

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.0 Introduction

This chapter aims to review literature related to the present study in ten sections. Section one investigates the importance of listening in second language acquisition. Section two describes the complexity of listening process. Section three presents modes of listening process. Section four presents a review of previous researches on listening teaching for high school students. Section Five states the Input Hypothesis and Affective Filter Hypothesis. Section six discusses affective factors inherent in listening comprehension. Section seven reviews the effect of English-song teaching. Section eight focuses on MI theory. Section nine reviews the previous studies on journal writing. Section ten states the conclusions.

#### 2.1 The Importance of Listening in Second Language Acquisition

Listening education in the foreign language classroom was ignored in the past. The role of listening in foreign language acquisition was stressed over the last two decades (Brown & Yule, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Feyten, 1991; Brindley, 1998), but listening instruction in foreign language classes is still found to be insufficient (Richards, 1983; Joiner, 1984; Bernhardt & James, 1987).

Some researchers and scholars (Winitz & Reeds, 1975; Asher, 1977; Postovsky, 1981; Vandergrift, 1999) argued that aural comprehensible input was significant in the initial stages of language acquisition process. Asher (1977) emphasized the top priority of listening comprehension at the early stage of foreign language teaching because learners acquired their native language in the same process. Krashen (1982) shared similar opinion

with them that comprehensible input was a required condition for language learning.

From the perspective of the natural approach (Terrell, 1983), language teacher should allow learners to idle away a period of time until they want to learn. Before that, the researcher has to provide learners with a lot of input to stimulate low-achievers' motivation to learn and to create listening environment during class. Hence, the initial mission of the instructor was to offer comprehensible input. A necessary condition for language acquisition was that the learner comprehended (through hearing or reading) input language that contains linguistic items (lexis, syntax, morphology) at a level slightly above the learner's current knowledge ( $i+1$ ) (Krashen, 1982, 1985).

To sum up, input plays an essential part in second-language listening acquisition (Rost, 2002). As Mitchell and Myles (1998) pointed out that input at the right level of difficulty is necessary and sufficient for second-language listening acquisition. Hence, if the new input and existing knowledge match, comprehension occurs (Faerch & Kasper, 1986). For learners, especially low-achievers, that is the optimal period to motivate and to progress in second-language listening acquisition.

## **2.2 The Complexity of Listening Process**

Listening is a process including a continuum of active processes under the control of the listener (Rost, 2002). To understand this complex process, concepts from neurological processes and linguistic processing are outlined below.

Listening is considered to be an active, intentional process based on consciousness, which is the aspect of mind with 'a self-centered' viewpoint and adjustment to the surroundings, and which can focus on only one thing at a time. The limited capacity of consciousness is reflected linguistically for both a speaker and a listener in 'intonation units' (Rost, 2002). Thus, consciousness instructs the individual's attention not only to the external world but also to experience that world (Rost, 2002). Consequently, audition

occurs through experience with familiar stimuli (Rost, 2002).

Attention is the concentrating of consciousness on an 'object' or 'a series of thought' (Rost, 2002). Two ideas are principal to comprehend how attention affects listening: limited capacity and selective attention (or 'choice of focus'). The idea of limited capacity is significant in listening. Basically, consciousness can handle only one source of information at a time. When multiple sources are presented, selective attention must be employed (Rost, 2002). Selective attention is the process of concentrating processing resources on one idea, and permitting the processing of other ideas or thoughts to end completely (Rost, 2002).

Based on the concept of linguistic processing, the listeners perceive speech through the phonological procedures (phonemic, morphological, lexical) and applying grammatical rules to managing spoken language (Rost, 2002). The chief process in listening is word recognition. Three levels of information are utilized in word recognition: phonetic feature, phoneme and word. Features (e.g. the voicing of a /b/ or /v/) activate all phonemes that include these features, which in turn activate words in the mental lexicon (Rost, 2002). Thus, the two central tasks of the listener in word recognition are identification of words and activating knowledge of word meanings (Rost, 2002).

Speech-processing requires the parsing of incoming speech in order to work out a grammatical model of the language (Rost, 2002). The primary grammatical employed cues are word order, subject-verb agreement, pro-form agreement and case inflections (Rost, 2002). While listening the listener draw upon grammatical knowledge of the language through selective use of these syntactic and morphological cues, along with the use of semantic cues and pragmatic cues (e.g. top-comment relationship and contrastive stress). In an entire parsing of incoming speech, the listener would classify recognized words into grammatical categories (content words, e.g. noun, verb, adjective, adverb, or function words attached to a content word) and assigning structural and semantic relations

between them (Rost, 2002). In the listener's mind, a propositional model of speech represents text referents (lexis in the text) and their relationship to each other. Thus, complex sentences are more difficult to confirm in the process of listening than sentences that are syntactically and propositionally simpler (Rost, 2002). In summary, grammatical parsing assists listeners in comprehending listening texts by assigning semantic roles to words (Rost, 2002).

### **2.3 Modes of Listening Process**

Modes of listening process are top-down and bottom-up. Top-down processing is a mode that listeners start from their background knowledge in the understanding of a text. Background knowledge could represent listeners' previous knowledge or knowledge of the world about the topic of discourse. It also could be situational or contextual knowledge (Helgesen & Brown, 1995; Hsiung, 2002; Wang, 2002). Thus, top-down processing assists listeners to get an overall view of the listening text. Bottom-up processing is the opposite. Listeners start with the component parts (i.e. words, phrases, sentences, and grammar) to achieve listening comprehension (Helgesen & Brown, 1995; Hsiung, 2002; Wang, 2002). Thus, the listening processing was bottom-up oriented and began with receiving the aural stimuli (Clark and Clark, 1977; Richards, 1990; cited by Hsiung, 2002). In sum, effective listening requires a combinative and interactive use of both top-down and bottom-up processing (Helgesen & Brown, 1995; Hsiung, 2002; Wang, 2002).

### **2.4 Studies Related to Teaching Listening for High School Students**

Listening is both prevalent in language use and also the chief method of second language acquisition for most people. Hence, the development of listening as a skill and as a route for language input should support vital importance in instruction (Rost, 2002).

A few studies have been conducted to probe listening strategies on high school students in Taiwan and how instructors helped learners improve their listening ability.

Lin (2000) investigated listening comprehension strategies utilized by 262 second-year senior high school students in Taiwan and identified their listening comprehension difficulties when they listened to English-learning programs on the radio. Lin classified the subjects into high proficiency group (HPG), intermediate proficiency group (IPG), and low proficiency group (LPG), and found that (1) the subjects applied the bottom-up processing when they listened to English-learning programs on the radio. Because the subjects employed the strategy of word decoding, they attended to the meanings of words instead of the main idea or the message in the process of listening; (2) the HPG used listening strategies more frequently and flexibly than the LPG during the three phases of listening. The HPG inclined to perform comprehension monitoring and problem identification. In contrast, the LPG were likely to rely on clues from their native language; (3) in the process of listening the chief expressed difficulties the most subjects encountered were inability to keep up with the speaker's fast speed; (4) the HPG encountered listening comprehension difficulties less frequently than the LPG. The major problem of the HPG was distraction whereas the chief problem for the LPG was inability to catch up with the speaker's fast pace.

Chen's (2002) study focused on the effects of repetition and pictures given at different time periods on the listening comprehension of three classes of second-year senior high school students in Taiwan. Chen divided the subjects into three groups the high proficiency group (HPG), the middle proficiency group (MPG), and the low proficiency group (LPG). The subjects were demanded to take four listening comprehension tests: one repetition listening comprehension test without a picture (RLT), and three listening comprehension tests with a picture given before listening (BLT), while listening (WLT), and after listening (ALT). After the tests, the subjects had to fill in

questionnaires to express their opinions. Chen discovered that (1) lack of confidence affected the subjects' listening proficiency even though they had acquired some correct listening strategies. Therefore, they depended on the help from the teacher in the listening assessments; (2) listening to passages twice profited the HPG. As for offering a picture cue before and after listening, the differences between every two groups were significant, and as for providing a picture cue while listening, the HPG benefited more from this treatment than the other two groups; (3) comparing the effects of RLT, BLT, WLT, and ALT on different proficiency groups, RLT ranked the best, BLT the second, ALT the third, and WLT the worst; (4) the results of this study proved that both repetition and a visual cue before listening benefited most of the subjects in all three proficiency groups.

Using 301 senior high school students in Taiwan as the subjects, Wang (2002) discovered that females employed the top-down and the bottom-up processing in the process of listening. Furthermore, effective listeners exhibited significantly higher frequency in the use of bottom-up and top-down strategies.

The research conducted by Wu (2004) demonstrated the effects of pictures as cues supplied at different time periods, the picture before listening comprehension test (BLCT) and during listening comprehension test (DLCT). The subjects of this study are 42 nine-grade junior high school students classified into three proficiency groups-the high proficiency group (HPG), the intermediate proficiency group (MPG) and the low proficiency group (LPG). The subjects are demanded to complete Questionnaire One at the beginning of the overall experiment, and to finish Questionnaire Two after taking two listening comprehension tests: a listening comprehension test with a picture before listening and during listening. Wu concluded her study as the followings: (1) Lack of confidence hinders the subjects' listening ability owing to insufficient time of practice in listening; the subjects long to obtain the instructor's guidance in listening; (2) BLCT is more effective than DLCT; (3) both LPG and MPG benefit from the listening

comprehension test with the picture format, especially the visual cue before the listening activity.

Concluded from the above studies, effective listeners integrated both top-down and bottom-up strategies in the listening process. With bottom-up processing, students start with the component parts: words, grammar, and the like. Top-down processing is just the opposite. Students start from their background knowledge and experiences on many topics. Therefore, vocabulary, grammar, and life experience can be the tools for effective listening.

## **2.5 The Input Hypothesis and the Affective Filter Hypothesis**

Humans acquire second languages only if they obtain comprehensible input and if their affective filters are low enough to allow the input in (Krashen, 1985). The Input Hypothesis and the Affective Filter Hypothesis are presented below.

The Input Hypothesis is the chief part of an overall theory of second-language acquisition (Krashen, 1985). The Input Hypothesis states that learners acquire language by understanding messages or by receiving comprehensible input. If learners understand input, learners progress from stage  $i$  (their current level), to stage  $i+1$  (a bit beyond their current level of competence). Because learners are capable of understanding language including unacquired grammar with the help of contexts, which contain extra-linguistic information, their knowledge of the world, and previously acquired linguistic competence (Krashen, 1985). Therefore, the Input Hypothesis claims that learners acquire languages by understanding meaning first, and consequently they acquire structure. Thus, for beginners the language teachers should offer context via aids (pictures and objects) and discussion of familiar topics (Krashen, 1985). Eventually, learners' linguistic competence is built via comprehensible input, and their ability to produce language is said to emerge naturally instead of being taught directly. And as a result, learners' language accuracy

develops over time as learners hear and understand more input (Krashen, 1985).

The affective filter is a mental obstacle that keeps learners from completely using the comprehensible input they receive for language acquisition (Krashen, 1985). Comprehensible input is necessary for second language acquisition, but it is not sufficient. The affective filter is up when learners are unmotivated, lacking in self-confidence, or anxious, or on the defensive; because they consider their weakness are revealed in the second language class. While learners are not concerned with the possibility of failure in second language acquisition and consider themselves to be potential members of the group speaking the target language, the affective filter is down (Krashen, 1985).

In summary, to help language learners to learn effectively and efficiently, language teachers should provide learners with comprehensible input and lower affective filter.

## **2.6 The Affective Factors**

Listening materials for instruction should offer the learners lots of target language to listen to in a digestible, palatable, yet challenging form (Taylor, 1981). In addition, students' listening comprehension is also influenced by affective factors. The affective factors of low achievers in the present study include anxiety, inhibition, self-esteem, self-confidence, risk taking and motivation.

### **2.6.1 Anxiety**

Research on foreign language acquisition reveals that anxiety directly debilitates orientation and exercises a negative influence on listening comprehension (Gardner, Lalonde, Moorcroft, & Evers, 1987; cited by Wu, 2004). In the listening classroom most students show the feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension, or worry (Scovel, 1978), when they have no idea about what kind of context they are listening to. Therefore, besides comprehensible input, the language teacher, as a facilitator, is

responsible for anxiety reduction, and has the duty to construct facilitative anxiety instead of debilitating one (Alpert & Haber, 1960; Scovel, 1978; Oxford, 1999). Facilitative anxiety is a positive factor, inspiring a learner to accomplish a task in second language acquisition (Ellis, 1999; Brown, 2000). Hence, listening treatment should provide optimal point in order to promote low anxiety among learners and a nondefensive posture where learners do not feel they are in competition with one another (Rogers, 1983). In sum, appropriate anxiety may help the process of successful second language learning (Brown, 2000).

### **2.6.2 Inhibition**

The next affective factor we will deal with is inhibition, which relates to a learner's self-defense to protect ego in second language acquisition (Brown, 2000), particularly in listening comprehension. Thus, the language teacher should create skills that diminish inhibition in the new language environment (Brown, 2000). Meanwhile, the contexts are the most important factor which makes low-achievers feel free to take risks, to try errors, and to break through some barriers that often make them unwilling to try out their foreign language (Brown, 2000). In short, comprehensible input in listening treatment will remove inhibition and promote language learning.

### **2.6.3 Self-Esteem**

The third affective factor we will deal with is self-esteem, which is related to one's self-appraisals in particular life situation such as athletic ability, personality traits, gregariousness, sympathy, and malleability (Brown, 2000). In language class, self-esteem is a personal judgment of worthiness that individuals hold towards themselves in the attitudes (Coopersmith, 1967). Praise, encouragement, acceptance of low-achievers' error and learning style are critical elements in the process of instruction. Hence, the instructor

should balance specific self-esteem of low-achievers with frustration. In addition, the instructor ought to create harmony learning environment for low-achievers to get task self-esteem in language class. Therefore, successful instructors will give optimal attention both to linguistic goals and to individual difference (Brown, 2000).

#### **2.6.4 Self-Confidence**

The fourth affective factor we will deal with is self-confidence, which plays a critical role in the process of learning, particularly for low-achievers. Brown (2001) claimed that self-confidence is acquirers' belief that they have the capability of completing a task and is at least partially a factor in their eventual success in attaining the task. Thus, classroom activities would start with simpler skills and simpler concepts so that students can establish a sense of achievement that causes them to the next, more difficult step (Brown, 2001).

#### **2.6.5 Risk-Taking**

The fifth affective factor we will deal with is risk-taking. To err is human, particularly in the process of language learning. Based on it, language teachers should allow learners to take risks. To achieve this, learners are encouraged to make intelligent guesses in class. According to Rubin (1975), effective language acquirers make willing and accurate speculations. Listening treatment should create an atmosphere of agreement that will inspire self-confidence, and motivate low-achievers to experience and to find out the target language, permitting themselves to take risks without feeling abashed.

#### **2.6.6 Motivation**

The last affective factor we will deal with is motivation, which plays a vital role to accelerate learning (Dornyei, 2001). In second language acquisition Brown (2000)

claimed that a learner will be successful with the proper motivation. Besides, motivation nurtures a learner to accomplish any complex task (Brown, 2000). Therefore, a learner needs to be cultivated from extrinsic motivation to intrinsic motivation, from instrumental orientation to integrative orientation in the process of second language acquisition.

Extrinsic motivation such as grades or certain types of positive feedback motivates learners at the beginning of language learning, but several researchers (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei & Csizer, 1998; Brown, 2000; Dornyei, 2001) have studied intrinsic orientations, especially for long-term retention. Intrinsic motivation constructs a learner with feelings of competence and self-determination (Edward Deci, 1975) to conquer the challenging situation. Hence, optimal incongruity (Piaget, 1972) or what Krashen (1985) called “i+1” input hypothesis plays a critical part in second language acquisition, particularly in listening course for learners to pursue the resolution of a reasonable challenge. Dornyei and Csizer (1998) proposed that teachers could motivate their learners to build self-confidence and autonomy, personalizing the learning process, and increasing learners’ goal-orientation. Most important of all, language teachers should take responsibility for inspiring intrinsic motivation of acquirers who are endeavoring excellence, autonomy, and self-actualization (Brown, 2000).

Instrumental and integrative motivations trigger learners in the process of second language acquisition. Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert (1972) found that second language learners acquired a language as a means for attaining instrumental goals: furthering a career, passing an examination, better grades and so forth. Gradually, learners integrated themselves into culture of the second language group and became involved in social interchange in that group. The findings suggest that the two orientations are not necessarily mutually exclusive; instead, most situations involved a mixture of each orientation (Gardner, & MacIntyre, 1992).

In sum, better grades or positive feedback from the teacher in listening classroom

accelerate low-achievers establishing self-confidence and bringing about internally rewarding consequences. Besides, intrinsic motivation (Edward Deci, 1975; cited by Dornyei, 2001) should be set up to drive learners' self-awareness that they have to study English for their own sake; in addition, teachers should build up low-achievers autonomy of self-reward and self-actualization (Maslow, 1970).

## **2.7 Studies on the Effects of English-Song Teaching**

For the last two decades, EFL methodology has been actively advocating the integration of utilizing music and songs in class (Orlova, 2003). Some researchers (Murphey, 1991, 1996; Graham, 1993,1994; Eken, 1996; Jedynak, 2000; Saricoban, 2000) further suppose that music, songs and chants are employed in class based on the methodological purposes. Furthermore, it has also both proved many songs can be successfully employed to provide meaningful contexts for learning vocabulary, phrases, or sentence structures (Richards, 1983, 1997; Cullen, 1999; Saricoban, & Metin, 2000; Orlova, 2003).

The following is a review of studies related to the effects of English-song teaching in the EFL/ESL classroom.

Wilma Blanche (1995) carried out an investigation of the effects of classroom singing and music cues on memory for pronunciation in second language acquisition. To help adult ESL learners at a community college memorize vocabulary pronunciation, 100 adult ESL learners participated in the research, divided into treatment-control groups. A pretest posttest pronunciation clarity taped sample was collected from each of 50 subjects; an attitude about music survey was also a pretest measure. The classroom singing presentation used the song pattern and song vocabulary for the treatment. The control presentation utilized the same target vocabulary with directed pronunciation drill and practice. The findings were (a) both presentation groups increased in mean total score

from pretest to posttest measures of pronunciation clarity, suggesting learning occurred; (b) the classroom singing treatment was as effective as the direct pronunciation vocabulary presentation. There was no significant difference in the two presentation modes. Many other studies (Lo, 2002; Sun, 2003; Chen, 2004) yielded the same finding that English songs and music instruction made learners progress in pronunciation performance.

Yang (2002) conducted a study of the effects of an English singing program on English acquisition for technology class (TC) and non-technology class (Non-TC) learners in junior high school in Taiwan. 63 ninth-graders were recruited to participate in the study. She collected her data from the pre-test and the post-test of English proficiency, and four kinds of questionnaires. The results of this study included (a) students held positive attitudes toward the English singing program, which improves their listening comprehension of more English phrases than before; (b) the English achievement tests of the TC students in the singing program were much more improved than the Non-TC students; (c) the Non-TC students preferred the selected songs in the English singing program. The findings were in agreement with those of Leslie Eloise's (2000) study with Korean students.

Chiang (2003) probed the effects of attitude toward learning English by incorporating English rhymes and songs into the teaching of every subject in the elementary school curriculum in Taiwan. The fourth graders in the same class were recruited to participate in the study. She collected her data through the posttest of students' English learning attitudes. She found that most students took autonomous attitudes toward English learning and felt senses of achievements in English acquisition. This corresponded with Hsu's (2003) findings that the MI-based English Nursery Rhyme program considerably motivated the subjects in English learning, especially nursery rhyme games and activities.

Previous studies proved that songs, rhymes, rhythm, jazz chant, and music are effective instruments to inspire students in English learning. Furthermore, by using songs, language can be acquired in a relaxing and interesting atmosphere, and thus enhance their motivation (Finocchiaro, 1983). Most importantly, in addition to creating enjoyable English learning experiences, English songs can be a beneficial aid in the acquisition of vocabulary, pronunciation, phrases, and sentence patterns (Richards, 1990).

## **2.8 Multiple Intelligences Theory**

In 1983 Gardner published his pioneering book, *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences*, in which he advocated multiple intelligences to challenge traditional thoughts about IQ that intelligence is not only a general ability that may be found in varying degrees in all individuals but one that can be measured reliably by standardized paper-and-pencil intelligence tests (i.e., most intelligence tests measure only the ability of test taker to respond quickly to items of a linguistic or logical-mathematic type.). Intelligence, as Gardner (1983) supposes, is the ability to resolve problems that an individual encounters in real life, the ability to generate new problems to solve, and the ability to make something or offer a service that is valued in an individual's community or culture. Therefore, he presented seven domains of abilities in 1983: linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, and intrapersonal intelligences. In 1997 Gardner added one-and-a-half intelligences to the seven previously identified. He named the eighth intelligence "the naturalist" (sensitivity to the ecological environment) and the half intelligence "the moralist" (sensitivity to ethical concern), in which he was not yet sure if the moralist consisted of a full-blown intelligence by itself. Table 1 briefly describes each of these intelligences and provides examples of the kind of person who best represents each one.



Cognitive competence of human beings is actually pluralistic instead of unitary in design (Gardner, 1983; Haggerty, 1995). To help low achievers in the present study improve their listening ability, six subsections (linguistic, musical, visual-spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal intelligences) of the eight intelligences, along with related activities provided by Lazear (1999), are presented below.

### **2.8.1 Linguistic Intelligence**

The linguistic intelligence centralizes words on saying them, hearing them, reading them, looking at them, feeling them. Thus, the intelligence offers students with opportunities for discussion, silent reading, oral reading, choral reading, listening to records and tapes of the spoken word, storytelling oral presentations. Besides, the intelligence creates opportunities for writing stories, letters, essays, poems, and prompts use of storyboards, tape recorders, word processors (Lazear, 1999).

Classroom activities related to verbal linguistic intelligence may include (a) creating crossword puzzles or word jumbles for vocabulary words, (b) practicing impromptu speaking and writing, (c) making grammatically correct sentences, (d) writing a sequel or next episode to a story or play, (e) accomplishing peer correction, (f) participating in verbal debate, (g) telling a story or creating a story, (h) identifying synonyms for target words in textbooks students are currently reading, (i) writing a sentence that includes a target word and substituting for the target word a synonym that makes the sentence more interesting or expressive, (j) writing journal entry.

### **2.8.2 Musical Intelligence**

Musical intelligence centers on rhythm, melody, tone quality; provides opportunities to listen to musical recordings, to create and play musical instruments, to sing, to compose musical pieces, to dance to music (Lazear, 1999).

Classroom activities related to musical intelligence may include (a) thinking of songs that could go with each picture, (b) using different kinds of music for different kinds of writing, (c) learning and practicing phonetic punctuation through music or songs, (d) learning grammar and syntax through creative songs or raps, (e) illustrating a story or a poem with appropriate sounds, (f) composing simple songs, rhymes, or chants with lyrics that include target vocabulary and synonyms, (g) identifying synonyms for target words in the lyrics of popular songs.

### **2.8.3 Visual-Spatial Intelligence**

Visual-spatial intelligence concentrates on images, pictures, color; prompts visualization of problems; provides opportunities for drawing, painting; utilizes films, slides, filmstrips, videos, diagrams, charts, maps, videocassette recorders; employs games that require visual memory or spatial acuity (Lazear, 1999).

Classroom activities related to visual-spatial intelligence may include (a) playing pictionary with vocabulary words, (b) using mind mapping as a notetaking process, (c) drawing pictures of the different stages of a story you are reading, (d) learning to read, write, and decipher code, (e) utilizing highlight markers to colorize parts of a story or poem, (f) designing and producing alphabet cards, dictating synonyms and spelling out the target words.

### **2.8.4 Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence**

Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence centers on touching, manipulating objects, and bodily movement. This intelligence provides students with opportunities for role play, dramatization, pantomime, and other types of physical activities. Prompt students to engage in assembly activities, machine repair, model building, and hands-on art activities, such as clay modeling and painting (Lazear, 1999).

Classroom activities related to bodily-kinesthetic intelligence may include (a) playing a movie title or a song title charades, (b) playing the parts of a sentence charades, (c) acting out the meaning of vocabulary words, (d) acting out a story or play that students are studying, (e) learning the alphabet by body movements and physical gestures, (f) making up a parts of speech folk dance, (g) choosing several target words, preparing index cards for each word and three synonyms, scrambling the cards and arranging them, pulling out cards until finding synonyms, writing sentences using the two found synonyms and reading sentences to the class.

### **2.8.5 Interpersonal Intelligence**

Interpersonal intelligence encourages students to participate in collaboration, dynamic interaction. This intelligence provides students with opportunities for group discussion, group problem solving, joint projects, collective products, peer teaching, and employs cooperative games (Lazear, 1999).

Classroom activities related to interpersonal intelligence may include (a) experimenting with joint story writing one starts then passes it on, (b) analyzing a story and describing its message reach a consensus, (c) using a human graph to see where a group stands on an issue, (d) reading poetry from different perspectives and in different moods, (e) conducting language drill exercises with a partner, (f) working in pairs or groups to find synonyms for target words in a thesaurus, and reading sentences which use synonyms for target words.

### **2.8.6 Intrapersonal Intelligence**

Intrapersonal intelligence provides students with long-term, meaningful learning projects and prompts students to monitor their skills and progress and make sense out of their learning experiences. This intelligence allows students to explore their interests and

abilities; encourage students to reflect upon their work and evaluate themselves as learners (Lazear, 1999).

Classroom activities related to intrapersonal intelligence may include (a) sharing thoughts with partners, (b) writing an autobiographical essay, (c) analyzing literature for connections to our lives today, (d) writing a new poem each day for a week answering the question ‘Who am I?’, (e) imagining being a character in a story or play What would you do?

Classroom activities integrated with MI theory in language acquisition are to develop students’ diverse intelligences and potential. To evaluate the effectiveness of classroom activities, teachers need to get feedback from the learners and journal writing is one of the tools.

## **2.9 Studies on Journal Writing**

Journals have become a popular instrument in the second-language classroom (Orem, 2001). The last two decades have seen extensive growth in the theory and practice of writing journals to promote student learning (Fulwiler, 1987; Lukinsky, 1990; de Acosta, 1995). For learners of second language acquisition, journal writing can be a powerful instrument in the participatory classroom. Moreover, journals can provide learners with the opportunities to reflect on practice and its implications for personal empowerment (Orem, 2001). Below are ESL/EFL studies adapting journals as an instrument for feedback from the students.

### **2.9.1 Studies with Learners in the United States**

Hipple (1985) investigated journal writing used by twenty-three kindergartners to enhance development in writing skills. Hipple found that students grew linguistically gaining increasing mastery not only over writing but also over speaking, reading, and

listening skills.

de Acosta (1995) also uses journals as an instrument in his study. The subjects of his study are college students in English service-learning course. de Acosta concluded her study as the followings: (a) for most students journals integrate observations, thoughts, and feelings; (b) journal writing is a way for students to see and think about their school work; (c) writing and thinking and learning are one process; (d) in small group mentors have an opportunity to diagnose students' academic difficulties and find a way of problem solving in the learning process.

Kingen's (1995) study uses journals to study the effectiveness of reading. Kingen divided the subjects (the eighth graders) into small groups for discussion in literature class. The findings were (a) journal writing is an excellent instrument for reviewing sentence structure, spelling, and usage; (b) journals keep the instructor informed of the progress of each group and each individual; (c) journals provide students with an opportunity not only to check their understanding and review the discussion, but also to continue the exchange of ideas that students hesitated to state publically; (d) students profit from the requirement to produce questions and personal responses through journals; (e) successful journals satisfy student needs.

Orem (2001) conducted a study on uses of journal writing for inservice and preservice education of teachers of English as a Second Language (ESL) and for teaching adult ESL learners. The results of this study included (a) journals help ESL teachers overcome isolation experienced in practice; (b) journal writing can be an effective tool for continuing staff development; (c) journals assist students to acquire structural (grammar and syntax), communicative (oral and written interaction), and critical (power relationship with lives, work, and social contexts) competence; (d) journal writing is gaining popularity as a vehicle in the adult ESL classroom.

### 2.9.2 Studies with Learners in Taiwan

Journals are also used in Taiwan EFL classes. Below are some examples.

Employing fifteen freshmen of English department in English conversation class in Taiwan as the subjects, Yeh (1994) found that (a) through journal writing students dare to pose the problems of unsatisfactory curriculum in English conversation class; (b) a lot of students are capable of finding self-deficiency and presented solutions to it.

To enhance students' writing ability, Chen (1996) uses a class of second year junior high school students as subjects to administer dialogue journal writing as a communication tool in English class. The result revealed that students' reading and writing abilities are obviously improved through teacher and student respective interaction.

Ho (2003) investigated the application of dialogue journals in an EFL classroom. The subjects of her study are thirty-nine seventh-grade students in Kaohsiung Municipal Kuo-chang Junior High School. The findings of the study were (a) the subjects employ dialogue journals to record their school life, to release emotions, to express their concerns, to show expectations, to promote self-respect, and to build relationship and communication with the teacher; (b) most of the subjects take positive attitudes toward the application of dialogue journals; (c) most of the subjects respond positively to the effects of dialogue journals on English learning; (d) most of the subjects offer positive suggestions about the application of dialogue journals.

Concluded from the above studies, journal writing was successfully employed in language learning. Journals provide students with the vehicle for reflection and self-evaluation that leads to more effective practice and much progress in the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Actually, journal writing provides students with an excellent instrument to express learning experiences because students are encouraged to engage in problem posing in developing language skills. Besides, through

journals teachers get to know their students better and offer immediate assistance in the learning process. Therefore, journal writing can be an effective tool for both teachers and students.

## **2.10 Conclusion**

Krashen's Input Hypothesis claims that comprehensible input is the crucial factor for second-language acquisition. As far as classroom atmosphere is concerned, Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis emphasizes that when the affective filter is low, the learner is both involved in the process of second language acquisition and confident of success in language learning. In addition, Gardner's MI theory states that human cognitive competence actually is pluralistic instead of unitary in design.

In the present study, the researcher incorporated the ideas of comprehensible input, affective filter, and multiple intelligences theory into the classroom activities. Besides, after listening classes, journals provide low achievers with the vehicle for reflection and self-evaluation that help the teacher get to know low achievers better and offer prompt assistance in the second-language listening acquisition.