible reasons for prepositional phrases being leading-ahead or placed-behind, or the organizations in terms of the factors of “who,” “when,” “what happened” of each one of the news titles. The teacher will lead the exploration and help the learners articulate their insights.
- Excerpts from the news articles under those titles in Material A will be introduced to the learners (see Material B), and their job is to link the excerpts to their titles. To make this experience more challenging and hence more memorable, the designed process contains several steps. First, there will be two excerpts taken from the news article under one of the news titles seen in Material A. Each of the learners will be given only one passage, based on which they are to leave their seats and search for their “sibling” (if the news title was the mother). This activity does not end as everyone finds his/her partner. Remember, we have to constantly arouse the learners’ curiosity to intensify their affective engagement. Each pair of

learners will read the passages to the class, and the rest of the class are to determine which news title the pair are referring to. During each pair's reporting, the rest of the learners should take notes. For example, if Mark and Vicky are a pair, the rest of the learners should write "Mark and Vicky" next to the news title they refer to. After each of the pairs take their turn, the correct matching of the pair and their corresponding news title will be announced by the teacher.

- The learners will be given an assignment to have a hands-on experience in order to solidify what they have learned in this lesson. Each of them will find a piece of news "in Chinese." The primary goal is for them to interpret a reading piece and come up with an expressive and comprehensive title for it in English. Finding the resources in English would be distracting as they could surrender to the difficulties of understanding a news article in English and perhaps opt to make merely slight changes to the original news title or even copy the entire one as the final result. The teacher will collect students' work prior to the next class so s/he can have time to evaluate their work. In the best case scenario, the teacher will be able to return the assignment to the learners with advice, corrective feedbacks, and advanced instructions. At the beginning of next session, the learners will write on the board the news title they have composed, briefly talk about the news and most importantly, provide an explanation of why the composed title is suitable for the news. After each learner's presentation, the teacher will verbally address the work, mostly to identify the strengths so the presenter could be motivated and the learners can appreciate each other's work. Finally, the teacher will again remind the learners that purpose drives language use, and the learners should seek to understand the purposes of a text before they attend to it so the linguistic manipulations can exude more salience.

Lesson 2: Commercial Slogans

Adults are actively involved in commercial activities on a daily basis; every one of them is supposedly a consumer with some of them even “selling” for a living. Language is important in marketing because it attracts the consumers, plays with consumers’ materialistic desires and sparks their buying before the products are actually in their hands. Given that the whole globe has become a huge arena of international business where English is the widely used global language, many companies have incorporated the use of English in their advertising campaigns, for which commercial slogans are elemental.

Why are commercial slogans useful in raising learners’ language awareness? First of all, a slogan is designed with craftsmanship in order to catch attention and spark interest with limited time and words, making it a good example of the power of language. Second, its message has to reflect corporative values and the properties of its product. Third, because a slogan is targeted at the general public, not a particular professional group or community, its language is usually simple but clear, allowing everyone to determine the message easily. After this lesson, the learners are expected to: 1) develop a habit of and interests in observing language in use; 2) appreciate language in terms of the impact it is capable of creating on our thoughts; 3) understand that comprehension of language is not a matter of looking up word meaning in dictionary but is always attached with deeper understandings of the contexts and purposes.

Materials

Material A: A Collection of Commercial Slogans

Slogans	Products (This will not show on students' sheet)	Company/Brand (This will not show on students' sheet)
1. It's everywhere you want to be	Credit Card	Visa
2. When it absolutely, positively has to be there overnight	Shipping Service	Federal Express
3. Let your fingers do the walking	Commercial Service Information	Yellow Pages
4. It refreshes the parts others cannot reach	Beer	Heineken
5. Empowering Technology	Computer Products	Acer
6. No problem is too big, no business is too small	Computer Services and Products	IBM
7. Blows minds, not budgets	Computer Services and Products	Apple
8. Good to the last drop	Coffee	Maxwell
9. Shift the future	Automobile	Nissan
10. Once you pop, you can't stop	Potato Chips	Pringles

Procedures

- To begin, the teacher will show on the board a slogan by Ford: *Everything We Do Is Driven By You*. Of course they will not be told it is a slogan and the identification of the text type will fall on the learners' shoulders. The learners will have to start to, again, guess, and the teacher will disclose the answer after every learner provides his/her guess. After the learners know it is a slogan, the teacher will then ask the learners to continue with guessing what company/product this slogan might belong to. Once they link the slogan to the company, we will focus on its language use. First of all, the key word here is, apparently, "driven." The

teacher will explain the multiple meanings of “drive,” which are steering a vehicle or motivating.

- The teacher will ask the learners to think of “any” places or situations where a slogan can be seen or heard. It is expected that the learners now better understand that there is no correct answer and are more willing to let creativity guide their suggestions. The teacher will write down all the answers on the board in order to explain about the ubiquity of English data, which represent learning opportunities, in life and encourage the learners to pay attention to them.
- The focus will then be turned to the purposes of a slogan. In this procedure, we want to exploit what the learners may have known to ask the question: Have you ever thought about it? For example, *Just Do It* is a very popular slogan, but have the learners thought about why the NIKE company has adopted it? The learners will be encouraged to verbally provide the slogans they know, and the teacher will write down their provisions on the board. Of course, the teacher should prepare some slogans presumably familiar to the learners, including the ones in Chinese because the purposes of a slogan override linguistic differences in our current task.
- Presented with a collection of slogans on handouts (Material A), the learners will go through each one and seek interesting features. Also it is timely for the teacher to make sure the learners have no difficulty understanding the purer linguistic aspects of the slogans, such as word meanings or grammatical structures. Here are the suggested key points within each of the slogans that the teacher should bring to the learners’ attention:
 1. *It’s everywhere you want to be*: The use of relative clause functioning as an adverb.

2. *When it absolutely, positively has to be there overnight*: the urgent sense of “must” from the triple emphasis of “absolutely,” “positively” and “has to.”
 3. *Let your fingers do the walking*: what is the difference between “do the walking” and “walk?”
 4. *It refreshes the parts others cannot reach*: the omission of relative pronoun.
 5. *Empowering Technology*: the use of the prefix, “em.”
 6. *No problem is too big, no business is too small*: the symmetry in the structures and the contrasts in meanings.
 7. *Blows minds, not budgets*: the different meanings of “blow” in these two phrases.
 8. *Good to the last drop*: the differences in meanings when a word can both be a noun and a verb.
 9. *Shift the future*: what COULD “shift” mean?
 10. *Once you pop, you can't stop*: the play with the sounds and the meanings of “pop.”
- The learners would not be told what companies/products the presented slogans are meant to promote. By complete the sheet of Material A, the learners will have to “guess” what products the slogans are promoting and further decide on possible companies. After the learners complete the sheets, the teacher will go through the slogans one by one and ask the learners to voluntarily share their guesses. The teacher should pay attention to each individual's participation and, if necessary, call the names of those who are less participative. The answers will be unveiled following at least three learners' guesses for each slogan. A crucial topic will then be brought into discussion; after they are told the products and their companies, the whole class needs to work on generating insights about how effective the slogans are and why they are effective and also, how the linguistic designs carry out the

messages and fulfill the purposes. Now, it is time to discover language. The teacher will assign each learner a slogan or use a drawing system to decide. The learners will spend a few minutes to prepare a short speech about what they think about the slogan. The teacher will encourage the learners to include in the speeches:

1. The connections between the slogan and the product.
2. The effectiveness of the slogan.
3. The connections between the message and its language.

To each learner's speech and slogan, the teacher will provide feedback based on professional knowledge.

- For the assignment, the learners will tap into their imagination and create a company which specializes in a certain product category. They will come up with a slogan for the company and bring their work to the class for a presentation limited to five minutes in the next session. In the presentation, they will first introduce their slogans on the board but not reveal the specialized areas of the companies. Similar to the activity in the lesson, the rest of the learners will guess the products/specialized areas based on the presenter's slogan. The teacher will intervene when necessary to help evoke the other students' participation since the presenter might feel s/he does not have the authority to ask his/her classmates to do something and of course, the presenter, as a student most of the time, is less skilled at engaging the audience. After each learner provides at least one guess in response to the presenter's slogan, the presenter will disclose the answer. More importantly, the presentation needs to include the explanation of why the slogan can effectively promote the product or reflect company values.

Lesson 3 Youtube Comments

If one wants to see the latest music videos of favorite singers, compilations of highlighted moments of sports stars, find something to laugh about, learn how to play guitar (or almost everything) or know more about the “buzz” currently created, Youtube is very likely the first place s/he would turn to. The extreme popularity of Youtube has changed visual-material seekers definition of *accessibility*. While English learners enjoy the convenience and the amount of resources of Youtube, do they notice the learning opportunities as they click on one link after another?

On Youtube, under the screen playing video clips, there is a space housing great materials for learning English—viewers’ comments. Those comments are valuable as learning materials based on the following reasons. First, they are authentic language use by native speakers. This provides chances for the learners to see how the language is actually used, as opposed to how it is presented in textbooks. Second, they are responses to the videos, which provide abundant contextual information and foster comprehension of the language. The benefits of Youtube comments are not confined to the purely linguistic domain as they reflect human nature to have responses to visual or audio stimulants, which is often compromised as the learners focus on the linguistic elements in learning. This activity is meant to: 1) open the window for the learners to see non-staged, unscripted and spontaneous language use by common people, who can be mean, witty, sarcastic, fair, judgmental...and so on. This brings language “down to earth” from the “palace of knowledge,” whose accessibility can only be obtained by studying it. 2) encourage the learners to “let their thoughts be provoked” by stimuli and let the thoughts lead to genuine expressions for building an identity associated with L2. Oftentimes, we can observe a talkative person “silenced” by the limitations of language proficiency and that is a hurdle in language

learning.

Materials

Material A: A Commercial

A Mercedes-Benz commercial found on Youtube with the slogan, *Beauty is nothing without brains*. The story is about a blonde girl ordering burgers and fries from a librarian at a library and when the librarian says, “Hello, this is a library,” the girl lowers her voice and repeats her order.

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GHX2mvFVQMs&feature=related>

Material B: The Comments

1. I'd hit her. She is just dumb enough to let me.
2. She never had beauty to begin with....
3. Tell that to Bill Gates.
4. I can't agree cus I m too beautiful.
5. How's that related to a car? What does it have to do with a car?
6. A perfect girl needs beauty and also...beauty.
7. Saying it once again. That's actually pretty sweet.
8. I got no brains, but where is the beauty?
9. I've seen blondes doing a lot of stupid things, but this one takes the cake.
10. She is the genius here. It's you, the public, that are the beautiful idiots.

Procedures

- The teacher will play the commercial (Material A) on Youtube and ask the learners questions to ensure contextual understandings. The questions may include: Where does this event take place? Who are the main characters? What do the characters say? What happens? The teacher will diligently seek the learners' responses. Then, the teacher will ask the learners if they have noticed the hair color of the actress in the commercial and why the hair color matters. S/he will explain the stereotypes about blond women in American culture. Then, another set of questions would be ready to allow for a discussion:

1. How does the plot work to relate to the slogan?
2. How does the commercial create humor? Are there any ridiculous moments in the commercial?
3. What would you say if you were the librarian?

Also, as an extension from last lesson, the discussion will touch on the embedded messages of the slogan according to the images of the product and the company.

- The learners will then be given Material B on sheets and as usual, the teacher will ask the learners to guess what kind of texts they are. Given that they have watched the commercial, it should not be too difficult for them to know the sentences in Material B are viewers' comments. We will move on to the exploration of how language is used in authentic environments. Here are suggested points the teacher can bring to the learners' awareness.

1. *I'd hit her. She is just dumb enough to let me:*

Let me what? "Ellipses" is the point in question.

2. *She never had beauty to begin with.....:*

To begin with what? It seems like there should be a prepositional phrase, but "to begin

with” can stand along without any followings. Other examples will be provided.

3. *Tell that to Bill Gates:*

Who is supposed to tell that to Bill Gates? The focus is ‘omitted subject.’

4. *I can't agree cus I m too beautiful.*

What is “cus” and where is the “a” in “am?” The focus is the phonological influence on the deviated spelling in informal use.

5. *How's that related to a car? What does it have to do with a car?*

What does “have to do with” mean?

6. *A perfect girl needs beauty and also...beauty.*

Why does the speaker say beauty twice? What is the purpose?

7. *Saying it once again. That's actually pretty sweet.*

Who is supposed to say it once again, and what does “that” in the second sentence stand for? The focus is the linguistic presentation when an action is the topic.

8. *I got no brains, but where is the beauty?*

What does “got” mean here? What other meanings do “got” have?

9. *I've seen blondes doing a lot of stupid things, but this one takes the cake.*

“Blonde” is supposed to be an adjective, but apparently it is a noun in the sentence, why?

What does “take the cake” mean here?

10. *She is the genius one here. It's you, the public, that are the beautiful idiots.*

What is the difference between “it's you that are the beautiful idiots” and “you are the beautiful idiots?” Who does the “you” in the sentence refer to? The focus is the rhetorical usage and the insertion of modifying information.

- Each learner will then be assigned one of the comments and come up with his/her interpretations of the messages. For example, for No. 3, “Tell that to Bill Gates,” the learner is expected to generate an interpretation like, “the speaker thinks the Microsoft products are beautiful outside but not really useful.” While the learners are working on their interpretations, the teacher should walk around the classroom helping the learners express their thoughts--to check whether the messages are clear enough or there are mechanical errors. Each of them will report his/her work.
- One thing I have noticed when browsing Youtube is that although one can use whatever language to post his/her comments about the videos, there are apparent linguistic divisions; the language of posted comments is largely in concord with the language of the titles. My assumption is that the linguistic boundaries may have caused the viewers to think, “This is not the place I should speak.” However, having this predisposed thinking is not helpful for learners to become users. Therefore, for the assignment, the learners will be asked to overcome the barriers by leaving comments in English about a video with an English title. The learners will be encouraged to find a video clip they are actually interested in so their comments will be genuine expressions. In the first section of the next class, the learners will take turn playing the video clip they have chosen and show the comments they have left. The classroom will be equipped with an internet-accessible computer connected to a projector for the showcasing. There is an issue about using Youtube comments as an educational resource: the obscenity that the learners will inevitably come across while browsing. Realistically, there is no way that we, as educators, are able to censor the media and prevent the learners from exposure in offensive, lewd language given that, as a matter of fact, it is part of the language that not only can be heard in authentic uses, but elsewhere in medium such as

movies, music or TV shows etc. Our learners are adults, who have better judgments about what they need to know and more social awareness about “decency” than younger learners. We are powerless in keeping hiding the truth from the learners that vulgar uses exist in English, especially when it is a phenomenon across many languages, including their own. What we can do is to remind them, “Using bad words does not make you sound like a native speaker. Instead, it puts you at risk of losing others’ respect.”

Stage 3—Sensitization: Has Your Language Learning Mechanism Been An “Organ” Or A “Hard Drive?”

Why is it that “really” can be used as a response to almost everything, and it could generate many messages? Why is it that “I know where you live” can be a threat? How is it that “shut up” and “get out of here” can mean the same? Language use is dynamic and situational. Comprehension of language in use can never be divorced from human characteristics. As we speak, we display our intentions, emotions, anticipations . . . and so on. Most importantly, we use language within contexts, which give language life. However, contrarily, in the learners’ previous education, *referential learning* has dominated and devalued human qualities. The learners, as a result, become more like engineers expert at dealing with “cold” linguistic parts but limited in capturing or creating the “feelings” of language and tend to fail to see the dynamical nature of language use.

In human activities, one-plus-one-equals-two is not necessarily applicable at all times to everything. It is even truer when it comes to linguistic behavior. As illustrated above, messages in their fullness are not carried out by “the appearance of language” and rely on contextual considerations. In this stage, the three upcoming lessons are aimed at enhancing the learners’

awareness of “language use within contexts” and developing their sensitivity to extra-linguistic clues.

Lesson 1: Famous Movie Lines

We express our emotions even before we can speak; emotions are a natural component of human beings. According to modern psychology, emotion, behavior and cognition influence each other. Thus, each emotion distinctly affects human motivation, nervous function, learning, physical acts, physiological arousal and communication with others. In verbal communication, language use is always attached to emotions. The tones usually serve well to give away the speaker’s emotions, allowing us to sense, for example, the sincerity, the passion, the sorrow or the delight in someone’s voice

However, the emotions embedded in linguistic performances seem to hardly receive the learners’ attention and cultivation. Therefore, their speech is often characterized by flatness and monotonousness, making them sound like robots. In my opinion, it barely makes sense to really “teach” the learners intonation because it is like teaching them how to show their feelings. Instead, we should explain to the learners that genuine expressions reflect emotions, and they should always allow their emotions to be perceivable in their speech acts. Therefore, the materials are chosen from movies, where the dramatic effects are realized by experts in emotional renditions. Through this lesson, the learners are expected to: 1) understand the role of emotions in linguistic performance so the language can be more conceptually salient; 2) be able to sound “lively” and; 3) view language learning as an exploration in social science.

Materials

Material A: In-class Worksheet

Happy	Sad
Angry	Excited

Material B: Famous movie lines

1. “You can’t handle the truth.” (*A Few Good Men*)
2. “I see dead people.” (*The Sixth Sense*)
3. “I am the king of the world.” (*Titanic*)
4. “You complete me.” (*Jerry McGuire*)
5. “This is Sparta.” (*300*)

Material C - Sources of the Lines

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UXoNE14U_zM

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6W72MtkVI6o&feature=related>

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=k-W76OXqAgc>

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SeldwfOwuL8&feature=related>

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-qR0Uke2XNI>

Procedures

- The first procedure is to “make them emotional!” The learners will be asked, by writing on the sheet as shown in Material A, to share one thing which could make them happy, sad, angry or excited. Of course, they have to do it in English, so the teacher needs to make sure everyone has no problems in saying what they want to say “correctly.” After the learners complete the table, each of them will choose one thing/event they have just jotted down and report it to the class. The learner’s report should not include an identification of which emotion s/he is referring to, and the rest of the learners will make voluntary guesses. So far, the point of this activity has not been made clear, so possibly, based on our assumption, their delivery might be in a “flat” tone, leaving the judgments of a particular emotion based on the content of the report. This is when the teacher “jumps in” and explains the importance of adding emotional renditions in the voice. If necessary, the teacher should make the point clear by dramatizing students’ original speeches. In this section, the teacher’s role is like an acting coach, only that the vocal part is the focus. Then, the teacher will conclude the coaching with a simple idea that “you should sound happy when you are telling something that makes you happy.” Afterwards, the learners will be asked to pick another thing/event on their tables and try to tell it with emotion-driven tonal expressions.

- The teacher will then show the five sentences on the board (the learners are not told they are quotations from movies) and ask the learners to think about what emotions could be behind those lines. The best way to know if they have improved since the last activity is to ask them to speak the sentences with vocal arrangements that reflect their added emotions to the language. In order to maintain efficiency, each of the learners will be responsible for one quotation only. With each performance, the teacher should invite the rest of the class to interpret the performer's emotion and provide as many emotional terms as possible to expand the learning opportunities. Note that the activity is not aimed at vocabulary learning but creating experiences for learning, so the teacher needs to ensure the supplemented emotional terms are well comprehended.
- The teacher will tell the learners those five sentences are actually famous movie lines and play the video clips of the scenes where those lines are said. We cannot be certain whether the learners will have seen the movies but it should not be an issue. This part of activity will be conducted through verbal discussion. In this stage of learning, the use of L1 should be discouraged. Also, to increase the learners' English use and engross them in an English speaking atmosphere, the learners will be required to use English only in the discussion. The discussion will still revolve around the topic today and the learners are to talk about the feelings they sense from those scenes. The teacher has to study the movies and prepare questions beforehand for a constructive discussion. With each scene, after the video is played, the teacher will ask these questions:
 1. Have you seen the movie? If you have, could you briefly tell what has happened in the plot before this scene? (If no one has, the teacher will take up the job)

2. Who is speaking? What is their relationship?
3. Where are they having the dialogue?
4. From the speakers' tones, what emotions do you sense?

The discussion will be conducted as the teacher asks the questions and elicits the learners' voluntary responses. The teacher ought to bear in mind that there is no definite correct response and encourage the learners to share other thoughts related to the questions.

- The scales of assignments ought to be gradually enlarged as the lessons proceed. The lesson has focused on concepts and the presented materials do not entail too much linguistic information. To add more educational values and meet their self-directed propensity, the assignment will be a short essay requiring research (250 words or more). There will be scheduled teacher-student conferences focusing on an individual learner's writing proficiency based on this assignment before or after each class in the future. The learners will write about one of the movie quotations presented today. The essay should include the information about:
 1. What is the story of the movie? Give a brief description.
 2. In what situation does the character say the line? Give a detailed description.
 3. When s/he says the line, what emotion(s) is behind the language?
 4. If you were the character, would you say anything different? If so, what could it be? Give as many examples as possible.

The learners should send their work to the teacher before the next class, so the teacher can take time mainly to “understand” each learner's writing (correcting grammatical errors is secondary). We have done a lot of verbal discussion conducted with the back-and-forth

language productions on the sentence level between the teacher and the learners. The choice of writing as the assignment is centered on one purpose--to make them show their competence in organizing information on larger scales. This is a crucial platform for them to step into the next stages of learning where “seeing through the language” will absolutely require them to process language beyond the sentence level and understand the whole structure of a piece of writing. Therefore, in the conference, the teacher will focus on this aspect, along with possible diagnosis of the learner’s critical weaknesses, such as over dependence on the translation method or unclear grasp of grammatical structures and so on, depending on each student’s performance in the assignment.

Lesson 2 Rhetorical Questions and Idioms

Because of the dynamic nature of language in authentic use, contextual information is crucial for optimal comprehension of messages. Contextual awareness is a key component of linguistic sensitivity. In language learning, textbook language tends to fall short of strong practical applicability in the real world because it is often devoid of contextual information. The school education was “stiff,” which may explain the learners’ low adaptability to “familiar novel information.” To illustrate, for example, in learners’ knowledge, “deal” could only mean “transaction” and nothing else, and for “Thank you,” “You are welcome” may be the only acceptable reply. When someone says “No big deal” to them as a return for “Thank you,” they are immediately baffled although their intuition may tell them it is a statement similar to “You are welcome.” This is a typical case where the integration of new information is disrupted by over-analysis and the lack of seeing language use dynamically.

In this lesson, *rhetorical questions* and *idioms* are chosen because their comprehension

must rely more on contextual understandings and social intuition than pure linguistic knowledge. Through this lesson, we should expect the learners to: 1) realize the importance and benefits of adequate contextual understandings; 2) incorporate contextual inference as a target skill and; 3) know what to learn by head and what to learn by heart.

Materials

Material A: Scenarios

<p>An argument rises between a couple F: You spend so much time hanging out with your friends. I thought I was your girlfriend. M: I just got off from a 10-hour shift. Give me a break. F: Ok! You can have a break as long as you want. I am out of here. M: Is there no better idea than walking away when things go south?</p>	<p>John just lost his cellphone Friend: Dude! Your mom just called and said there was a break-in at your house! J: What? Are you serious? Friend: Haha, I am just messing with you. J: Do I look like I am in the mood for joking?</p>
<p>Matt and a friend are studying for an exam Friend: I would be happy if I could get a C. Matt: We are in the same boat. I will help you out. Friend: Do you know the professor is super cheap with the scores? Matt: This is final. Why wouldn't I know?</p>	<p>Jenny just got engaged. Friend: Hey Jenny, how are things? Jenny: You know. It's life. Always like that. Friend: But I noticed there's something different about you. You seem happy! Jenny: My left arm is sore from carrying this rock. So now, where is my hug?</p>

Material B: Youtube Video

A video of a game called "Questions Only" from the show, *Whose Line Is It Anyways*, where the game participants act out a scene with improvised lines, which can only be in questions.

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=89iZ8Dwim4E&feature=related>

Material C: The Script

Host: The scene is a romance at a luxurious European health spa.
A: Have you seen my towel?

B: Is this yours?
 A: Isn't this teeny?
 B: Can you always do that?
 A: Would you be mine?
 B: Are you asking me to be yours?
 A: Would you stay with me in this spa forever?
 B: Would you never leave me?
 A: Do you want a massage?
 B: Would you rub my neck?
 A: Are you really a man?
 B: How did you know?
 A: Did you hear something?
 B: Are you just trying to find a way to get out of here now?
 A: Do I look like I want to stay?
 B: Do you not love me because I am a man?
 B: Would you like a towel?
 C: Do you have extra large?
 A: Would this do the trick?
 C: Can you guess which part of Europe I am from?
 A: What do I get if I guess correctly?
 C: What would you like to know?
 B: Did you see an odd-looking woman walking through here three seconds ago?
 D: Are you still on that?
 B: Where is the manager?
 D: Kavasava (foreign language)?
 B: Kay (foreign language)?
 D: Are you the man offering free massages?
 B: Want one?
 D: Do I?
 B: Do you work out much?
 D: Why are your hands so soft?
 B: Would you believe that's not my hand?
 D: Would it be wrong for me to use the word "lower?"
 B: Have you ever felt in this way? (takes off his denture)
 D: What did you say?
 B: Can you not love me?
 D: Can you take them out again?
 B: Can't you see that's the way I prefer you?

Material D: In-Class Worksheet

Direction: Fill in the blanks with *mess with*, *go south*, *in the same boat*, or *rock*.

1. Do you know the lead singer decided to leave the band after they got famous? It is ironic

because they have been _____ through many difficulties.

2. Look at the _____ on the young girls standing next to that old guy. He must have invested a lot to keep her.
3. You do not want to _____ with the manager now. He just got yelled at by the boss.
4. This show is _____ with every episode. I would not want to watch it next week.

Procedures

- First we will look into rhetorical questions. The first principle of the Language Awareness Approach is experiential, so the learners will not be informed about the topic of the lesson to generate associated experience. The learners will be divided into pairs. Each pair will receive the script of only one scene from Material A and vocally “act out” the scene (after the last lesson where emotion was the key point, they should not just “read aloud” the given script). After the performances, the teacher will display Material A on the projector screen. The four dialogues are shown together, and the learners will be asked to discover common features among them. The targeted feature is that they all end with a question but the teacher should encourage as many observations as possible. The learners’ attention will be directed to those questions after the discovery of this feature and asked to process the situations and speakers’ intentions in the scenes in order to discover the true messages of the questions at the end of each dialogue. The teacher will ask the learners:
 1. Are those questions seeking answers?
 2. Why are the questions asked?

Presumably, it would not take a highly sensitive mind to notice that the questions are not meant for interrogative purposes but, instead, for making statements. The teacher will then reveal to the learners that those questions are actually rhetorical and give the definition on the board: “a rhetorical question is a statement that, by arousing curiosity, is formulated as a question but that is not supposed to be answered.” There should be distinct intonational differences between asking a question and making a statement. Therefore, as an extended practice from the last lesson with a focus on emotional expressions, the learners will be asked to perform the scenes once again. This time, the teacher has to make sure the “liveliness” is in the learners’ linguistic performance and the intention to state, rather than to inquire, should be audibly noticeable.

- The teacher will then play the video clip (Material B) and briefly explain how the game on the video works. After the laughter (this is what the show is meant to create), the learners will be given the script of the sketch they have just watched (Material C) on sheets. The teacher will play the video one more time. While it is playing, the learners will identify rhetorical questions in the lines and mark them on the sheet. Then, for the determination, the teacher will play the video the third time, pressing the “pause” button every four sentences and asking the learners whether they have heard rhetorical questions. The teacher should have the answers ready before the lesson. During the process, the teacher will remind the learners to pay closer attention to how the actors arrange their voice to meet their intentions. “Not every question ends with a rising tone!”
- Now it is time for the learners to actually play the game. They will be divided into pairs and play “questions only.” They are to compose lines for a scene where they can speak only in questions. Still, although it is nearly impossible for a conversation to be in questions only in

authentic situations, the teacher will have to intervene before the performance to ensure the students' acts make sense. Logically, the conversation should contain both interrogative questions and rhetorical questions.

- In the scenes from Material A, because the situations have been clear, the learners are encouraged to ignore the meanings of the specific phrases in the dialogues and focus on the contexts. In this procedure, we will return to Material A and scrutinize for more valuable data. There are four phrases that require the learners' attention: "go south," "in the same boat," "mess with" and "rock." The learners will be given Material C and complete the exercise. We should be able to assume that most learners can correctly fill in the blanks given the distinct differences in their meanings and parts of speech. But most significantly, what makes this a sound assumption is the process of learning the phrases--the learners have encountered the phrases in certain contexts and are asked to use them also in the presence of plenty of contextual information. A question will be thrown to the learners: why is it that you did not know exactly the definitions of those phrases but somehow you know how/when/where you can use them? Supposedly, this question will make them think. The teacher will then talk about the importance of contextual consideration in language learning and give more examples of how contextual knowledge can help them process the comprehension of the language. These are the examples followed by the teacher's guidance:

1. Example: "Jackson is the ace in this basketball team. He scored 24 points from the last game and led the team to victory."

What is an ace? Is it a good thing or a bad thing? Where do you usually see an ace? The team won the game with his outstanding performance. Is Jackson a good player? What does "ace" mean here?

2. Example: “Mandy is a knock-out tonight. There have been more than five guys trying to get her number.”

What is a knock-out? Is it a good thing or a bad thing? Have you heard of “K.O.” before?

Is it a good thing or bad thing in a boxing game? Guys like Mandy and want to know her.

What is about a woman that attracts male strangers, appearance or personality?

3. Example: “Why are you not going with us again? You are such a downer.”

What is a downer? In your idea, which one is better, “up,” or “down?” When you want to invite your friend and get rejected, will you feel good or bad?

- For the take-home assignment, each of the learners will need to spend energy on “creation,” after they have mostly performed based on given materials in this lesson. They are to create a short scene involving at least one idiom containing a common word and a rhetorical question. We may not want to assign idioms or rhetorical questions and ask the learners to use them in their work because it is against self-directed and autonomous learning. Instead, while explaining the assignment, the teacher will give them tips about searching for idioms. Quite simply, what they need to do is to think of a common word like, *ball*, *go*, *face*, and type in “idioms of” or “idioms using” in front of the words on Google for search. During the search, the learners should be surprised by the “flexibility” and “diversity” of language in its use. Prior to the next session, the learners will send their work through e-mail for the teacher to make necessary modifications and give advice (leaning autonomously does not mean they should be left alone without supervision), so their performance in the next class can be educational for the rest of the members. The performance will need a partner, so to be time-efficient, the teacher will ask the learners to come to the class early next time so they can find their partners and practice before the performance.

Stage 4—Exploration: Why Is It That You Are “Always” Learning English?

Even for an adult English native speaker, it is not uncommon to look up words in a dictionary or seek advice about how to use a word or phrase properly. In fact, many online dictionary services have some kind of forums where people, mostly native speakers, leave their comments about the definitions, debate over the usages, ask questions, or share their experiences with the word/phrase. A native speaker is also constantly learning about his/her mother tongue. Why is this phenomenon relevant to foreign language learning? If a native speaker and a foreign language learner are both constantly learning, what makes them essentially different? After all, it is the mentality they have when attending to the language that defines the disparity. When a native speaker learns about his/her mother tongue, s/he is in the identity as natural member of the linguistic community. When a foreign language learner approaches the target language, s/he might perceive the entire process as a skill-training experience; the language falls outside his/her self-concepts. Therefore, foreign language learners would constantly rely on L1 knowledge, limit the processing of L2 data to mere vocabulary and grammar learning, be anxious about expressing themselves regardless their proficiency levels, or be in a permanent state of learning and not able to competently use the language.

Throughout the course, a repeatedly emphasized point is the importance of “attitude” in language learning. Indeed, it would be naïve to claim that one could grow his/her proficiency by merely emulating the mentality of a native speaker without cognitive efforts. However, it should not be a wild assumption that the attitudes (i.e. ambition to learn and ambition to use) significantly affect how the language will be processed. Thus, it becomes quite explicable why an immigrant could comfortably use English to sell fish in a seafood market in Seattle and an

engineer in Taiwan with a P. h. D. degree would have difficulty using English to express his ideas.

The principal objective in this stage of learning is that the learner establish a new self-concept as an English user, who tends to approach information with the language being an agent in conveying thoughts, not the end in itself. The lessons will adopt genre-based and content-based philosophies. Moreover, as the learning enters the final stage of this course, it is about time to “harvest.” Resonating with “learning by doing,” the procedures will involve further emphasis on putting the learners on the creative side of language data, and a main portion of the activities are planned to take place in a project/task-based atmosphere.

Lesson 1: Ray Charles

Ray Charles is one of the greatest artists in the contemporary history of music. His extraordinariness is not only reflected by the groundbreaking musical works but is also contained in his life story, including the loss of vision, abuse of drugs and complicated romances. He is so charismatic, inspirational, influential, and controversial, which makes the great individual, Ray Charles, a resource for an engrossing task.

According to Hyland, “genre refers to abstract, socially recognized ways of using language. It is based on the idea that members of a community usually have little difficulty in recognizing similarities in the texts they use frequently and are able to draw on their repeated experiences with such texts to read, understand, and perhaps write them relatively easily” (149). Fundamentally, the awareness of genre facilitates one’s understandings of “the role of language in the way things are so that it may act upon such ways for the potential of many” (Christie 761). Genres define the “feeling” a text is meant to give and what the readers can expect in terms of stylistic manipulations and organizations of information (i.e. rhetoric). The expectation for our

learners to be affectively engaged in the language and see from a native user's eyes would make genre awareness a natural desired component in their learning mechanisms. Through this lesson, the learners are expected to: 1) understand that people write to accomplish different purposes in different contexts and based on that, how they use language varies; 2) engage in language with shrewder appreciations and; 3) witness the diversity of language use and realize that "correctness" could account for just a little in language advancement.

Materials

Material A: A video where Ray Charles performs *I Got A Woman* at a concert.

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DKsT9FHeKqQ>

Material B: A poem about Ray Charles by Ed Galing

his long fingers
on the keyboards
were pure magic
you could see his
fingers move
and listen to the
sound of blues,
his voice, shaking
from side to side,
his smile a part of
the music, there was
no one as good as
ray charles,
a black man who was blind
but not his music
he knew the soul of music
and it was poetry
he could play a song on
your heartstrings and make
you cry

music was his main love
 but it wasn't only blues
 for he could play the song
 "america' like you never heard it before then
 "the girl with the diamond ring, oh,oh,uh, uh"
 we repeated his words,
 so humble in his presence
 i would listen and join in
 with my tiny little harmonica,
 trying to blend myself into his song
 but of course ray
 never knew this,
 i could never play the blues
 as he did, but oh, how i wished
 i could...

<http://edgaling.blogspot.com/2009/04/poems-about-ray-charles-and-benny.html>

Material C: More videos of Ray Charles performances of *America Beautiful* and *Mess Around*

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TRUjr8EVgBg>

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TgxQg3Z818&ob=av3n>

Material D: A brief biography covering Ray Charles's life as a child, adolescence and an emerging star.

A tragic fate may have given this visionary a heightened sensitivity, perception, awareness, even expansion to his obvious musical gifts that he may have never touched upon had he not suffered from his physical affliction. Whatever it was, Ray Charles revolutionized American music and was catapulted to legendary status by the time he died in Beverly Hills at age 73. Born to Aretha and Baily Robinson, an impoverished Albany, Georgia, family that moved to Greenville, Florida while he was still an infant. It was not a cause for joy and celebration. His father soon abandoned the family and his baby brother, George Robinson,

drowned in a freak washtub accident. Ray himself developed glaucoma at the age of five and within two years had lost his sight completely. A singer in a Baptist choir, he developed a love and feel for rhythms and studied music at the State School for Deaf and Blind Children, showing which brought out his talent and ear for playing various instruments, including the piano and clarinet. An orphan by his early teens, Ray joined a country band at age 16 called The Florida Playboys. He moved to Seattle in 1948 where he and Southern guitarist Gossady McGee formed the McSon Trio. With an emphasis on easy-styled jazz, Ray also played in bebop sessions on the sly. He departed from the McSon Trio and signed with Los Angeles-based Swing Time Records, becoming the pianist for rhythm and blues great [Lowell Fulson](#) and his band. Atlantic Records eventually picked him up. Along the road he would add composer, writer and arranger to his formidable list of talents.

<http://www.imdb.com/name/nm0153124/bio>

Material E: Famous quotes by Ray Charles

1. I can't retire from music any more than I can retire from my liver. You'd have to remove music from me surgically – like you were taking out my appendix.
2. I don't know what would have happened to me if I had not been able to hear.
3. I was born with music inside me, like my ribs, my kidneys, my liver, like my blood. It was a force already inside me when I arrived on the scene. It was necessity for me – like food or water.
4. My music had roots which I dug up from my own childhood, musical roots buried in the darkest soil.

http://www.brainyquote.com/quotes/authors/r/ray_charles.html

Procedures

- The teacher will first play the video (Material A), followed by a teacher-student conversation based on teacher-initiated questions and the learners' voluntary responses. This part is to understand how much the learners have known about Ray Charles and prepare the learners for the upcoming information. The teacher will have questions ready:
 1. Do you know who is playing the music?
 2. What kind of music does he play?
 3. Have you seen the movie, *Ray*?
 4. How do you think about the performance, the music, and the musician's movements when he plays?
- Then the poem (Material B) will be presented on the projector screen and the teacher will have the learners identify what it is as a text. There will not be too much energy spent on the exploration of the structural and artful aspect of this poem. Instead, the learners will be encouraged to make connections from the visual and audio inputs (the video) to the language, as well as to feel what the poet has felt. The teacher will lead the class to read the poem at an obviously slow pace with an accented vocal performance. After the reading, with each learner having the poem on their sheets, the teacher will play the other two videos, where Ray Charles performs the songs mentioned in the poem so that the learners can watch the performance and listen to the music while paying attention to the language.
- "Reticence" is a label many western teachers would place on Asian learners. However, in spite of cultural reasons, students' reticence can be attributed to insufficient encouragements and stimuli; sometimes they just do not have anything to say. In this procedure, with

abundant resources to stimulate the learners' "feelings" and the understanding from previous lesson about how affects trigger and steers linguistic performance, we should be spared the worries of "inactiveness" and "quietness" among the learners. The coming task will ask all of the learners to work collectively to compose one single poem. First, each of the learners will be asked to compose "only one or two" lines describing his/her observation or feelings about Ray Charles, e.g. his performance or music. At the same time, each one of them will get a number to determine the order of their composed lines. While the learners compose, the teacher will work individually with the learners to ensure they convey the messages with clarity and accuracy or provide better options for word choices and sentence structure. Once they are finished, they will type their work in the classroom computer. Then, the teacher will organize the learners' work based on the order decided earlier. On the projector screen, the teacher will exhibit the final result. The class will have a discussion about this "masterpiece" they compose together. The teacher will ask the learners what line(s) other than their own they find interesting and why, and also their feelings or opinions about the product as a whole.

- The next procedure is more skill-related. A passage about Ray Charles's life will be employed. The first section is relatively traditional, where the teacher explains important vocabulary and grammatical points. Nonetheless, detailed explanation is not in the plan. The current goal is to allow the learners to see the gaps between them and competent users in light of diversity in sentence structures and arrangements of information. To bring personal relevancy into the process, the learners will be asked to recall their experiences of composing their autobiography for job applications. The teacher will confront the learners by pointing out some "weak" features which, based on my experience, exist commonly in the learners' compositions, especially those with a chronicle nature: 1) "indifference" marked by the

absence of insightful personal interpretations for events or experience (e.g. “I joined the club at school and learned how to cooperate with people.”) and; 2) “dullness” in structures with repetitive use of the same subject in S+V+O sentences, making their autobiographies mere lists of events. The teacher will write *indifference* and *dullness* on the board and explain what these two features are concerned in their writing. The teacher will ask the learners: 1) whether they think they have these problems in their writing; 2) what causes these problems and; 3) how these problems can be corrected.

- The goal here is to discover how the writer avoids those “weak” features mentioned above. The learners will be asked to read the text again and 1) locate words/phrases/sentences that reflect the writers subjective interpretations of Ray Charles’s life events and; 2) locate structures that do not follow “someone does something at some time/place” and articulate how the writer manages to avoid using the same structures repetitively.
- For the closure of this lesson, words revealing his passion for music from Ray Charles will be introduced to the learners with the hope that the learning experience is not only educational but also inspiring. Indeed, in language education, we all look forward to seeing not only intelligent learners, but individuals who are passionate about the language itself. But we will begin this activity with discovering their own passions in order to make the linguistic encounters personal. In doing so, words would be carved out from the original quotations from Ray Charles as a base on which the learners will be able to share their passions. The learners will be given the sheet with the content below, fill in the blanks with words/phrases that will make them able to tell about their passion and take turns reporting to the class.

1. I can’t retire from _____ any more than I can retire from my _____. You’d have to remove _____ from me surgically – like you were taking out my _____.

2. I don't know what would have happened to me if I had not been able to _____.

3. I was born with _____ inside me, like my ribs, my kidneys, my liver, like my blood.

It was a force already inside me when I arrived on the scene. It was necessity for me – like a _____ needs _____.

4. My _____ had roots which I dug up from _____, _____ roots buried in the _____.

- So far, the learning has occurred largely with given materials, which positions the learners at the receptive end of language data. This will change with the upcoming procedure. The learners will be divided into groups, assigned a project, and guided through to its accomplishment. The project is about an influential figure worldwide and, based on gathered information, they are to make an informative presentation. Because our learners are adults, we cannot expect the group members to meet outside class hours (of course they are more than welcome to do that). So we will have to allocate more class hours for the project. In estimation, the whole process will take up four regular class meetings. The procedures are:
 1. Searching: The learners will decide who they are going to talk about (conducted in session 1 right after the lecture).
 2. Researching: The learners will find out valuable factors about the influential figure they have decided, including his/her life and contributions to human beings, a particular society or a certain field. Also, they should seek for the useful materials from a variety of media, whether it is visual, audial or printed (conducted between session 1 and 2).
 3. Organization: The learners will put together the information they have gathered. They will be encouraged to be creative, resourceful, informative, and organized for an engaging and educational presentation. The choices of means for presentation should be put into

considerations, too-plays, props, videos, slides in Power Point, and of course, the language they use (conducted in session 2).

4. Rehearsing: The learners will present an outline of the presentation in advance to the teacher and briefly go over the contents with the teacher. The teacher will work with the group to “tie up loose ends.” We still want the most attention on the language, so the teacher will provide as much assistance as possible in that regard (conducted in session 3 with teacher-group conference).
5. Presentation: Each group will be given 10-15 minutes for their presentation and the audience will be encouraged to take notes, ask questions and provide their feedback (conducted in session 4).
6. Evaluation: Since it is not an assessment, the teacher will not grade the presentation. However, to make it a further constructive experience, teacher’s evaluative feedback is necessary. The evaluative feedback should follow the principles of: 1) underscoring the strong performance during the presentation; 2) giving more credits to the team than the individuals and; 3) leaving individual weaknesses in linguistic performance to private conferences (conducted in session 4).

Chapter V: Conclusion

In a context where “English is important” is so much of a catchy slogan that everyone picks it up even before knowing the reasons, “how to learn English well” may easily become a myth. The environment is permeated with conventional wisdoms about English learning, and by accepting (or simply knowing) them, many learners may appear to have obtained some insights about how English learning should be approached. Very often, the embraced ideas about English learning are simplistic and superficial, with learners’ unreflective attitudes complicating the situation.

When I was 12, I got my first self-teaching English materials from my father, who had spent a fair amount of money on them from a seminar-like event held in his company. When showing me the materials, he displayed obvious excitement, probably from a father’s expectation for his son (at least I thought so), which made him sound like he was the salesperson for this product. The materials were a collection of audio books consisting of articles covering a wide range of topics and read aloud by native speakers. The set of materials could have been of great help, but I did not notice until later that, even though I did as I was told, my English had barely improved because I was supposed to listen to the tapes while sleeping. Then, I realized that my father was excited when giving me the audio books because he had not bought only the products, but also the “expert’s” words at the seminar, who had claimed that one could master a foreign language by doing what an infant did when learning a mother tongue, which was to listen or be exposed to the language, even when s/he was asleep.

When it comes to English learning, Taiwanese learners can become gullible. When an adult learner, facing the ever-evolving trend of language learning innovations, recurrently

assures him/herself that “this time, this is going to work” as s/he moves from one strategy, methods, material, or institute to another and ends up with most effort in vain, we know that the search for explanations for his/her sluggishness in progression will take place outside the domains of “intelligence” and “diligence.”

With an education system focusing primarily upon exam scores from the students and a culture praising self-effacement, English learning could be a bumpy road. Overtime, the ideas associated with what a language is as language have stopped mattering and the use of English plays only a trivial part in self-expression and communication.

The Language Awareness Approach is not a cure-all, but its potential and values in leading the learners back to see the nature of language cannot be bypassed by any educators who work with adults in Taiwan. Adult language education may invite more sophisticated maneuvers than children’s because the long history of learning has caused an adult’s learning tendencies to be less “moldable” and more resistant to instructional forces. However, there are two things that hardly ever change, on which we can expect to rely: the desire for English proficiency and the nature of language. The first element in adults’ learning would have turned “old” by the time they reenter English learning. The second one could be a dusty topic but “new” to them as a mental resource. This leaves us to depend on the incorporation of Language Awareness, which originates from thorough understanding of the nature of language, for the rejuvenation of their learning mechanisms in order to fuel their advancement. No classroom-learning would last forever. Language Awareness, once developed and programed into one’s mental life about language learning, will consistently serve as a mentor and support the individual en route to becoming a life-long learner and eventually a competent user.

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