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Social cognition-based content instruction for communicative competence in Japanese middle school English

Wakana Kitamura

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SOCIAL COGNITION-BASED CONTENT INSTRUCTION FOR COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN JAPANESE MIDDLE SCHOOL ENGLISH

A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts in Education:
Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

by
Wakana Kitamura
December 2001
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ABSTRACT

The recent trend of communication-based approaches for middle school English students in Japan has problems in terms of encouraging students’ motivation to study and their overall language development. This project focuses on Content-Based Instruction (CBI), the approach that integrates content and language teaching. A literature review of CBI, content-based curriculum, social cognition, communicative competence, and grammatical error correction leads to a theoretical framework. A sample unit is included that demonstrates the use of literature as content for English language learning.
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CHAPTER ONE
OVERVIEW

English Education in Japan

Teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) has been increasing in importance as a part of Japanese education. It is one of the main (but not required) subjects studied in middle and secondary schools in Japan. Students in colleges and universities also study English as either one of the general education courses or their major field of study. Recently, some kindergarten and elementary schools have offered English classes because of increasing nationwide interest in English. Japanese study English not only to deepen their knowledge but also to become more international.

Kitao and Kitao (1997) noted that traditional English education in Japan emphasized reading, particularly using the grammar-translation method. There was less emphasis on speaking and listening, and the students had less opportunity to use English in class. To make English classes more comprehensible and real to students, the Ministry of Education provided native English speakers called Assistant English Teachers (AETs) and assistant teachers of other languages called Assistant Language
Teachers (ALTs) to work with Japanese teachers of English in late 1980s. The result has been more active and authentic English classes. In 1992, a new English class called “Oral Communication” was started in secondary schools to develop students’ listening, speaking, and discussion abilities. Currently, students study English for practical communicative purpose. Japanese English education has been changing from grammar-focused to communication-focused teaching.

The Ministry of Education, currently known as the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, has been working on educational reform for improving schools and transforming Japanese education. Reform that will take effect in 2002 will bring some changes in English education. First, English education will start from the third grade as a part of Period for Integrated Study, which has been established in order for individual elementary and middle schools to conduct comprehensive teaching activities (Curriculum Council, 1998). Second, English will be a required subject in middle and secondary schools. The third change in English education is the change of goals in English teaching. According to the current Middle School Courses of Study, the teachers’ guideline for middle schools, the goals of
English education are to understand a foreign language, to have a basic ability to express in it, to have a ability to communicate in it, to have interest in the language and its culture, and to have an international view (Ministry of Education, 1989). The new goals will be to understand the language and its culture, to have an ability to communicate, and to have a basic ability for practical communication. The main focus in teaching English will be to develop the ability to communicate in English (Ministry of Education, 1998). English education will be richer and more practical for Japanese students than ever before.

Target Level

Middle school English instruction in Japan is the target level of this project. According to the Middle School Courses of Study (1998), the annual number of English classes is 105, which means that schools offer English classes three times per a week. All of the courses in middle schools have forty-five-minute classes. Currently, class size is about thirty to thirty-five, but it will be smaller in the future as a part of the educational reform.

The students in this age group are low-intermediate English learners. In most case, English is their first
foreign language. They enjoy being middle-school students as much as they can and absorbing information that is new and interesting to them. Some of them are willing to learn English, and others are anxious about learning the new language.

Context of the Problem

English education in Japan has been changing its focus from the grammar-translation approach to the communicative approach. This shift of teaching approach suggests that Japanese students are currently expected to be able to understand English and use it for both intrapersonal and interpersonal purposes. In the middle school level where English has just been introduced to students, it is not easy for teachers to fulfill these purposes because they face several problems. First, it is difficult to apply a fully communication-based approach to middle school students because they learn grammatical knowledge of English and communication abilities gradually. They need to be immersed more deeply in English learning than superficial communicative learning permits. Secondly, because they are not in an English-speaking country, the purpose of learning English may be neither authentic nor urgent to students at that age. Enhancing
students’ motivation for meaningful English study is a concern for English teachers in Japan. Third, teachers tend to design curricula focusing on one or two skills out of the four language skills, which are reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Because of the recent trend of teaching speaking and listening, reading and writing might be less emphasized. If teachers do not teach the four skills from the beginning level, the students do not establish equal bases of those skills in English, and this may give them difficulty in English in the future. English teachers in middle schools need an approach that is meaningful and motivating for students, and makes the form/function of English understandable. The problems of English education in Japanese middle schools have not been taken seriously, yet they will influence the students’ further study of English.

Purpose of the Project

This project explores some theories to address these problems and demonstrates how English teachers in Japan can conduct purposeful and meaningful lessons for middle school low-intermediate students. The teaching approach used for this project is based on Content-Based Instruction (CBI). It helps students to understand the
English language system and lets them use it an authentic way in classroom settings. CBI will be debated in Chapter Two.

Content of the Project

This project consists of five chapters. Chapter One has described background information of English education in Japan and the purpose of the project. A review of literature relevant for the study is presented in Chapter Two. Chapter Three discusses how the literature review is important to teach English to middle school students and proposes a theoretical framework. Chapter Four describes a teaching unit of seven lessons, whose concepts are based on the proposed framework in the previous chapter. Finally, Chapter Five shows how the lessons should be assessed and concludes this project.

Significance of the Project

This study synthesizes theoretical concepts and suggests curricula for effective English teaching to students in Japan. It will address the problems of current English education in Japan and offer teachers creative ideas for teaching English to their students who are at a low-intermediate level of English. The project may also be applicable to middle school English teachers in other
foreign countries where English is learned as foreign/second language.
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) takes account not only second language acquisition (SLA) but also sociology, psychology, linguistics, and education. ESL/EFL teachers encounter learners' different styles and attitudes regarding language learning as well as their various stages of mental and physical development. From this interdisciplinary and integrated perspective, this literature review will focus on the following issues: social cognition, communicative competence, content-based instruction (CBI), content-based curriculum, and grammatical error correction. The first key word to be reviewed is social cognition, which is the study of the social dynamics that shape one's thinking. Communicative competence is the second key word, referring to the ability to use languages. Content-Based Instruction (CBI) is the third key issue of this chapter that supports the integrated language and content teaching approach. Content makes language learning comprehensible, meaningful, and purposeful to ESL/EFL learners. Using the CBI framework, major factors of the content-based curriculum are then
discussed. Finally, research is reviewed pertaining to grammatical error correction.

Social Cognition

Over the past few decades, many researchers have discussed human potential from various theoretical perspectives. Social cognition is one of the perspectives. It is generally defined as “how people think about people” (Wegner & Vallacher, 1977, p. viii). It is one’s knowledge of others, an inner competence that helps one to interact with people. Most researchers believe that social cognition and development of children’s/humans’ thinking are closely related. They have agreed that people develop their thoughts by interacting socially, communicating, or exchanging information with each other. Thus, social cognition is derived from cognitive-psychological theory concerning the interrelation of knowledge, thoughts, and behaviors. It is necessary to explain what cognition is before moving to a more specific definition of social cognition and its development, and the relations among social cognition, behavior, and environment.

Cognition Versus Social Cognition

How does cognition differ from social cognition? Cognition is concerned with both perception and process.
According to Rosenthal and Zimmerman (1978), cognition refers to the way "people perceive and interpret events" (p. 2). The objects of perception are "things," and people interpret things and external stimuli by utilizing schemata, or mental categories. The term is also used to describe "covert processing of information" (p. 3). These quotes imply that cognition is related to the storage and retrieval of information. It concerns the processing mechanism in the human mind. Therefore, one approach to cognition defines it as information processing, perceiving information from the outside world and interpreting it using one's own knowledge.

Social cognition is a combination of social interaction and cognition. Wegner and Valacher (1977) believed that not only is cognition natural to the human mind, but also it is developed through social interaction. It is "based less on logic and more on probability, shared cultural belief systems" (Hoffman, 1983, p. 42). Forgas (1981) mentioned another aspect of social cognition: social cognition addresses itself as "to explaining social action" (p. 5). It is cognition constructed within a social setting; therefore, social cognition facilitates people's behaviors. Additional explanation of the
relationship between social cognition and behavior is covered later.

Thus, cognition means the process by which people perceive things and events based upon their prior knowledge, and it involves a one-way perception of information from outside stimuli. In contrast, social cognition means the way that people think about people through social interaction, and it is constructed by interaction between and among people.

Characteristics of Social Cognition

Roloff and Berger (1982) proposed four dimensions of social cognition integrated from several research domains. First, social cognition involves thought processes. It entails mental activity that is unobservable to others. As discussed by many researchers, it involves an internal mechanism of information processing based on one’s own knowledge.

The second characteristic is that social cognition is thought focused on human interaction (Roloff & Berger, 1982). The individual and the social gathering are mutually and complementary “objects of knowledge” (Butterworth, 1982, p. 4). Individual representation alters itself due to various occasions, and one’s thoughts about other people are constantly changed within the mind.
Third, social cognition is thought organized in some fashion, focused on human interaction (Roloff & Berger, 1982). One's social cognition is affected and developed by interactions. Roloff and Berger explained that three elements, which are self, others, and situation, construct social reality when people interact. Although this is similar to the second dimension, the difference is that individual social cognition is organized differently in different situations.

The last characteristic of social cognition is that people have accurate social cognition varying in the degree to which they are veridical representations of self, others, and behaviors (Roloff & Berger, 1982). Cegala (1978) suggested that people vary in the extent to which they are involved with self and others in an interaction. People respond differently when interacting with others.

Many researchers consider that social cognition is fundamental to the nature of the human mind, and is affected and developed through social interaction (Carpenter, Nagell, & Tomasello, 1998; Wegner & Valacher, 1977). Because people are such a large part of the outside world, a preponderant part of daily cognition is social in nature.
Social Cognition and Human Development

Barker and Newson (1979) defined social cognition more specifically as, “how children of different ages construct a relation between themselves and the social objects of knowledge” (Butterworth, 1982, p. 4). Butterworth (1982) stated that the study of social cognition is based on the integration of the social content of children’s minds and a variety of theories about the acquisition of objective knowledge itself. Although social settings vary, children in all cultures pass through the same age-related phases of social-cognitive development. Following is a discussion of the development of social cognition and social behavior divided into stages of infancy, childhood, adolescence, and adulthood.

Social Cognition in Infancy. Most researchers consider that social cognition starts developing from infancy. Carpenter, Nagell, and Tomasello (1998) stated, “human infants are social creatures from birth” (p. 2). They propose that the behavior of infants around twelve months of age is based on the infants having a concept of an intentional agent. The intentional agent is “an entity that has an objective identity and subjective experience” (Moore, 1998, p. 168). One has his/her independent status
that no one can substitute for him/her, even from infancy. One’s experience is always unique and personal.

Bruner and Sherwood (1981) reported an infant is able to imitate facial and manual gestures, respond with distress, and show sensitivity to the mother. Infants pay attention to outside stimuli, especially from their mothers, and give feedback to them. The process is like playing catch ball, and the action occurs one by one. Moore (1998) described this phenomenon as “action is in response to immediate experiences” (p. 171). Action plays a big role in social cognition in infancy because infants are too young to interact with people using language. In other words, the infant is limited to dealing with information that is provided perceptually. Social cognition in infancy is the beginning of mental development which corresponds to one’s physical responses.

**Social Cognition in Childhood.** In childhood, the cognitive capacity of human beings becomes bigger than in infancy, and a child is able to deal with more than one thing or stimulus at the same time. Moore (1998) explained that action is no longer governed by the immediate experience, and the child can bring a different status to bear on the determination of action. Children experience more interactive variations in many situations. This means
that children are able to choose actions from their own perspectives in interactive settings.

Higgins and Parsons (1983) raised the issue of some noticeable changes in social interaction during childhood. They say children play various roles such as student, family member, and peer. In addition to the individual status at home (as children), children experience many instances of collective status and learn consensus-based moral codes. They experience age segregation (children are grouped by their ages), collective status in schools (as students and peers), and a variety of social settings [such as interaction with teachers or lower grade students] (Higgins & Parsons, 1983). This interaction provides a context in which social/cognitive skills can develop. According to Hartup, Brady, and Newcomb (1983), children’s social understanding has become relatively sophisticated by the age of ten to twelve years. The notion of social interaction in childhood becomes broader than that of infancy.

Social Cognition in Adolescence. The position of adolescents is often described as intermediate, which means between children and adults. They increase socialization more than children, but less than adults. Higgins and Parsons (1983) described adolescents as in the
process of "identity formation" (p. 28). Unlike children, they understand age hierarchy and have opportunities to meet people who are different from them. The school size is usually bigger than elementary/middle schools, and adolescents have more opportunities to interact with students who vary in gender, ages, ethnicity, and race (Higgins & Parsons, 1983). The more social interactions they have, the more meanings or previous experiences are attached to the actions. They have more interaction with adults because they have different teachers for various subjects in school. Higgins and Parsons described that they have "more formal activities that have various positions and statuses in the different groups to which they belong" (p. 27). Examples of the formal activities involve clubs, student associations, and voluntary works. Adolescents explore individual status as well as their homogeneous status in different social situations. Adolescents do not socialize as much as adults do, but they are in the process of forming their own social cognition.

Social Cognition in Adulthood. As adolescents grow, their social cognition stabilizes. Adult social cognition cannot be reduced to purely information-processing models because human knowledge and ideas about the social world
are intrinsically normative, motivated, and social (Forgas, 1981). Higgins and Parsons (1983) stated that adults, concerned with other's views, tend to polish their social cognition by interacting with others. With their prior experiences and individual perspectives, they accommodate themselves to wider, and more diverse set of groups, such as society. Social cognition is developed dramatically until adolescence and then is stabilized in adulthood. As they mature, human beings express and give feedback using their actions in response to outside information. The relations among social cognition, behavior, and environment are discussed in the next section.

Social Cognition, Behavior, and Environment

Earlier in this section, social cognition has described as an inner ability that is affected and developed by surroundings (including environment, settings, and people). Some scholars have demonstrated how the relation among social cognition, social behavior, and social situation works. Ruble, Higgins, and Hartup (1983) proposed a model that shows the relation among surroundings (situation), one's social cognition, and one's behavior (action). They proposed that the social situation influences one's social cognition, and cognition
influences social behavior. This can be represented in a linear sequence:
Social Situation→ Social Cognition → Social Behavior
(Ruble, Higgins, & Hartup, 1983, p. 3).

In contrast, Rosenthal and Zimmerman (1978) described the relationship among person, environment, and behavior changes in a different way. Unlike Ruble, Higgins, and Hartup, they propose that three elements (person, environment, and behavior) are in "reciprocal" relationship. They present the model as follows (Figure 1):

Figure 1. A Schematic Representation of a Social Learning Reciprocal Conception of Interaction

(Rosenthal & Zimmerman, 1978, p. 28)
The diagram above shows that a person (self) and the person's behavior are mutual, and both are influenced by the environment. Cognition and action are reciprocal in a social situation. Thus, several researchers agree that social cognition is closely related to one's behavior as well as the environment, even though the ways they are related are represented differently. These elements not only affect each other, but also develop gradually as a child grows.

Thus, social cognition is the thinking process in one's mind that deals with how one thinks about people in social interaction. Researchers have supported the idea that it develops from infancy in response to many different social situations. Childhood and adolescence are important phases in the development of one's social cognition that will be a basis for social interaction in one's future. As people grow, their social cognition is stabilized. Their previous experiences, current knowledge, and own beliefs become the core of their social cognition, which in turn influences their behavior. One's surrounding is also an important key to the development of social cognition. Without a social setting, people can neither socialize nor interact with other people. One's social
cognition is used and developed unconsciously whenever one interacts with people.

Communicative Competence

The second topic reviewed in this project is the development of communicative competence in second languages (L2). It has become popular to discuss the theories of communicative competence from different perspectives such as linguistic, sociolinguistic, or cultural points of view. The impact of the discussion has influenced ESL/EFL teaching as well as learners’ acquisition of the languages. The following review looks at explanations of the term “competence,” theories of communicative competence, and the characteristics of communicative competence. The relationship between competence and language performance, and four components of communicative competence are mentioned later in this section.

Competence and Communicative Competence

Chomsky (1965) first introduced the term competence to refer to the speaker-hearer’s knowledge of one’s language. According to his view, this knowledge contains grammatical features shared by an ideal speaker-listener, who knows a language perfectly. Chomsky’s definition of
competence was restricted to the linguistic field and ignored elements required to communicate with people. Later, Campbell and Wales (1970) and Hymes (1972) challenged and broadened Chomsky's definition of competence. Hymes (1972) stated that competence is dependent upon tacit knowledge of the language and ability for use. According to Hymes' view, speakers have systematic knowledge about how to use their grammar to produce communication appropriate for a particular situation (Foster, 1990). Hymes added a sociocultural perspective to Chomsky's competence. The notion of competence was broadened from ideal grammatical knowledge to actual social use.

Hymes (1972) invented the term communicative competence to describe the ability to use language in social settings. He integrated theories of linguistics, culture, and communication. His theory of communicative competence contains four systems of rules: 1) whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible; 2) whether (and to what degree) something is feasible; 3) whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate; 4) whether (and to what degree) something is done (Hymes, 1972). Hymes' communicative competence focuses the use of the
language, or the speaker's ability to use language in ways that are appropriate to the situation (Simon, 1979).

Canale and Swain (1979) developed Hymes' theory of communicative competence from the view of interrelation between language and social contexts. They defined communicative competence as underlying systems of knowledge and skill required for communication (Canale & Swain, 1980a). Canale and Swain (1980a) argued that the appropriateness of a given utterance in a particular social context (i.e. sociocultural competence, later known as sociolinguistic competence) is crucial in a theory of communicative competence. Similarly, Savignon (1983) followed Hymes' view of communicative competence focusing on actual communication. She described communicative competence as "the ability to function in a truly communicative setting" (p. 22). The current concept of communicative competence is the aspect of competence that "enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts" (Brown, 1994a, p. 227). This includes Chomsky's idea of competence, later known as grammatical competence (or linguistic competence). The concept of communicative competence has shifted emphasis from the purely linguistic to a sociolinguistic perspective.
Savignon (1983, 1997) stated that there are four characteristics of communicative competence. First, communicative competence is a dynamic rather than a static concept (Savignon, 1983, 1997). This means that communicative competence is related to one’s action rather than one’s being. Communication includes at least two people interacting with each other, so the ability to communicate is interpersonal, instead of intrapersonal. Secondary, communicative competence applies to both written and spoken language (Savignon, 1983, 1997). It is related to production performance, because people interpret senders’ information and then give their feedback in the communicative process. Third, communicative competence is context specific (Savignon, 1983, 1997; Brown, 1994a). Interlocutors change the way they talk depending on situations and their listeners. One premise for effective interaction is that both speakers and listeners have similar understanding (or knowledge) of the context. The last characteristic of communicative competence made by Savignon (1983, 1997) is that communicative competence depends on the cooperation of all participants involved. In the process of communication, it is obvious that both senders and receivers cooperate while interacting with each other. This process requires
comprehension and production of messages by both participants.

Communicative Competence and Performance

The debate of competence versus communicative competence has also influenced the concept of language performance. Chomsky (1965) characterized the distinction between competence and performance as underlying knowledge and actual use of language. In the sociolinguistic view, even though there is a distinction between the two, they are included in the theory of communicative competence. According to Savignon (1983), competence is a presumed underlying ability whereas performance is the overt manifestation of that ability. Brown (1994a) described competence as one's underlying knowledge of the system of a language and performance as actual production (speaking, writing) or the comprehension (listening, reading) of events. In spite of the distinction, competence and performance are integrated into the socio-linguistic perspective of communicative competence because performance is "the realization of competencies and their interaction in the actual production and comprehension of utterances" (Canale & Swain, 1979, p. 16). Researchers have integrated theories of competence and performance to define their notion of communicative competence. Language
performance is considered as a part of communicative competence and is closely related to the sociolinguistic view of competence.

**Styles and Registers**

Concerning the relation of language performance to communicative competence, some researchers have explained two terms: styles and registers.

A variety of language used for a specific purpose is called a style (Brown, 1994a). People use different styles or ways to communicate depending on the contexts and situations. Chaika (1989) reported that a style is the selection of linguistic forms to convey social or artistic effects. Consider the following exchange between two native English speakers who are good friends:

- **Trish:** Would it be possible for you to wait for me after class?
- **Ann:** Yes, of course it's possible. Why are you talking so proper? (Chaika, 1989, p. 47)

Ann thinks Trish speaks too formally for their conversation. It makes Ann feel uncomfortable because the style Trish uses does not show their intimacy. Thus, people distinguish the ways they send messages in formal or conversational styles.
Brown (1994a) stated that styles are manifested by verbal and nonverbal communication. Verbal aspects of style include phonology, the lexicon, semantics, morphology, and syntax. Styles use all the sources of language: tone of voice, intonation, and pronunciation (Chaika, 1989). Nonverbal communication, according to Jandt (1998), refers to a language system in which “a message is sent without using words” (p. 97). The nonverbal aspect of styles influences the way people interact, just like a language. Nonverbal communication includes body language, eye contact, distance, touching, and so forth. Both verbal and nonverbal styles represent formality of languages in communication.

Styles used only in certain locales and occasions are called registers (Chaika, 1989). Registers are appropriate uses of words on specific occasions to succeed in conversation. Registers involve certain vocabulary, idioms, and other expressions (Brown, 1994a) used by different occupational or socioeconomic groups. Long (1975) showed that some occasions require particular speech acts. Consider the following example (asterisk before the sentence indicates speech act is inappropriate in the context):
General: Good luck, Pilkington. Remember, the honour of the Regiment depends on this mission.

Private Pilkington: *'Bye, sir. Have a nice day!

(Long, 1975, p. 212)

The exchange above shows each sentence is grammatically correct, but it sounds awkward. What Pilkington has said is not appropriate to the context. His response is semantically unacceptable. Matching such rules of register leads to successful communication.

Chaika (1989) also stated that the use of registers includes shifting into a second dialect for bidialectal speakers, or even to another language for bilingual speakers. Speakers tend to change registers depending on situations and relations with listeners. They are language variations to distinguish vocabulary, idioms, and other expression in particular social interaction. Styles and registers have important roles in language performance that match specific contexts rather than abstract situations.

Four Components of Communicative Competence

Several researchers have mentioned four components that comprise communicative competence. These are strategic competence, sociolinguistic competence, grammatical competence, and discourse competence.
Strategic competence, according to Canale (1983), is composed of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies caused by two main reasons: 1) to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to limiting conditions in actual communication or to insufficient competence in one or more of the other areas of communicative competence, and 2) to enhance the effectiveness of communication. Canale pointed out that actual communication requires learners to handle grammatical, sociolinguistic, and discourse nature. The strategies used to keep communication include paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, hesitation, avoidance, guessing, gestures as well as shifts in styles and registers (Savignon, 1983). It is the ability “to make repairs, to cope with imperfect knowledge, and to sustain communication” in order to meet communicative goals (Brown, 1994a, p. 228). Canale and Swain (1979) stated that knowledge of how to use such strategies might be useful at the beginning stage of second language learning.

Sociolinguistic competence refers to appropriateness of meaning and appropriateness of form in different sociolinguistic contexts (Canale, 1983; Shaw, 1992; Swain, 1984). According to Canale (1983), appropriateness of meaning involves judgment of communicative functions,
attitudes, and propositions/ideas in a given situation. On the other hand, appropriateness of form concerns whether a given meaning is represented in both verbal and nonverbal forms in a given context (Canale, 1983). A sender of a message must know not only what to say in a situation but also how to say it appropriately in a particular social context. Sociolinguistic competence takes into account the role of the participants, the information they share, the setting, and the interaction itself (Canale & Swain, 1979; Savignon, 1983). The rules overlap styles and registers mentioned previously. Because of these rich characteristics, sociolinguistic competence is used in most teaching applications in ESL/EFL classrooms (Adamson, 1993). Sociolinguistic competence concerns appropriateness of both socio-cultural and linguistic rules.

Grammatical competence, Chomsky's notion of competence, includes knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology (Canale & Swain, 1979, 1980b; Shaw, 1992). In grammatical competence, the focus is on each word and its linguistic characteristics as shown in the examples below (asterisk before a sentence indicates incorrect form).

(A) *the was cheese green (Canale & Swain, 1980b)
(B) the cheese was green
At the grammatical level, (A) does not make sense, but (B) is appropriate and acceptable. Grammatical competence governs linguistic rules of language when people communicate. The knowledge of "sentence-level grammar" (Brown, 1994a, p. 228) plays an important role and enhances one's accuracy of literal utterances.

Similar to the sociolinguistic and grammatical competences, discourse competence also relates to the linguistic aspect of languages, but it focuses more on "intersentential relationships" (Brown, 1994a, p. 228). Savignon (1983, 1997) described that discourse competence is how one sentence and another connect to become a meaningful unit as a whole. Cohesion and coherence are often mentioned concerning both spoken and written texts. Cohesion is a relational concept concerned with how propositions are linked structurally in a text and how the literal meaning of a text is interpreted (Canale & Swain, 1988; Widdowson, 1978). Coherence is concerned with logical and consistent contents among the communicative values or contextual meanings (Canale & Swain, 1988). One of the most famous examples of coherence is the bathtub episode given by Widdowson (1978).

A: That's the telephone.
B: I'm in the bathtub.

This exchange illustrates how conversation works with coherence but without cohesion. (A) first asks (B) to pick up the phone, and (B) remarks his/her situation that is the reason for not to be able to pick up the phone, and (A) accepts (B)'s excuse. The conversation is acceptable in the situation because both (A) and (B) share the same knowledge of the telephone and the bathtub. Discourse competence is the ability to interpret sentences or utterances to form a meaningful whole.

In proposing such components of communicative competence, Swain (1984) cast the assumption as follows:

The assumption is that learners may develop competence in any of these areas relatively independently, that learners and native speakers will differ in their relative mastery of these skills...

(p. 188)

This means that each component is closely related to others, and the increasing components contribute to the development of communicative competence as a whole. Savignon (1983, 1997) also mentioned that increasing one component influences the other components and they produce a corresponding increase in overall communicative competence. She proposed a possible priority of
acquisition of each component. According to her view, a measure of sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence allows a measure of communicative competence even before the acquisition of any grammatical competence (Savignon, 1983). Without linguistic knowledge, people still try to communicate using actions such as gestures, facial expressions, and ungrammatical utterances (expressing things, feelings, or actions in sound e.g. onomatopoeia). Likewise, they try to adjust their behavior in particular social contexts without grammatical competence. These two competences take on important roles for second/foreign language acquisition and second/foreign language pedagogy. The relationships among those four components interact to comprise communicative competence as a whole.

In sum, the notion of competence has changed dramatically in the last three decades. Communicative competence is currently known as one’s ability to use language in specific contexts. The sociolinguistic view of competence is directly related to performance, including styles and registers. Four components described in the last section show how communicative competence proposed by Hymes and other scholars has developed both social and linguistic aspects. Especially, sociolinguistic and
strategic competences work mainly when people do actual face-to-face communication. They are key concepts in ESL/EFL pedagogy. Communicative competence has put focus on the sociolinguistic aspect of language use.

Content-Based Instruction

It has been argued for a long time whether languages should be taught from language form or function. Because languages have both form and function, it is difficult to determine which one a teacher should focus on in particular. Although researchers have posited the relation of the two differently, both form and function are important and should be learned. Content-Based Instruction (CBI) incorporates language learning into content areas, and it can be one of the solutions to the form-function argument. In this section, features of CBI, its supporting theories from second language acquisition (SLA), and research findings of CBI are explained.

Mohan (1986) was one of the first scholars who integrated language and content learning. He stated:

Helping students use language to learn requires us to look beyond the language domain to all subject areas and to look beyond language learning to education in general. Outside the isolated language classroom
students learn language and content at the same time. Therefore we need a broad perspective which integrates language and content learning. (Mohan, 1986, p. 18)

The integration of content and language has led researchers to develop content-based instruction (also known as content-ESL or content-based approach) for second language contexts. Based on this idea, Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989) defined CBI as "the integration of content learning with language teaching aims" (vii). CBI helps learners to study a language through academic content areas wherein students acquire both language and subject matter knowledge (Dupuy, 2000; Musumeci, 1993). Brown (1994b) described CBI as integration of the learning of some specific subject matter with the learning of a second language. CBI is often associated with ESL academic courses for postsecondary education, but more recently, CBI has extended its setting into K-12 classrooms, foreign language classrooms, and immersion programs (Grabe & Stoller, 1997; Snow, 1998). It has become a widespread approach adapted into many different language settings. The input hypothesis and the output hypothesis are introduced in the next sections to support CBI from theoretical perspectives.
The Input Hypothesis

Krashen (1982, 1985) proposed that a second language is acquired by understanding messages or by receiving comprehensible input. He defined comprehensible input as that bit of language that is heard/read that is ahead of a learner's current grammatical knowledge. To conceptualize the idea, later known as "the input hypothesis," he used the formula "i+1," in which "i" stands for a learner's current state of language knowledge and "1" means the next stage (Krashen, 1982, 1985; Gass & Selinker, 1994, 2001). Krashen (1982, 1985) stated that learners move their level from i to i+1 by understanding the comprehensible input using their contextual clues. Possible examples of the comprehensible input in foreign language classrooms are teacher-talk, student-talk, audiotape recordings/radio, videotape recordings/television, and textbook materials (Krashen, Terrell, Ehrman, & Herzog, 1984). Learners receive comprehensible input and understand i+1 by utilize features of i, context, knowledge of the world, and extra-linguistic information (Krashen, 1982). The input hypothesis predicts learners will be able to learn specific grammatical features from the comprehensible input (Ellis, 1990). This suggests that the input
The Output Hypothesis

After her research on the Canadian immersion programs, Swain (1985) reported that comprehensible input may not be sufficient in SLA and proposed the comprehensible output hypothesis (Swain, 1985; Ellis, 1990). She described comprehensible output as the "output that extends the linguistic repertories of the learner as he or she attempts to create precisely and appropriately the meaning desired" (Swain, 1985, p. 252). The functions of comprehensible output are as follows: 1) to provide opportunities for contextualized, meaningful use; 2) to test our hypotheses about the target language; and 3) to move the learner from a purely semantic analysis of language to a syntactic analysis of it (Swain, 1985). Swain suggested that not only do L2 learners need the opportunity to produce language, but also they have to be pushed to use alternate means to get across the messages when acquiring their target languages. That is to say, learners need to arrange information to be grammatically understandable and contextually appropriate to their listeners/readers (or even for themselves) when they produce their target language output. Swain's output
hypothesis proposes development of accuracy and appropriateness in L2 from the view of productive language skills.

Content-based language instruction seems to draw elements from each of those two hypotheses. The input hypothesis supports the use of CBI because CBI requires extensive input containing language information, contexts, learners' previous/current language knowledge, and competence (Edwards, Wesche, Krashen, Clément, & Kruidenier, 1985; Burger, 1989; Grabe & Stoller, 1997). With their current knowledge and the comprehensible input including both linguistic and nonlinguistic features, learners internalize the rules of target languages. Similarly, Snow (1991), Grabe and Stoller (1997) pointed out that CBI fulfills Swain's idea of grammatical accuracy and contextual appropriateness. CBI learners can practice producing the language to test their hypotheses and comprehensibility of new systems. Two theories in SLA support use of CBI in terms of learners' input and output.

Types of Content-Based Instruction

The integrated content and language instruction has various types based on curriculum styles and focus of the instruction. Snow (1991) discussed three models of CBI for secondary and postsecondary second/foreign language
settings. The first model, the theme-based model, is a type of content-based instruction in which selected topics or themes provide the content for the ESL/EFL class (Snow, 1991). The sheltered model, the second model, refers to the teaching approach where second language learners are separated or "sheltered" from native-speaking students to learn both language and content (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989; Snow, 1991). The third type of CBI is the adjunct model in which students take two linked courses: a language class and a content class (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989; Snow, 1991). The relationship among three models is figured as following:

Figure 2. A Content-Based Continuum

Language Class  Theme-based Model  Sheltered Model  Adjunct Model  Mainstream Class

(Spanos, 1989) categorized language and content instruction into three types: content-based language instruction (content-based instruction), language-sensitive content instruction (language-sensitive instruction), and articulated second/foreign language and content instruction (articulated instruction). The content-based instruction is considered as language
teaching with topical content such as language for specific purposes (LSP), English for specific purposes (ESP), and theme-based language instruction.

Language-sensitive instruction, according to Spanos (1989), refers to language instruction conducted in content classroom. The language across the curriculum model and sheltered English instruction belong to the second category. The articulated model is designed for both content and second language curricula; for example, immersion instruction, the adjunct model, and the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) model. Spanos' distinction is based on the specification of content or language. It is important to note that there are numerous variations of CBI combined features of those types or adapted types of the instructional models for different instructional settings.

Classroom-Based Research on Content-Based Instruction

Many researchers have affirmed that CBI is useful for second language learning. Despite the recent extension of CBI language teaching from the university level to other grade levels, most of studies have been conducted at the university level. However, the following study infers potential adaptability of CBI to different settings.
Hauptman, Wesche, and Ready (1988) revealed that students improve their second language proficiency through CBI. The intermediate-level ESL and FSL (French as a second language) experimental students at University of Ottawa took the class Introduction to Psychology or Introduction à la psychologie. Second language comparison groups were selected from the same ESL program, and L1 Psychology comparison groups were selected from both psychology classes. The experimental and comparison groups took English proficiency tests to measure their language development. The results showed that the experimental groups got higher significant language gains than the comparison groups on all measures. For example, the listening mean of the FSL experimental groups from 1983 to 1984 was 4.09 while the mean of comparison group was 3.65 (Hauptman et al., 1988). The FSL experimental groups also got higher means in dictation and translation than the comparison group. The listening mean of ESL experimental subjects in posttest was 4.64 whereas the mean of the comparison subjects was 4.37 (Hauptman et al., 1988). The translation mean of the ESL experimental subjects was 40.08 while the comparison subjects got 37.93 (Hauptman et al., 1988). The ESL/FSL experimental students showed higher gains on second-language proficiency than the
ESL/FSL comparison groups. Their data show that content-based classes produce results at least as effective as those of regular second language classes, and sometimes even better.

Another study, one conducted by Day and Shapson (1991), also revealed an advantage for content-based experimental groups. The study focused on the use of the conditional through a scientific topic, an imaginary space colony, in seventh-grade French immersion classes. The experimental groups received the lessons, a specifically designed curriculum unit focusing on the conditional, over the period of five to seven weeks. Some major instructional features were a cooperative-learning approach, linguistic games before each lesson, and group-and self-evaluation (Day & Shapson, 1991). The materials were designed for use in all four language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking). The control groups received normal classroom instruction. The findings indicated that the experimental groups made more improvement than the control groups did. The experimental groups got ranging from 11 to 21 points higher than those of the control groups on oral and written tests from pretest to follow-up period (Day & Shapson, 1991). There were significant gains made by the experimental students.
in the accurate use of conditional and use of conditional in a written composition. The findings of this study suggest that integrating content and language teaching holds much promise for the improvement of language learning.

Hudson (1991) found that students given CBI improved their comprehension of the content in L2. He examined one ESP program, the Reading English for Science and Technology (REST) Project at Universidad de Guadalajara. Students in the REST program took CBI for two years while other students took non-CBI. The two groups took reading comprehension tests, consisting of grammar, reading comprehension, and cloze test, at the beginning and end of each year to measure their reading comprehension, knowledge of grammar, and reading ability. The results showed that the experimental group scored higher than the non-CBI group on each subtest of each test form. The comprehension mean of the experimental group in the first form was 72.14 while the mean of the comparison group was 61.83 (Hudson, 1991). The comprehension means of the experimental group in the second and third form were 85.16 and 80.32 whereas the means of the comparison group were 53.84 and 56.21 (Hudson, 1991). In addition to the higher means on comprehension tests, the experimental group got
higher means on grammar and multiple-choice cloze tests. Hudson concluded that a content-comprehension approach helped students to improve not only their ESL reading comprehension but also the grammar and general language reading ability.

The effects of content-based English instruction have been seen through its learners. Snow and Brinton (1988a) collected a program evaluation of Freshman Summer Program (FSP), which is the content-based program designed to meet the linguistic and academic needs of students who lack the skills required at University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA) (Snow & Brinton, 1988a, 1988b). They found that their program increased learners' confidence in L2 reading and writing. Likewise, Burger (1989) reported the students who took content-based Psychology class at University of Ottawa stated that the CBI class motivated them to use L2 and gave them confidence to use L2 in writing and speaking. CBI can lead students to have confidence in their target language and a feeling of satisfaction in their second language study.

Kasper (1997) examined the effect of CBI on ESL students' study performance and found that it enabled them to earn higher grades and to progress to higher levels of mainstream courses than other students. He divided ESL
students who were in the Intermediate ESL Reading and Writing class (ESL 09) at Kingsborough Community College (KCC) into two groups. Each group was given content-based or non-content-based instruction from Spring 1992 to Fall 1993 including final examinations, which assessed their L2 reading and writing. The average score of the experimental group on the ESL 09 final examination was 81%, whereas the score comparison group was 68% (Kasper, 1997). In ESL 91, which is supposed to take place after ESL 09, the experimental group obtained higher scores on the reading assessment examination than the control group, with average scores of 75% for the experimental group and 67% for the control group (Kasper, 1997). In addition, 60% of the experimental group passed their writing assessment examination, whereas only 40% of the control group students passed. After passing ESL 91, 67% of students from the experimental group progressed to English 22, the mainstream English composition course, whereas only 49% of students from the control group progressed (Kasper, 1997). Kasper concluded that the content-based program enabled students to be more successful in the academic mainstream. The CBI affected students' further study performance and enhanced students' self-esteem and confidence in their study in L2.
Based on these research findings, some strong rationales for CBI can be outlined. First, CBI allows students to learn the target language through rich and meaningful content. Long and Robinson (1998) suggested that learning target languages without intention or awareness is sufficient for successful second or foreign language acquisition. Second, CBI enhances subject matter knowledge (Musumeci, 1993; Dupuy, 2000). With comprehensible input in classrooms, students gain specific content of study in the target language. The third rationale is that CBI increases students' motivation to continue target language study. Because the combination of content and language learning allows students to learn grammatical use as well as functional usage, learning English becomes meaningful and purposeful to students. Fourth, CBI enhances self-confidence in their ability to use the target language (Snow & Brinton, 1988a; Burger, 1989; Dupuy, 2000). This is because sufficient exposure in the target language is given in classrooms. The last rationale is that CBI helps ensure the link between reality, students' own experiences, and their knowledge (Snow & Brinton, 1988a). Researchers have mentioned that a second language is most successfully acquired when the conditions reflect those present in first language
acquisition (Krashen, 1985; Savignon, 1983; Snow, 1993; Wesche, 1993; Dupuy, 2000). Students can make use of their previous learning experiences both in their native and target languages. It seems that CBI is the ideal strategy to provide an authentic and realistic environment for ESL/EFL learners.

Further research is needed to test the accuracy and fluency of language development in CBI. Even though CBI enhances proficiency of target languages, it is important to find out how CBI facilitates accuracy and fluency of L2. Another recommendation is that a number of studies in K-12 ESL/EFL settings are needed. Even though CBI is one of the popular teaching approaches which many teachers have used in classrooms, the number of studies in that level is even less than those at the university level. The last recommendation is that well-designed longitudinal studies of CBI are needed which focus on the quality of faculty and student-teacher relations in classrooms. In any ESL/EFL instruction, teacher’s skills and relations with the students play important roles in students’ language development. If these are proven to be positive, CBI will be one of the most acceptable methods for all levels of language learners.
Content-Based Curriculum

CBI is a unique teaching approach that integrates language and content. It can cover all aspects of language knowledge (e.g., vocabulary, grammar, sociolinguistics, and discourse) through content areas in classrooms (Swain, 1996). CBI also allows integration of the four language skills (speaking, writing, listening, and reading). Brown (1994b) stated, "the integration of the four skills is the only plausible approach to take within a communicative, interactive framework" (p. 219). To deal with these two kinds of integration, some researchers have provided frameworks that are considered meaningful for ESL/EFL students to accomplish communicative or academic language learning. In this section, major considerations of the CBI curriculum for effective language learning, which consists of content, goals, tasks, and assessment, are discussed.

Content

Content is a topic (Brumfit, 1984) or an academic subject such as literature, math, science, social studies, occupational skills, and study skills (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Richard-Amato, 1996). It is the use of subject matter for second language teaching aims (Snow, 1991). Chamot and O'Malley (1994) stated that content provides a foundation for learning information in important subjects.
They also mentioned that students can practice skills and processes needed in the content areas. This helps students to learn a language in a comprehensible and understandable way, and it makes students feel comfortable while they learn a target language. Snow, Met, and Genesee (1989) reported that content can provide a motivational incentive for language learning. They also pointed out that content provides a cognitive basis for language learning because it provides real meaning. Learning a language with content is more motivating for learners than learning a language alone. The comprehensible content-based approach gives "conceptual or cognitive hangers on which language functions and structures can be hung" (p. 202).

Researchers have argued for having some criteria for content, because content plays an important role in CBI and affects whole curriculum. Met (1998) suggested some factors to consider when selecting content in a language-driven setting, as follows: 1) the fit with specified language objectives; 2) the fit with students' current language proficiency; and 3) the degree of cognitive engagement and demand.

Stoller and Grabe (1997) provided another set of criteria which might help teachers to select the content of lessons. They proposed the distinctive curricular
approach called Six-T’s Approach for both language and content teaching. This approach includes six components which help to select content from the organization of a lesson: themes, texts, topics, threads, tasks, and transitions.

Chamot and O’Malley (1994) reported that content should be selected adequately for the grade level. It should be appropriate for the levels of students and their needs, their experiences, and their prior/current knowledge. They also propose using state and local curriculum frameworks as guidelines for content selection.

Goals

The second aspect of the CBI curriculum involves setting goals, or instructional objectives. Goals under CBI are unique and different from those of normal language instruction. Many researchers have mentioned the needs for two objectives. Chamot and O’Malley (1994) proposed a pair of objectives; one is the content objective that is a goal for content skills, and the other is the language objective that is a goal of language functions. Because CBI provides meaningful language learning through subject matter, both content and language objectives are necessary.
Snow, Met, and Genesee (1989) and Snow (1993) suggested another two different objectives in terms of language development. One is the content-obligatory language objective which specifies "the language required for students to develop, master, and communicate about a given content material" (Snow, Met, & Genesee, 1989, p. 205-206). The content-compatible language objective, on the other hand, is a goal consisting of a language skill that can be taught from content "but not required for success content mastery" (p. 206). The main idea of these objectives is that students learn what a target language is and how to use it, with less focus on meaning. They are designed to make lessons purposeful and make students motivated.

Tasks

The third aspect under the CBI curriculum is the task. Tasks, according to Stoller and Grabe (1997), are "the instructional activities and techniques utilized for content, language, and strategy instruction" (p. 85). Tasks are sequences of planning that have objectives and goals. These are actual language activities conducted in classrooms. Tasks are determined depending on analyzing learners' needs and goals (Long & Crookes, 1992; Carson, Taylor, & Fredella, 1997).
Some researchers have discussed two specific types of tasks, a real-world task and a pedagogic task. The real-world task attempts to simulate in the classroom types of behaviors that will be actually used by students outside the classrooms (Snow, 1993). It involves student-centered and content-related activities such as buying a train ticket. The pedagogic task is a process of language learning based on second language theories and research (Long & Crookes, 1992). It makes students internalize target languages. Short-answer question for vocabulary at the end of the class is an example of a pedagogic task.

Richard-Amato (1996) argued that content and tasks corresponding to the objectives of lessons lead to proficiencies and competencies of target languages. Figure 3 shows a hierarchy of the three foci under effective content-based curriculum. It shows content is the most important part under CBI covering whole language learning.
Tasks are determined based on the content, and students' proficiencies and competencies in the target language are developed during the tasks. Richard-Amato (1996) suggested that three should be linked together for meaningful and purposeful language learning in specific content areas.

**Material Development.**

The study of CBI in ESL programs (pre-K through 12) conducted in 1991 by the Center for Applied Linguistics revealed most programs used unique materials. Sheppard (1997) stated that most programs reported using materials from students' regular courses in their classes, but 90% of the teachers said they had created activities or materials for their classes. The teachers said that activities were determined by the textbook or textbook
series only some of the time, according to Sheppard’s survey (1997). The materials used in the content-based programs consisted of conventional and innovative materials: published materials that are carefully selected for main means, and original materials that are made by teachers.

Short (1999) reported that the middle school content-based lessons she observed included a mix of authentic and adapted materials. Authentic materials helped students to read textbooks, and adapted materials bridged the gap that may be found in the textbooks. One of the reasons for this tendency is because there is a limited supply of published materials in the area of content-based language learning (Short, 1997). Teachers arrange their materials in order to match students’ age and proficiency level and to make language study understandable to students. Teachers using CBI need to select existing materials and/or develop their own that make students develop their language ability in specific content. Preparing well-designed materials in CBI is a time-consuming process, but the materials take a larger, more active and creative role on the part of teachers and students (Richard-Amato, 1996).
Assessment

Generally, assessment is an essential component of curriculum to measure learners' understanding of studies. Cohen (1994) stated that among the instructional purposes of assessment, the measurement of language abilities are to diagnose existing proficiency, to gather evidence of progress, and to give feedback to the respondent. In CBI, teachers are concerned with what to assess, and how to assess student language skills development as well as student comprehension of subject matter (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989; Short, 1993).

There are two important considerations for the CBI assessment that have been often discussed by researchers: reliability and validity. Weigle and Jensen (1997) defined reliability as "consistency of measurement across different occasions or forms of a test" (p. 203). The measures should be consistent and trustworthy for different individuals or the same individual on different occasions.

Validity, according to Turner (1997), refers to whether assessment measures what it is intended to measure and measures it comprehensively. This measure should assess the abilities of using the target language and should match the language learning objectives of the
classes (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989). Construct validity, a type of validity, is defined as “the meaningfulness and appropriateness of the interpretations that we make on the basis of test scores” (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 21). The assessment should be derived from a lesson where a target language is used in a classroom. Therefore, assessment has to be made in terms of purposes and appropriateness of the suitable situations.

Assessing Language Abilities. Short (1993) stated that assessment should be viewed holistically, but in an integrated language and content class, especially for beginning-level classes where the central focus is learning target languages through content, it is important to assess students’ language skills rather than just from the standpoint of content knowledge. Researchers have proposed that students’ language proficiency should be measured in the context of specific subject matters through alternative assessment procedures (Hamayan, 1995; Short, 1993; Snow, 1998). Some major means of language assessment in CBI discussed here are teacher evaluation, student self-evaluation, essay writing, portfolios, oral reports, and interview.
Teacher evaluation means that teachers evaluate or judge a student's work or performance both formally and informally (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989; Short, 1993). If it is done systematically, it helps to identify students' language development accurately. In contrast, student self-evaluation allows each student to evaluate his/her own work or judge his/her learning progress using a checklist, scale, or written description (Short, 1993). Nunan (1988) argued that self-evaluation provides one of the most effective means of developing both self-awareness of what a learner has learned and skills of how to apply rules of the target language.

In essay writing, students present their knowledge in writing through essays (Short, 1993). Essay writing, reports, and projects often take time but allow students to present their idea of subjects freely. Portfolios are collections of texts the students have produced over a definite period of time to the specifications of particular contexts (Hamp-Lyons, 1991). According to Sommers (1991), Condon and Hamp-Lyons (1991), and Porter and Cleland (1995), portfolio assessment enables instruction to be linked to assessment, promotes reflection to both teachers and students, helps students
to take responsibility for their learning, and enables students to see their progress in writing.

Oral reports offer students an opportunity to display their knowledge orally (Short, 1993). Cohen (2000) states that "verbal reports have at times provided access to the reasoning processes underlying cognition, response, and decision making" (p. 129), so these help to reveal students' abilities directly. Interviews, meetings between teachers and students, help teachers assess individuals or group of students (Short, 1993). Students' oral skills are assessed with conversational or controlled procedures. These assessment tools measure students' skill levels and presentation modes. There are many other possible measurement tools for language assessment such as journals, profiles, simulations, performance-based assessment, and assessment through multimedia technology.

Content-based curriculum should involve holistically integrated instruction, including both language and content. To conduct meaningful lessons, teachers should select content, set goals, and organize tasks that are suitable for students' age, level, and academic needs. These are the cornerstones of an effective CBI curriculum. The assessment reinforces learners' learning progress inside or outside classrooms. CBI curriculum should be
designed carefully to satisfy language and content objectives, students' academic and language needs, and teachers' expectations for language development.

Grammatical Error Correction

One aspect of second/foreign language classroom pedagogy that has been argued for several years is how to treat errors that learners make. Making errors is viewed as a normal, natural, and important part of learning process when people learn their first languages (L1) or any other languages (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill, & Pincas, 1980; Dixson & Nessel, 1992). When learning a new language, learners tend to use trial and error to grasp the new language system. The errors might stem from one's native language, overgeneralization of the new language system, or the intermediate system between one's native language and the target language, known as an interlanguage (Selinker, 1972). The ESL/EFL teachers need to note the types of errors students make in order to conduct accurate language lessons. Being aware of students' errors is beneficial to teachers so that they can be aware of students' internalized rules. Errors are inevitable for students and provide valuable evidence for teachers. Some of the important points of error correction
and techniques for oral/written correction in classrooms are discussed here.

Who Should Correct Errors?

Many researchers have mentioned that there are three persons who can correct errors in a classroom: the students who made the error, other students, and the teacher (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill, & Pincas, 1980; Waltz, 1982; Chaudron, 1988). According to Gattegno (1976) and Makino (1993), students are capable of correcting their own errors. For example, Robbins (1977) found that intermediate ESL students could identify 27% of their errors and correct about half of that 27%. Learners sometimes notice and correct some of their errors by themselves through the strategy of monitoring, and they can also correct some of their errors when teachers or peers give them cues or hints about them (Makino, 1993). This affords students several ways to improve using error feedback.

Peer correction is another way to correct students’ errors. This is available when students do pair work and group work. Waltz (1982) discussed four advantages of peer correction. First, it motivates students who think learning a new language is hard. Second, it involves a greater number of students in class. Third, corrections
are given that correspond to an individual’s language level. Last, peer correction and self-correction increase the amount of time students talk in class and decreases the amount of time teachers talk to correct errors (Waltz, 1982).

Teacher correction, the most frequent technique in classrooms, gives students more advanced and proper grammatical correction. As for ESL teachers with low-intermediate learners, Celce-Murcia (1991) stated that the teachers “may want to facilitate their students’ ability to recognize and locate errors since these skills precede the ability to accurately correct an error” (p. 470). Making students aware of their errors is the most important part of error correction. Teachers should provide proper and unambiguous forms to students who have made mistakes.

Which Errors Should be Corrected?

There is a consensus among researchers that only selected errors need to be corrected. Burt and Kiparsky (1974) categorized two types of mistakes, local and global mistakes, in their analysis of error gravity. Local mistakes are errors in function of words, phrases, or clauses such as an omitted article, subject-verb agreement, and a superfluous preposition (Burt & Kiparsky,
1974; Celce-Murcia, 1991). One example is given as following:

(C) *It was dark as we approached to the house.

(Celce-Murcia, 1991)

In contrast, global mistakes refer to the errors which confuse the relationship among clauses (Burt & Kiparsky, 1974, p. 73). Compare the following examples:

(D) *English language use much people. (Burt & Kiparsky, 1974)

(E) Many people use the English language.

In the sentence (D), the order of the subject and the verb are reversed, making it difficult to understand the meaning. The sentence (E) is easier to understand than the sentence (D). Global mistakes consist of wrong word choices, faulty word order, and omitted connectors between clauses or sentences. Burt and Kiparsky (1974) added that global mistakes require correction much more than local mistakes do because global mistakes affect comprehensibility of meaning and may cause much more serious miscommunication between people.

Waltz (1982) proposed four criteria for choosing which errors to correct: comprehensibility, frequency, pedagogical focus, and individual student concerns. The first criterion is to correct errors "that cause a
misunderstanding or lack of communication" (p. 11). The second criterion is to correct errors that are made most often by students. Third, teachers must take care of the errors that have been learned recently by students. The last criterion is that teachers must target those students who are sensitive to, and capable of, correction. Waltz's criteria for correction have some similarities with Ervin's scale of severity of error correction.

Ervin (1981, cited in Magnan, 1982) suggested that there is a hierarchy of the error correction made of three axes: stigmatization/tolerance, comprehensibility/noncomprehensibility, and competence/performance (the figure is in Appendix A). According to Ervin (1981), the highest priority is to correct those errors that are stigmatized, not understandable, and originate from learners' grammatical competence. In contrast, the errors that are tolerated, do not interfere with comprehension, and originated in learners' performance are seen as the lowest priority for correction (Omaggio, 1986).

It seems that the highest priority for error correction is comprehensibility, targeting those errors that might disturb communication or lead to misunderstanding of meaning. This is one of the most important reasons why people use a language to communicate.
comprehensibility. Some major techniques for this type and other types of mistakes in classroom settings are discussed in next two sections.

Techniques for Oral Errors

The purpose of error correction in oral language is to make students' utterances comprehensible to listeners so that there is no miscommunication between interlocutors. Fanselow (1977) suggested that teachers not interrupt the student too quickly. It is not ideal to interrupt the student while speaking because this can be frustrating and discouraging for the student (Bartram & Walton, 1991). Techniques that lead a student to correct himself/herself and correction techniques done by the teacher are discussed here.

Self-Correction with Teacher Helping. There are five major techniques that are conducted by the student with help of the teacher. Pinpointing, according to Knop (1980), is when the teacher repeats the student's sentence up to the error. For example, if a student says, "Last summer, I went in Scotland," a teacher would say "Last summer, I went..." indicating that after the word "went" is ungrammatical.

Cueing refers to the teacher’s giving some grammatical variations of the word with which the student
has difficulty with (Holley & King, 1974; Waltz, 1982). The student is given oral multiple choice by the teacher when the student has used ungrammatical words or missed words in his/her utterance. The following is the example of cueing:

T: What did you bring to class?
S: I ...
T: Bring, brought ...
S: I brought my books. (Waltz, 1982, p. 19)

Questioning means that the teacher asks some questions to elicit the meaning the student tries to convey (Waltz, 1982). Here is an example:

S: I am studying to be [incomprehensible word]
T: Why do you want to do that?
S: I like to help people.
T: How will you help them?
S: They can see better.
T: Yes, an optometrist does that. (Waltz, 1982, p. 20)

Further questions help the teacher to understand what the student has tried to say.

Bartram and Walton (1991) suggested that the teacher pretend to misunderstand what the student has said so that the student knows which part he/she should correct. This
kind of technique resembles what happens in real life conversation.

S: She went on holiday with your husband.

T: My husband??

S: No, sorry, her husband. (Bartram & Walton, 1991, p. 49)

Gestures are techniques that are done nonverbally. Bartram and Walton (1991) stated that shaking the head and doubtful expression are useful to get attention on the student’s ungrammatical utterance. For word order mistakes, Waltz (1982) suggested that the teacher flips his/her hand over the other, indicating two words should be reversed. A similar technique coined by Bartram and Walton (1991) is that the teacher crosses over his/her arms in front of him/her when the order of two words should be reversed.

Lopez (1998) recommended one gesture for correcting word order, missing words, subject-verb agreement, tense, and wrong word choice. The teacher uses one hand to point to the fingers on his/her other hand to indicate the words of a sentence. Then, stop or wiggle the finger when a mistake has been made. Gattegno (1976) developed the gesture leading the student to correct his/her word stress errors. With an index finger of one hand, the teacher taps
out the rhythm of the word with the other index finger, using a more exaggerated tap on the stressed syllable.

**Teacher Correction.** The teacher’s correction saves time and reduces confusion among students. Two major techniques are mentioned here: providing the correct answer, and paraphrasing. Providing the correct answer is a direct and straightforward technique. Waltz (1982) explained that the teacher tells the student what the proper form is and asks him/her for a repetition if it is necessary for better understanding.

Another technique teachers can provide is called paraphrasing. Omaggio (1986) recommended that the teacher repeat the student’s answer exactly, but substitute the correct form for the one used incorrectly. For example, when a student says “His telephone number is 65789,” a teacher gives the student the correct answer by stress the word, “His telephone number is 65689.” Bartram and Walton (1991) stated that the teacher can give overt forms of correction while talking with the student.

S: Yes, and on Saturday I go to Bath on trip...
T: You’re going to Bath? That’ll be nice.
S: Yes, I going to Bath, and we see the Romanic Baths.
T: Have you seen the Roman Baths before?
S: No, this is first time.
T: What, the very first time?
S: Yes, I never see before.
T: Right, so Sonia’s going to Bath to see the Roman
Baths. (Bartram & Walton, 1991, p. 52)
They explained that the teacher’s reformulation may
not be noticed as directly as the other examples to the
student, but it is less offensive or critical. Other
students are given an opportunity to identify
grammatical/ungrammatical differences from the
conversation.
Fanselow (1977) warned, however, that just giving the
correct answer does not help the student to establish a
pattern for long-term memory. This suggests that teachers
use combinations of self-correction, peer correction, and
teacher correction in both explicit and implicit ways so
that students are involved and are aware of their errors.

Techniques for Written Errors

The purposes for correcting written errors are to
make written ideas comprehensible to readers and to help
students to express what they wish to convey in written
words. Usually, the correction of written mistakes is done
in private (Lalande, 1981), so teachers can give specific
and clear correction to individuals. To facilitate
students’ improvement in drafts, Muncie (2000) states,
teacher intervention during the writing process is the most effective way to promote achievement. Teacher intervention is categorized into two parts: indirect and direct correction.

**Indirect Correction.** Omaggio (1986) stated, "having the teacher straightforwardly correct every error on students' written work is not most useful way to provide corrective feedback" (p. 298). Indirect correction is the device that improves students' skills and meaning of writing softly. The most frequent technique that is used by teachers is use of correction codes. Bartram and Walton (1991) suggested that the teacher put an abbreviated symbol in the margin or above the error. The following are possible correcting codes listed by Bartram and Walton:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GR</td>
<td>grammar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W.O.</td>
<td>word order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>voc</td>
<td>vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sp</td>
<td>spelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>article</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Examples of Correcting Codes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>()</td>
<td>unnecessary word(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>punctuation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reg</td>
<td>register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?</td>
<td>don’t understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>word missing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!</td>
<td>careless mistake</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Bartram & Walton, 1991, p. 84)
Similarly, Waltz (1982) suggested that teachers can use “F” for form, “Sp” for spelling, “aux” for auxiliary, “G” for gender, “X” for wrong word, “T” for tense, “C” for case, and “0” for order. Omaggio (1986) and Bartram and Walton (1991) suggested that teachers underline incorrectly spelled words, circle for inappropriate words, and write arrows for misplaced words. In some cases, clues are added close to the mistakes to give some hints for the mistakes (Bartram & Walton, 1991). Before given coded feedback, students must be provided a piece of paper that shows those codes and their meanings.

In contrast, some the techniques provide less information to students about their errors. Haswell (1983) argued that teachers indicate mistakes by crosses in the margin alongside the lines in which the mistakes occur (Hyland, 1990). Here is the example:

- We apologise for the inconveniency. It was all
- because certain reasons that things turned out that
- way. We did sent a driver to the airport but it broke
  on the way. Secondly about the hotel. The group had
to take another. (Hyland, 1990, p. 281)

Students would be motivated to seek where mistakes are and how to change them. Hyland (1990) remarked that a
teacher can record the sum of crosses and the paper is returned to the student with the teacher’s comments.

If teachers provide students a checklist that consists of types of errors the students have made, this can work as a reminder while the student revises his/her writing (Waltz, 1982). With the marking checklists, students and the teacher know the types of errors they have made. Checklists are effective because they are used repeatedly during and after the writing process.

**Direct Correction.** According to Hendrickson (1980), direct correction means that the teacher tells the student where the error is and what the correct form is. Direct correction is explicit and useful when the student has difficulty understanding indirect correction. The teacher crosses out unnecessary words, underlines misspelled words and then gives correct forms (Waltz, 1982). The teacher can also add some comments in the margin and suggest improvements at the end of an essay. According to Waltz (1982), semantic errors must often be corrected in the most direct manner possible. The teacher can talk with the students individually to negotiate meaning of the written work. The techniques introduced in this section are just examples. Because various techniques are available for
teachers to handle in classrooms, selected ones are used depending on objectives, activities, and students’ age.

Making errors is inevitable when learning new languages. Correction must be done overtly in both oral and written work while students do language activities. Two important considerations emerge among researchers when teachers give error correction. First, as Valette (1973) pointed out, overcorrecting destroys students’ motivation for language learning. It reduces the pleasure of learning new languages and interrupts students’ overall language development. However, the teacher still has to remind students of selected mistakes they made so that they are aware of the errors. This contributes to more accurate language production. Second, error correction should be done in a positive manner (Knop, 1980; Omaggio, 1986; Waltz, 1982). Bartram and Walton (1991) stated that the purpose of teacher feedback is to have a long-term positive effect on the students’ ability to monitor their own output. Muncie (2000) states, “feedback can be only be truly effective in that development if the learners are encouraged and able to analyze and evaluate it themselves” (p. 52). Teachers should correct gently and avoid embarrassing or discouraging students. In this literature review, the only grammar-level and discourse-level error
correction has been discussed. It is problematic that strategic and sociolinguistic skills are not being considered. One might suggest this take place if students are ready to develop communicative competence in L2. Quick and spontaneous strategic, sociolinguistic, discourse and grammar error correction helps students to establish new system in the target language.

As can be seen in this literature review, the field of TESOL has been integrating many different fields in order to teach English effectively taking into account learners' age, proficiency levels, background, and inside/outside classroom environments. To review, social cognition is one's thinking mechanism developed through social interaction from infancy to adulthood. Children's social understanding has become increasingly sophisticated by adolescence. Communicative competence is constructed by social interaction, just as is social cognition. Communicative competence, the ability to use a language in a communicative context, helps people to use the language in social situations. CBI offers students a rich environment where a target language is learned through content. It is a meaning-based approach by which a teacher can enhance learners' comprehension, self-confidence, and motivation to study. Foreign/second language classes must
take into account the developmental aspects of language learning when selecting content for language learning. When conducting language activities in a classroom, a teacher must make sure that the systems of the target language are understood and used correctly by students. Corrective feedback for both oral and written work helps students to acquire the target language. These conceptual domains will become the basis for the theoretical framework in the next chapter.
CHAPTER THREE
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Based on the findings of the previous chapter, significant implications emerge when applied to English teaching for low-intermediate-level Japanese learners. The five key concepts discussed in Chapter Two are interrelated, and each is important for English as second/foreign language classroom pedagogy. This chapter describes pedagogical implications for content-based language instruction (CBI) and details a theoretical framework for effective ESL/EFL teaching utilizing CBI.

The five key words discussed in the previous chapter play important roles in this project. First, social cognition theory takes into account that the social action of one's behavior is affected by his/her subjective experience and external stimuli. It is important to utilize this concept in English classes. Students experience and analyze a specific English expression that is appropriate to content and adjust it as their L2 language behavior. Communicative competence, the second key word, is used in any social/communicative setting and is recognizable through language output. Teachers assist their students to improve competence in L2 grammatical and
strategic areas as well as sociolinguistic and discourse competences. CBI, the third key word, is a meaning-based language approach which teachers can use to enhance students' comprehension, competence, self-confidence, and motivation to study. Foreign/second language teachers must take into account the developmental aspects of language learning when planning lessons. The last concept, error correction, is an important aspect in students' language development. Teachers' corrective feedback for both oral and written work helps students to acquire the target language. Before those five key words are integrated, some implications of the content-based approach need to be addressed.

Pedagogical Implications

English teachers must be aware of several innovative and unique features of CBI. First, CBI is an integrated language and content teaching approach that includes the four language skills. Students in CBI receive meaning-form and form-function input through meaningful content. Because content and language are learned together, students are able to study the language without any difficulty. This approach seems to have made an even
greater contribution on language development than has the communicative approach.

Secondly, the focus of teaching (either content or language) depends on the teachers, administrators, and objectives of the programs. This seems to be flexible, but this flexibility can be a disadvantage in terms of language development. If teachers focus on teaching content rather than language, students do not learn the language. Snow, Met, and Genesee (1989) suggested that teachers use curriculum developed from a language-learning point of view. The teachers need to have effective plans that realize the goals of instruction.

As Swaffar (1993) pointed out, the grammar taught in CBI is less visible than in a language class equipped with a grammar-based syllabus. This tendency surfaces because CBI relies on various nonlinguistic factors such as students’ previous experiences and knowledge in L1 (first languages). Also, students in CBI internalize the target language from context, so their focus might be on the context rather than the language. Teachers using content-based instruction need to explain to students the form/function relation of the language explicitly in the classes. Otherwise, the target language may become fossilized during a long-term learning process. To prevent
fossilization, a focus on teaching the target language is vital in the English classroom.

In addition to the specification of new rules, teachers need to note the errors students make. According to Swain’s (1996) observation of content-based immersed six-grade classes, only 19% of the grammatical errors students made were corrected, while the teachers ignored the rest of the errors. This indicates another weak point of CBI. At the low-intermediate level of proficiency, students do not generally produce correct utterances. Teachers' ignoring errors may lead students to misunderstanding of the rules and context in content-based instruction. Therefore, teachers should correct students' errors that interfere with comprehensibility. These implications suggest that current perspectives of CBI need supplement to reinforce language learning in the middle school foreign language setting.

Proposed Theoretical Framework

Based on implications inferred from the literature review, a theoretical framework for EFL teaching for low-intermediate middle school learners emerges. Figure 4 shows how the key words are integrated in order to achieve effective content-based EFL teaching. Content-based
instruction (CBI), the language teaching approach with content, provides rich learning environment in EFL classroom settings.

Figure 4. Proposed Theoretical Framework.
The selected content stimulates students' social cognition at that age and helps students to construct three competences (discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competences), which correspond to person, environment, and behavior. This process allows CBI to link content with language and prevents students' having a gap between content and language. The person, which represents a student, develops discourse competence, particularly by reading printed materials or characterizing content. The environment, specification of situation, provides students accuracy and situational appropriateness of the English language and helps them to increase sociolinguistic competence in L2. Strategic competence is developed when students use new systems of English to adapt to and analyze social behavior.

The three elements are in mutual relationship for the development of both English learning and content understanding. The attention to grammar is provided as a substrate in each class in order to develop grammatical competence. Thus, students internalize and practice new systems of the target language competence utilizing content, social cognition, and communicative competence to be able to use English accurately and appropriately in the context of lessons. Teachers' grammatical and discourse
error correction reinforces learners' development of communicative competence and prevents future fossilization.

As Swain (1988) pointed out, in order to develop correct form and function of the target language in a class, some attention to form is necessary. This framework proposes communicative and functional language teaching through content, which means language-driven CBI. This is an integrated content study with mastery of grammatical competence and further development of language skills. Content helps learners to learn the target language smoothly and helps language learning to become meaningful and purposeful. It provides students with the most certain means of teaching language for use.

Once students understand rules and functions of some expressions in English, they utilize their social cognition in order to make the expression appropriate to the situation. That is to say, they transfer their idea of people and strategies of social interaction into the interaction in L2. Teachers assist students to recognize and produce English which is not only accurate but also appropriate in the social situation. Students' social cognition interacts with their communicative competence and language behavior in L2. Using communicative
competence is a key for the English output. Students develop the four components of communicative competence (strategic, sociolinguistic, grammatical, and discourse competences) through purposeful language learning. Students' language output is monitored and corrected by teachers when students work on activities. Error correction not only prevents classes from being content-driven but also helps students to be more grammatically accurate and appropriate to the context. This framework is designed to foster language study together with content. The combination of language objectives with meaningful content provides strong efficiency for low-intermediate level students.

Goals of the Approach

The proposed framework has two aims regarding language skills and learning skills. First, as Wesche (1993) suggested, a content-based approach is aimed at the development of use-oriented second and foreign language skills. This means that students should be able to listen, read, speak, and write in English. The second aim, probably the central aim of teaching second/foreign language, is to make students independent and autonomous language learners. Teachers guide students as users of English until they no longer need teachers' support. The
ideal goal is to make students be able to manipulate the language by themselves.

Foreign Immersion Classroom Strategies

As Freeman and Freeman (1998) discussed, many students in EFL setting are poorly motivated to learn the language because they do not see it as relevant. To make it relevant to students, teachers must prepare carefully selected content so that the target language is learned spontaneously and effectively. Moreover, Richard-Amato (1996) suggested that EFL students are in even more need of meaningful interaction than ESL students because the classroom may be their only source of English language input. Teachers should have a variety of activities that promote students’ ability to learn English. Content-based instruction in an EFL setting is big challenge because of limited language sources; however, meaningful content and activities ensure that students in foreign immersion classes will achieve language development. The next section illustrates one example derived from the framework just described. The target level of the example is for low-intermediate level EFL middle school students.

Application of the Framework

One application of the proposed CBI model is using literature as content for language learning. According to
Stern (1991), the elements of literature, such as character, setting, and plot, help promote reading comprehension and provide the subject matter, the context, and the inspiration for numerous activities. She also pointed out that literature can motivate students and reading literal work immerses students in the world it depicts. In this type of CBI, literary work is selected by teachers with concern for their students' age, proficiency level, and pedagogical goals. The written texts allow students to look at varied forms of English as well as their function. Content of the literary work stimulates students and helps them to increase communicative competence. Students develop specific rules of English that relate to the plot and practice speaking, listening, reading, and writing about the literary work. In this sense, the texts are central to instruction. Use of literature as a medium for English instruction enhances development of grammatical competence, other competences as well as overall language development.

The first part of this chapter has given pedagogical implications derived from the review of literature. Content-based instruction has some weak points in terms of grammar and further language development even though it is an innovative and fascinating approach in ESL/EFL. The
proposed theoretical framework incorporates key words from the previous chapter and suggests language-driven CBI. It takes account students' inner competence, linguistic support by teachers, and meaningful language development in an EFL setting. Based on this framework, a content-based curriculum for low-intermediate EFL learners is outlined in the next chapter.
CHAPTER FOUR
CURRICULUM DESIGN

Associated with the theoretical framework in the previous chapter, a sample unit has been designed for middle school EFL students in Japan. The unit consists of seven lessons designed for English learning with comprehension of literature as content. This language-driven CBI integrates learners' social cognition and communicative competence. This chapter describes the content of the unit and sequence of lessons.

Content of the Unit

This unit is designed for middle school English students in Japan. The goal of this unit is for students to be able to use English accurately and appropriately in specific situations. Students will increase vocabulary, grammar, and functions of English through the story *Pacific Crossing*. Students will learn the past perfect tense, the past perfect tense with passive voice, and verbal/nonverbal communication strategies through the story. The focus of competences in each lesson associated from students' cognition is seen in Table 2. Building vocabulary is fundamental to learn English grammar and function. In each lesson, students are encouraged to
identify the meaning of new vocabulary words. Forms and functions of grammar are learned from the meaningful context.

Table 2. Component of the Unit Plan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson</th>
<th>Task Chain</th>
<th>Component from the Framework</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>1, 2, &amp; 3</td>
<td>Grammatical competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Discourse competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>1 &amp; 2</td>
<td>Discourse competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Grammatical competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>1, 2, &amp; 3</td>
<td>Sociolinguistic competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Grammatical competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>1 &amp; 2</td>
<td>Grammatical competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sociolinguistic competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>1 &amp; 2</td>
<td>Discourse competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Grammatical competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Strategic competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>1 &amp; 2</td>
<td>Grammatical competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sociolinguistic competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Strategic competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>1, 2, &amp; 3</td>
<td>Discourse competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Grammatical competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sociolinguistic competence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The literature used as content in this unit is *Pacific Crossing* by Gary Soto (1992). In this book, Soto describes Lincoln Mendoza, a fourteen-year-old Mexican American youth who goes to Japan as an exchange student. He experiences baseball, farming, jokes and family life. This novel is used as literature content because it is culturally related, the main character is as same as the target level students, and the story fits with the students' language proficiency. Content of the story is so
vivid and fascinating that the students increase their motivation of English learning. It involves variety of vocabulary, grammar, and expressions which enable students to guess from the context. Soto’s work is used as a medium of English instruction throughout the lessons. Completely immersed into the situation, students experience English and increase grammar, vocabulary, and four components of communicative competence in English.

Each lesson has content objectives and language objectives. Materials used in this unit are lesson plans, focus sheets, work sheets, assessment sheets, and other possible sources. The lesson plans provide explicit, step-by-step directions for each lesson. The focus sheets include the text and supplemental information, which give students extensive input. The work sheets are for language output, content comprehension, and authentic language activities. Assessment sheets are used to evaluate students’ progress of English.

Sequence of the Lessons

Each lesson is aligned with the story. Because of the time setting, each lesson contains from two to four pages of reading. The sequence of lessons is as follows: Flying to Japan, Background of Lincoln, Lincoln and the
Principal, Arriving in Japan, Talking with Mr. Ono, Welcome, Lincoln! and Field Work.

In Lesson A, Flying to Japan, teachers give hints for the story by providing new vocabulary words. Students identify the main characters and situation, as well as the new tense, which is the past perfect tense. In Lesson B, students identify the function of the past perfect tense through description of Lincoln in the focus sheets. Content of the lesson may be more familiar to the students because of “shorinji kempo”. Lesson C is concerned with the past perfect tense with passive voice. Two different view of Japan are discussed in groups: the view of Lincoln who lived in outside Japan, and the view of students who lives in Japan. In Lesson D, students learn changes of styles, which refer to formality/informality of English, and shifts of registers, which mean use of English and Spanish. Students are required to understand the story from a sociolinguistic perspective. Lesson E promotes students to write what Lincoln and Mr. Ono, who was Lincoln’s sponsor, did on that day. Students write an essay at the end of the lesson. In Lesson F, students learn some idioms and communicative strategies that enhance effectiveness of communication. Then, students apply the knowledge into conversational level, caring the
forms and functions. Lesson G, the last lesson, is designed for students to understand what Lincoln experienced on the first day in Japan and learn two functions of "would". Students are required to understand the story and use four language skills in order to accomplish group activities.

The design of this curriculum aims for students to read, write, speak, and listen to English accurately and appropriately in given situations. Especially, reading is used as a main tool to provide comprehensible input throughout the unit. This student-centered curriculum allows teachers to immerse students in the world of literature and encourages students to use English purposefully. The assessment of the unit is discussed in the next chapter.
CHAPTER FIVE
ASSESSMENT AND CONCLUSION

The important considerations of CBI assessment discussed in Chapter Two are reliability and validity. Students should be assessed with a variety of types of tests in CBI. In addition, the goals of assessment correspond to objectives of lessons as well as content of lessons. The assessment sheets used in the unit are designed to satisfy these two considerations and measure the progress of students' language development. In the unit, three level of language assessment are attempted. They are literal, contextual, and personal levels. This chapter describes those three levels of assessment and concludes the project.

Assessment

One purpose of assessment in this unit is to check students' understanding of the lessons. As seen in the Table 3, the assessment of each lesson has been developed from simple to complex procedures. In Lesson A, assessment is conducted at a literal level to check students' lexical understanding. In Lesson B, C, and D, students are assessed in the next level, the contextual level, that goes beyond the lexical level to assess the function of
new systems, their awareness of errors, and strategic ability. Students are assessed in their ability to use English at a personal level in Lesson E, F, and G.

Table 3. Types of Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson</th>
<th>Types of Assessment</th>
<th>Content of Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Paper-pencil</td>
<td>Reading comprehension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Matching verbs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Paper-pencil</td>
<td>Monitoring grammatical errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Content comprehension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Paper-pencil</td>
<td>Short answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Making sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Paper-pencil</td>
<td>Changing order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reading comprehension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Paper-pencil</td>
<td>Essay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>Role-play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>Making posters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>Self-evaluation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another purpose of the assessment in this unit is to allow students to reflect upon their attitude of study. For example, with the self-evaluation seen in Lesson G, each student evaluates how he/she has cooperated and participated in a group. The self-evaluation helps students to notice their attitude and promotes active participation in the next class. Reflecting on their attitude, students will increase their responsibility for their own English learning.

The assessment of the unit has been designed to measure students’ language abilities and other factors
such as competence and attitude. It is important for students to receive feedback from their teachers. This will help students review their weak areas and motivate further study of English.

Conclusion

Using literature for English language teaching is not a new idea. For example, traditional English education in Japan mainly focused on teaching English from literature and history. However, the focus of the instruction was on grammar, not overall language development. CBI does cover all aspects of language (grammar, function, and usage) and language skills (reading, speaking, listening, and writing). It is the functional, communicative, and purposeful approach that makes English learning meaningful to students. CBI has been proposed using literature as content for English learning in EFL classroom setting in Chapters Four and Five, and the sample unit is included in Appendix B. The curriculum is based on the theoretical framework in Chapter Three, which integrates learners' social cognition, communicative competence, CBI, and error correction.

Further research is needed to highlight the link between social cognition and communicative competence in
ESL/EFL pedagogy. Even though communicative competence has become one of teachers' focuses of instruction, using students' social knowledge in L2 teaching has been less focused upon. One's social cognition should be utilized in social/communicative classroom activities. The integration of social cognition and communicative competence can be the key to teach English for actual use. The second recommendation is that a correct, considerable, and accurate explanation of CBI, that is adaptable to all level of proficiency, is needed in order for CBI to be used world wide. Because many researchers have defined and positioned CBI in different ways, adaptability and applicability of CBI have been considered to be limited and ambiguous in many ways. If there is an explicit explanation of CBI, CBI will be reexamined and become a popular approach among ESL/EFL teachers.

The last two decades have witnessed various types of integrated content and language approaches in ESL. CBI has been used at the university level, secondary school level, and even the elementary level all over the world. Chapter One has provided a background of English education in Japan. The five key words (social cognition, communicative competence, CBI, content-based curriculum, and grammatical error correction) have been reviewed from various
theoretical perspectives in Chapter Two. In Chapter Three, the framework has been proposed and applied to the curriculum design in Chapter Four. This chapter has described the assessment of the unit. The unit, which includes seven lesson plans, is presented in Appendix B. This sample unit integrates language and content learning, four language skills, learners' social cognition, and their communicative competence in L2. CBI is a unique approach that has been developing gradually in K-12 classroom settings. It is hoped that this project gives ESL/EFL teachers some insight to attain functional, understandable, and purposeful English classes.
APPENDIX A

ERVIN'S MODEL
Ervin's Model for Error Severity

(Magnan, 1982, p. 31)
APPENDIX B

THE SAMPLE UNIT
The Unit Plans

Lesson A: Flying to Japan
Lesson B: Background of Lincoln
Lesson C: Lincoln and the Principal
Lesson D: Arriving in Japan
Lesson E: Talking with Mr. Ono
Lesson F: Welcome, Lincoln!
Lesson G: Field Work
Instructional Plan A

Flying to Japan

Level: Eighth grade EFL students

Content Objectives:
1. To identify main characters and setting

Language Objectives:
1. To increase vocabulary that relates to the text
2. To become familiar with the setting of the story
3. To introduce the form of the past perfect tense

Time: 45 minutes


Warm-Up: Instructor writes new vocabulary (Focus Sheet A-2) on board or overhead

Task Chain 1: Increasing vocabulary related to the text
1. Instructor distributes Focus Sheet A-1 and reads to students
2. Students raise their hands when they hear the new vocabulary from the instructor
3. Instructor asks students the meaning of each vocabulary word

Task Chain 2: Becoming familiar with the setting of the story
1. Instructor asks students questions from the reading orally (Focus Sheet A-3)
2. In groups of three, students discuss and fill out Work Sheet A-4

Task Chain 3: Introducing the form of the past perfect tense
1. Students use Work Sheet A-5 to compare past perfect and simple past tenses
2. Students identify the form of the past perfect tense

Assessment: Checking comprehension of the story
1. Students work on Assessment Sheet A-6

Criteria
12-14: Excellent
11-9: Good
8-6: Average
5-2: Poor
1-0: Very Poor
Lincoln Mendoza was startled awakened by a strong jolt and the sound of his plastic cup of 7Up sliding across the fold-down tray in front of him. For a second he didn’t know where he was. He felt groggy. Another jolt, and he remembered he was thirty-seven thousand feet above the earth, on his way to Japan with his lifelong friend, his blood, his 
carna/, his neighbor from the barrio, his number-one man on the basketball floor at Franklin Junior High–Tony Contreras. They were both on a jumbo jet for the first time.

"Please be sure your seatbelts are securely fastened," a tinny voice said over the loudspeaker. The instructions were repeated in Japanese–or so Lincoln assumed, because the Japanese passengers began to fumble with their seatbelts.

Lincoln nudged Tony. Tony’s eyes were half-open, and a ribbon of drool was starting to flow from the corner of his mouth. He sighed and shifted away from Lincoln and up against the shoulder of the woman next to him.

"Wake up, man. We’re almost there," Lincoln said. "You’re drooling."

"No," Tony muttered. "The game ain’t started yet."

"What game?" Lincoln asked, chuckling.

Tony was dreaming, gripping a crushed napkin. His knee jerked, like Lincoln’s dog Flaco’s legs jerked when he traveled through his doggish dreams.

Lincoln let Tony sleep. He drained the soda in his cup, the ice cubes now as small as aspirins. He finished Toney’s soda as well and turned to look out the window. The Pacific Ocean was silver in the glare of the late-afternoon sun. In the distance, an island lay in a bluish haze.

carna/: blood brother

barrio/: neighborhood
Focus Sheet A-1 (con't)

Flying to Japan

When the stewardess came down the aisle, Lincoln asked her when they would arrive. She smiled, and said it would be another hour. She took the boys' cups.

Lincoln sighed and threw his head back into his seat. He had read two books, three battered issues of *Sports Illustrated*, and the in-flight magazine, though it was mostly in Japanese. He had played cards and won $1.50 from Tony, all in nickels and dimes. He had started a crossword puzzle but given up because it had to do with biology terms, which reminded him of school. He had eaten three times and watched a movie that was funny but not so funny that he laughed out loud. And in the boredom of the eight-hour flight he had even listened to the classical-music station on his earphones. Lincoln had never known that sitting down could be so tiring.

He looked out the window. The island was now farther away. The sunlight on the silver water was blinding. Lincoln lowered the shade, tilted his head, and went back to sleep.

(Soto, 1992)
Focus Sheet A-2

Vocabulary Development

jet
  - a large plane

fasten your seatbelts
  - to join together the two sides of a safety belt

passenger
  - someone who is traveling in a car, plane, or boat

nudge
  - to push someone gently, especially with one’s elbow

drool
  - the liquid in one’s mouth sliding down the chin

one’s knee jerked
  - one’s knee moved with a quick movement

bluish haze
  - fairly blue fog, caused by dust, smoke, water

aisle
  - a long passage between rows of seats

stewardess
  - a woman who is a flight attendant

battered
  - old and slightly damaged

(Crowther, 1995)
(Summers & Gadsby, 2000)
Focus Sheet A-3

Reading Comprehension

Direction: Answer the questions provided below.

1. What are the characters’ names?

2. Are they brothers?

3. Where were they?

4. Who came down the aisle?

5. How long did they spend in there?

6. Did Lincoln feel comfortable or bored?
Worksheet A-4

Plane Trip

Direction: Imagine you are going to take a jumbo jet. List the things you can do to make a plane trip more comfortable.
Work Sheet A-5

Flying to Japan

Direction: Look at those sentences from the reading. 1) identify the common form in those sentences, and 2) guess the function.

He had read two books, three battered issues of *Sports Illustrated*, and in-flight magazine...

He had played cards and won $1.50 from Tony,…

He had started a crossword puzzle but given up …

He had eaten three times…

… he had even listened to the classical-music station on his earphones.

Lincoln had never known that sitting down could be so tiring.

| Hint: Compare those sentences with sentences below. |
| He read two books, three battered issues of *Sport Illustrated*, and … |
| He ate three times… |
| Lincoln never knew that sitting down could be so tiring. |

The common form is

The function of this form is
Assessment Sheet A-6
Flying to Japan

1. Circle True or False that corresponds to the reading. (4)
   A  Lincoln was on his way to Japan.  
      True  False
   B  Lincoln and Tony were on the airplane.  
      True  False
   C  Tony talked with the flight attendant.  
      True  False
   D  The flight made Lincoln bored.  
      True  False

2. Add correct verbs to complete the sentences. (10)
   Lincoln had _______ a crossword puzzle but given up.
   Lincoln had _______ to the classical-music.
   Lincoln had _______ two books.
   Lincoln had _______ cards and won $1.50 from Tony.
   Lincoln had _______ three times.

   played  started  listened  do
   start  read  eaten
Instructional Plan B

Background of Lincoln

Level: Eighth grade EFL students

Content Objectives:
1. To get background information of the main character
2. To understand shorinji kempō from the text

Language Objectives:
1. To understand the function of past perfect tense
2. To describe the main character in the reading

Time: 45 minutes

Materials: A uniform of gi in a box, Focus Sheet B-1, Work Sheet B-2, Focus Sheet B-3, Focus Sheet B-4, Work Sheet B-5, and Assessment Sheet B-6

Warm-Up: Instructor asks students what kind of things they think Lincoln likes, and some voluntary students touch gi in the box and guess what it is

Task Chain 1: Understanding the function of the past perfect tense
1. Students read aloud Focus Sheet B-1 in pairs
2. In pairs, students work on Work Sheet B-2 for vocabulary matching and past perfect
3. Using Focus Sheet B-3, the instructor explains the function of the past perfect tense

Task Chain 2: Describing the main character
1. Students give the instructor some words of shorinji kempō from the reading
2. Instructor asks if students have learned shorinji kempō before
3. Instructor explains its origin using Focus Sheet B-4 and gi
4. Students fill out the blanks on Work Sheet B-5
5. In pairs, students interview each other using Work Sheet B-5
6. Some voluntary pairs demonstrate the interview using Work Sheet B-5

Assessment: Checking verb-form in the past perfect tense
1. Students interview each other in pairs and write down the information in Assessment Sheet B-7

Criteria
14-15: Excellent
13-10: Good
9-7: Average
6-3: Poor
2-0: Very Poor
Before the end of his seventh-grade year, Lincoln and his mother had moved from Sycamore, a suburb that blazed with the boredom of television and weekend barbecues with his mother's yuppiefriends. He had left Columbus Junior High and returned to Franklin in San Francisco. He liked that. He had been reunited with Tony, his friend from childhood, the friend who had kicked Lincoln’s baby teeth out—or so the story went, a story that was rehearsed by the families every Christmas.

Lincoln and his mother settled in Noe Valley near the Mission District, where Lincoln had spent his first twelve years. They were in the city, but away from the rumbles, break-ins, graffitied walls, loud barroom music, cholos in wino shoes, veteranos with tattooed arms and pinkish scars, and the scuttling litter of Mission and Twenty-fourth. They settled in a two-bedroom apartment off Dolores Street. His mother was happy because there was a small backyard where she could work the earth into neat rows of petunias, daffodils, and tulips. And she almost jumped up and down with excitement when a single tomato plant took root and reached pathetically skyward for its circle of sunshine.

Before they moved back Lincoln had grown moody. He loathed the suburbs. He had even given up doing his homework. Instead, he played his Hammer cassettes with the volume boosted so high that the walls of his house shook and neighbors complained. He had gotten into fights at school, some he’d won and others—particularly the one against Meathead Bukowski—he’d lost.

cholos: gang member

veteranos: war veterans
Focus Sheet B-1 (con’t)

Background of Lincoln

After Lincoln and his mom moved back to San Francisco in January, he began to study shorinji kempo, a Japanese martial art, at the Soto Zen Center. He had discovered the center one Saturday after he and Tony, barrio brothers in red sneakers, got on the wrong bus and ended up in Japantown.

They kicked around for a while, looking at the vases, lacquer boxes, and pearls in store windows. They bought a box of popcorn and watched girls. They stood among a small cluster of onlookers watching a second-rate magician yank scarves from his sleeve. They watched the cops haul the magician away—a public nuisance because he was pulling down bucks from the crowd.

While walking up Pine Street, they heard grunting sounds. They looked up and saw a blood red sign: two combatants and the words Shorinji Kempo. They followed the grunts and yells down a hallway and were surprised to come to a room full of people working out in white uniforms.

The sensei, a large, barrel-chested Japanese man whose face shone with sweat, welcomed them by pointing to a row of folding chairs along the wall. Their hands squeezes into fists, Lincoln and Tony sat and watched, excited by the kicks, punches, and obviously painful pins and throws. The next week they were taking classes.

Tony quit after two months, but Lincoln stayed, advancing to sankyu—brown belt—in six months. Shorinji kempo didn’t have lots of colored belts. A student went from white to brown, with no rainbow stops in between. The school didn’t go to tournaments, believing that martial art was to be used in a wicked chance meeting in the streets, not as a game for spectators.

Back with his friends at Franklin Junior High, Lincoln improved his grades from C’s to A’s. He turned down the volume of his stereo and did the dishes whenever his mother asked.

He was happy. His dog, Flaco, was happy. His mother was happy and even thinking of marrying her boyfriend, Roy, a guy with bum knees but a good heart.

(Soto, 1992)
Work Sheet B-2

Background of Lincoln

1. Match words and meaning.

suburb _______ combatant _________ loathe _______
grunt _______ yell _________ martial art ________

A. to shout
B. someone who fights in a war
C. a skill used for self-defense and military attack
D. to make a short deep sound from the throat
E. to hate someone or something
F. an area away from the center of a city

2. Write down sentences that contain the past perfect tense. How many sentences can you find from the reading?

3. Look at the sentence below. Which action occurred first, A or B? Discuss the function of the past perfect tense with your partner.

Lincoln and his mother settled in Noe Valley,
A

where Lincoln had spent his first twelve years.
B
Focus Sheet B-3

The Past Perfect Tense

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lincoln</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>You</th>
<th>He</th>
<th>Had</th>
<th>(not)</th>
<th>moved from Sycamore</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>grown moody</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>won fight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>discovered the store</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Past perfect consists of “had” plus the past participle. It is used for action completed before a certain point in the past.

EX: Before they moved back Lincoln had grown moody.

Review the forms of verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>get</td>
<td>got</td>
<td>gotten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grow</td>
<td>grew</td>
<td>grown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leave</td>
<td>spent</td>
<td>left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spend</td>
<td>left</td>
<td>spent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>win</td>
<td>won</td>
<td>won</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Shorinji Kempo is a Japanese Martial Art founded by Doshin So after the Second World War. Shorinji Kempo trains both mentally and physically, promoting the learning and understanding of ourselves and others. Doshin So worked and studied in China, and when he returned to live in Japan, he established his own school based on the techniques he had learned there. Broadly speaking, it can be described as a mixture of Karate, Aikido and Judo, with the main emphasis based on defense and evasion. Shorinji Kempo also teaches that the body and the mind are inseparable, and that the two entities should be trained by the practice of Kempo and Zen meditation, in a sitting (Za-zen) position. In this way the individual may be able to preserve his or her own integrity and so be useful to the world. Shorinji Kempo is now found in 27 countries around the world.

(Brisbane Shorinji Kempo, 2000)
**Work Sheet B-5**  
*Interviewing Lincoln*

1. Fill out the missing information.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Where did you live?</td>
<td>I had lived in __________ and moved back to __________.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When did you move back to San Francisco?</td>
<td>I moved back to San Francisco in __________.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before you moved back, what had you done?</td>
<td>I had _____ up my homework and had _____ into fights at school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What did you begin to study?</td>
<td>I began to study __________.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What did you wear for the Martial Arts?</td>
<td>I wore __________.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you improve your grades at school after you had moved?</td>
<td>_____, I _______.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. In pairs, assume the roles of Interviewer and Lincoln. Interviewer asks Lincoln the questions and examine whether he is the real Lincoln or not. Take turns. Only the real Lincoln can answer all questions!
Assessment Sheet B-6

Background of Lincoln

1. Identify whether the underlined verbs are used correctly or not. Cross out incorrect verbs and write correct forms. (10)

   Before they moved back Lincoln had grew moody. He loathed the suburbs. He had even given up doing his homework. Instead, he played his Hammer cassettes with the volume boosted so high that the walls of his house shook and neighbors complained. He had gotten into fights at school, some he’d win and others--particularly the one against Meathead Bukowski--he’d lost.

2. What is shorinji kempo? Check the boxes. (5)

   □ People wear brown uniforms
   □ It was started from Japan
   □ This is for self-defense
   □ It has many kinds of belts
   □ It involves zen meditation
Instructional Plan C

Lincoln and the Principal

Level: Eighth grade EFL students

Content Objectives:
1. To identify the reasons for flying to Japan and how the main character's feelings were changed

Language Objectives:
1. To increase vocabulary with sociolinguistic perspective
2. To practice the past perfect tense with passive voice
3. To describe what Japan is famous for

Time: 45 minutes

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

Warm-Up: Instructor asks students how they would feel if a principal wanted to talk to them

Task Chain 1: *Increasing vocabulary with sociolinguistic perspective*
1. In groups of three, students read aloud Focus Sheet C-1 by taking turns
2. In the same groups, students match vocabulary and meaning on Work Sheet C-2
3. Instructor asks students how the principal talked to Lincoln and Tony pointing out the use of “busted” and “crummy”

Task Chain 2: *Practicing the past perfect tense with passive voice*
1. In the same groups, students find sentences containing the past perfect tense and underline them
2. Instructor explains the sentence containing the past perfect tense with passive voice
3. Students work on Work Sheet C-3 in the same groups

Task Chain 3: *Describing what Japan is famous for*
1. Instructor asks students what Lincoln thought of Japan
2. Students write what they think of Japan individually (Work Sheet C-4)
3. Students share answers in the groups and with the class
Assessment: Checking language understanding
1. Students take Assessment Sheet C-5
   Criteria                                           9: Excellent
                                                   8-7: Good
                                                   6-4: Average
                                                   3-2: Poor
                                                   1-0: Very Poor
Focus Sheet C-1

Lincoln and the Principal

One day at school while Lincoln was in metal shop welding two pieces of pipe together, the teacher, Mr. Parish, his mouth full of half-chomped sandwich, called, “Mendoza. Mr. Ayala wants to see you.”

Mr. Ayala was the principal, an ex-cop who had worked the Haight-Ashbury during San Francisco’s hippie days. He was tough, and proud of the ridged knife scar on his forearm. Few boys talked back to him, but when one did, Mr. Ayala would push him against the wall, a huge hand around the boy’s skinny neck, and hiss, “Wise guy, huh?”

Lincoln was baffled by the summons. He dipped the pipe into a trough of gray water, sending up a cloud of metallic steam that stung his nose. He took off his apron and washed his hands, wondering what he had done wrong.

As he walked across the lawn to Principal Ayala’s office, he searched his mind for a clue to his fall from grace. He was certain his record was clean. Then he stopped in his tracks as he recalled that yesterday at break he and Tony had gotten an armful of empty milk cartons and hurled them one by one at the mouth of a garbage can. They had joked and played; and when the bell sounded, the milk cartons were left on the ground, oozing white dribbles of milk. What was the big deal? Lincoln thought, But, feeling guilty, he gathered pieces of litter—gum wrappers, Popsicle sticks, paper cups, and crushed milk cartons—as he made his way to the office.

But the smiling, pencil-tapping Mr. Ayala sat Lincoln down and told him that he wasn’t in trouble.

“What do you think of Japan?” the principal asked. It was still morning, but his face showed the traces of a five o’clock shadow. His tie was loose, and the cuffs of his shirt were rolled up. His scar was pink in the morning light.
Focus Sheet C-1 (con’t)

Lincoln and the Principal

“It’s far away.” Lincoln responded doubtfully. “They make good cars.”

“Wise guy, huh?” Mr. Ayala said, smirking. He explained that a school district in Japan was looking for exchange students for the summer. The student would not have to go to school; he would just stay with a family. The principal had thought of Lincoln because he knew he was taking “some kind of karate.”

Lincoln was curious. His mind formed an image of a dojo and a sensei sitting in meditation before a bowl of incense. He pictured snowcapped mountains and cherry blossoms parachuting from black branches. He pictured himself as a boy warrior in a white gi stained with the blood of enemies.

“You mean I could go to Japan? Me?” Lincoln asked.

“Yes, you. You’ll be an exchange student. You know, a goodwill gesture,” Mr. Ayala remarked. He bent a paper clip.

Just then Tony walked into the office looking guilty and smelling of hair oil. Tony seemed to be about to confess to doing something wrong when Lincoln whispered, “ Cállate. You ain’t in trouble.”

The principal laughed. “You think you’re busted, huh Tony?” Mr. Ayala said as he pointed Tony to a chair. “And what do you think of Japan?”

Tony rubbed his chin. “They make good cars, I guess.” His eyes were shining. “Am I right?”

“Another wise guy, huh?” Mr. Ayala said, smiling so the lines on his face deepened. He told Tony about the student-exchange program. He said that he was nominating them because they had shown an interest in Japan by taking martial arts.

 Cállate: be quiet
“Your grades are crummy,” Mr. Ayala said as he opened the folder that held Tony’s school records. “But it could do you good to see another country. I want you to make us proud. ¿Entiendes?”

Lincoln and Tony nodded.

“I’ll talk with your parents,” Mr. Ayala said. He threw the paperclip at the wastebasket. He missed by a foot, easy. “There will be costs involved. Six hundred dollars for airfare.”

“Six hundred?” they both said.

“Don’t worry. The PTA will pay for half. You two better go cut some lawns.”

Lincoln and Tony left the office bewildered. They had seldom been invited anywhere, and now they were being invited to Japan.

“But I quit kempō,” Tony said.

“He doesn’t know that. Don’t say anything.”

Lincoln punched Tony in the arm and returned to metal shop, wondering how he and Tony were going to get the money for airfare when sometimes it was difficult to get bus fare. That was the only drawback. Too bad it was such a big one. Maybe his mother would give him some of her savings. He would have to treat her nice for the rest of the century, if not longer.

That night Lincoln told his mother about the student-exchange program, “But it’s going to cost us at least three hundred for airfare,” he added.

¿Entiendes?: Do you understand?
Lincoln’s mother was happy for her son. When she was his age, fourteen, she had wanted to go to France as an exchange student, but her family hadn’t had the money to send her.

“Money grows on trees,” she said, eyes twinkling. “You’re going, mi’jo.”

Lincoln knew what that meant. In her bedroom his mother had hung the key to their safe on the limb of a ficus plant. When the time came, she would snatch that key off the limb and open the safe.

At Tony’s house, the family’s savings were kept in the refrigerator, smashed in the back of the freezer compartment between a package of frozen peas and a one-eyed salmon that Tony’s uncle had caught in Alaska.

Both boys would go to Japan with wads of spending money, because both mothers knew how to save and save, even rainy days.

(Soto, 1992)

mi’jo: my son
Work Sheet C-2

Vocabulary Development

Direction: Choose meaning of the underlined words from the box and write down the letter corresponding to each word.

_____ Lincoln was curious.

_____ Tony walked into the office looking guilty.

_____ Tony seemed to be about to confess to doing something wrong.

_____ A school district in Japan was looking for exchange students for the summer.

_____ You think you’re busted.

_____ Your grades are crummy.

_____ Lincoln and Tony left the office bewildered.

_____ They had seldom been invited anywhere.

_____ That was the only drawback.

A. an arrangement in which students, teacher etc. visits another country to work or study
B. to admit something, especially guilt for something bad
C. (informal) arrested
D. very rarely
E. something that can cause trouble
F. wanting to know
G. very confused and not sure what to do or think
H. (informal) bad or unpleasant
I. ashamed and sad because she/he has done something that she/he knows is wrong

(Rideout, 2000)
(Summers & Gadsby, 2000)
Worksheet C-3

The Past Perfect Tense with Passive Voice

The "had + been + past participle" means the past perfect tense with passive voice. Look at the following chart.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lincoln and Tony</th>
<th>had</th>
<th>(not)</th>
<th>been</th>
<th>invited discovered by Lincoln scolded by Lincoln</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The center</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tony</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The procedure of making passive voice is shown as following:

Ex: Tony’s uncle had caught a salmon.
A salmon had been caught by Tony’s uncle.

Direction: fill out the blanks to complete sentences with passive voice.

1. Lincoln had read two books.
   Two books ____________________________________________.

2. Lincoln and Tony had played cards.
   Cards ________________________________________________.

3. Lincoln and Tony had gotten an armful of empty milk cartons.
   An armful of empty milk cartons _________________________.

4. Lincoln’s mother had hung the key on the limb of a plant.
   The key on the limb of a plant _________________________.


**Work Sheet C-4**

*Images of Japan*

Direction: When Lincoln thought of Japan, what images came out? Write his images of Japan below. Then, write down your images of Japan and compare the answer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lincoln’s images of Japan</th>
<th>Your images of Japan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Assessment Sheet C-5

*Lincoln and the Principal*

1. The following are the principal’s words.
   “You think you’re busted, huh Tony?” “Your grades are crummy.”
   How did the Principal talk to Lincoln and Tony? Circle two of them. (2)
   
   formally informal
   friendly unfriendly

2. Look at the sentence below. (3)
   Lincoln and Tony had seldom been invited anywhere.
   
   A.) Is this sentence active or passive?
   
   B.) Write the form of the past perfect tense.
   
   C.) Circle the meaning of “seldom” from below.
   never very rarely sometimes always

3. Change the voice and complete the sentences. (4)
   
   A) Lincoln and Tony had gotten an armful of empty milk cartons.
   An armful of empty milk cartons
   ________________________________
   ________________________________

   B) Lincoln’s mother had hung the key on the limb of a plant.
   The key on the limb of a plant
   ________________________________
   ________________________________
Instructional Plan D

Arriving in Japan

Level: Eighth grade EFL students

Content Objectives:
1. To understand what the characters did after they arrived in Japan
2. To project how students would feel if they were the characters

Language Objectives:
1. To understand shifts in the ways characters talk
2. To master use of the past perfect tense

Time: 45 minutes

Materials: Focus Sheet D-1, Focus Sheet D-2, Work Sheet D-3, Focus Sheet D-4, Work Sheet D-5, and Assessment Sheet D-6

Warm-Up: Instructor asks students why Lincoln and Tony were on the airplane. Students answer orally.

Task Chain 1: Understanding shifts of the ways characters talk
1. In groups of three, students read aloud the text (Focus Sheet D-1) taking turns
2. Instructor explains major vocabulary (Focus Sheet D-2)
3. Students work on Work Sheet D-3 in the same groups
4. Each group presents their answer orally in front of the class

Task Chain 2: Mastering the past perfect tense
1. Instructor gives students questions (on Focus Sheet D-4) orally, and students write the answer on Work Sheet D-5
2. In pairs, students exchange their work sheets and correct them when the instructor gives them the answer orally

Assessment: Checking content understanding
1. Students work on Assessment Sheet D-6

Criteria
11: Excellent
10-8: Good
7-5: Average
4-3: Poor
2-0: Very Poor
Focus Sheet D-1

Arriving in Japan

The jet dipped, and its engines rumbled as its speed slowed. Lincoln woke to see Tony looking at him.

"You got moco in your eyes," Tony told him, rubbing his own eyes.

Lincoln wiped his eyes and yawned with a hand over his mouth.

“What time is it?” Lincoln asked. “I feel lousy.”

“I don’t know, bro’. Seem like we were born on this jet. Is Japan near the moon?”

The Fasten Seatbelts sign lit up and the stewardess came down the aisle, speaking in Japanese, then English, collecting empty cups and glasses.

“She forgot us Spanish-speaking gente,” Tony quipped. “Señorita, mi amigo es muy feo y un tonto también.”

The woman smiled, her eyes crinkling into triangles. “No, chaval, su amigo es lindo y listo.”

Lincoln and Tony looked at each other, big-eyed with surprise.

“Fresh! She knows Spanish!” they said. They laughed and looked out the window, where a flower of lights from Tokyo glowed against the night sky. Soon they could distinguish buildings, and large freighters docked in the harbor. The jet slowly descended through wispy clouds. They could make out houses, hills, factories, a bridge, and a river of lights—cars on a freeway. They could see a train and, as they dropped lower, a Japanese sign advertising Coca-Cola.

moco: mucus

gente: people

señorita, mi amigo es muy feo y un tonto también:
lady, my friend is very ugly and a fool, also

no, chaval, su amigo es lindo y listo:
no, boy, your friend is handsome and smart
Focus Sheet D-1 (con’t)

Arriving in Japan

As the jet landed, the passengers sighed, and some clapped. It had been a long journey--almost nine hours of stale air, cramped seats, and magazines read and reread.

They went through customs, and the white-gloved officers searched handbags and carry-ons. Passports were brought out. Tony joked about being caught and frisked by la migra. He kept joking until Lincoln told him to shut up.

“Can’t you think of anything else to say?” Lincoln scolded.

“Yeah, what am I doing here? I don’t take martial arts. You’re the dude. I coulda been workin’ at my uncle Rudy’s restaurant and makin’ money instead of spendin’ it.”

“Who wants to work? You got your whole life to do that.”

“Yeah, you’re right,” Tony agreed.

They went through customs without a hitch. As they walked up a ramp to meet their host families, Lincoln hoped that he and Tony would see each other soon.

Back in California, they had taken a week of orientation classes with other young people going to Japan through the same exchange program. Now they were on their own. They were the only students staying in Atami, a small farming village three hours outside Tokyo. Lincoln was with the Ono family, and Tony would be with the Inaba family. Both lived on tiny one-acre farms, Lincoln knew that his sponsor worked for the railroad, that his wife took care of their small farm, and that they had a son near in his age. He looked forward to his days in Japan. He wanted to study kempo, and to learn speak some Japanese. He had six weeks to do it.

“This is weird,” Lincoln heard Toney say as he was swallowed up by a cluster of people. The whole Inaba family—father, mother, and son—smiled, bowed over and over, and welcomed Tony with little gifts wrapped in beautifully designed paper.

(Soto, 1992)

la migra: immigration authorities
Focus Sheet D-2

Vocabulary Development

moco (mucus)
- a liquid produced by parts of your body

ousy
- (informal) very bad
EX: I feel lousy.

hitch
- a small problem that causes a delay
EX: The performance went off without a hitch.

customs
- the place where passengers’ bags are checked for illegal goods when they go into a country

la migra (immigration authorities)
- the place in an airport where officials check passengers’ documents, such as passport

bow
- to bend one’s head and upper body
EX: The students bowed to their teacher.

(Kihara & Fukumura, 1994)
(Summers & Gadsby, 2000)
Work Sheet D-3

Shifting the Ways of Talking

Answer the following questions.

1. What language do Lincoln and Tony speak besides English? What are *moco*, *gente*, and *la migra*?

2. Why were Lincoln and Tony surprised when the stewardess replied to them?

3. Did Lincoln and Tony talk formally or informally? Give examples.

4. When do you talk informally?

Hint: The pronunciation of "coulda," "workin'," "makin'," and "spendin'" are very informal.

"I coulda been workin' at my uncle Rudy's restaurant and makin' money instead of spendin' it."

= "I could have been working at my uncle Rudy's restaurant and making money instead of spending it."
Focus Sheet D-4

Reading Comprehension

1. “Lincoln wiped his eyes and yawned with a hand over his mouth.” What does yawn mean?

2. Did Lincoln and Tony arrive in Japan?

3. Had it been a long journey?

4. What kind of classes had Lincoln and Tony taken in California?

5. Who was Lincoln’s host family?

6. What did Lincoln want to do in Japan?
Work Sheet D-5

Reading Comprehension

1. Yawn means ____________________________________________________________

2. Yes No (Circle one)

3. Yes No

4. They ________________________________________________________________

5. ________________________________________________________________

6. He wanted to _________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________
Assessment Sheet D-6

Arriving in Japan

1. Put these in order that corresponds to the reading. (5)
   A. Lincoln and Tony were surprised because the flight attendant knew Spanish
   B. Lincoln and Tony had taken orientation classes
   C. The airplane landed
   D. Lincoln and Tony met their host families
   E. Lincoln and Tony went through customs

   _____ ➔ _____ ➔ _____ ➔ _____ ➔ _____

2. Answer the following questions. (6)
   A. What language do Lincoln and Tony speak?

   B. The conversation between Lincoln and Tony shows that their relationship is... (Circle one)

   pretty close       not close

   C. What is the action of bending one's head and upper body?
Instructional Plan E

Talking with Mr. Ono

Level: Eighth grade EFL students

Content Objectives:
1. To understand the plot
2. To share cultural differences in greeting

Language Objectives:
1. To describe what the characters did
2. To learn two nonverbal communicative strategies through the reading

Time: 45 minutes

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

Warm-Up: Instructor reviews the story. Two voluntary students role-play meeting with a host family in the United States

Task Chain 1: Describing what the characters did
1. Students read Focus Sheet E-1 silently
2. Selected students read the text aloud
3. Instructor explains new vocabulary using Focus Sheet E-2
4. Instructor divides students into two and forms group of three in the two groups
5. On Work Sheet E-3, half of the groups discuss and write what Lincoln did, and the other half the groups work on what Mr. Ono did
6. The first groups and the second groups share their answers

Task Chain 2: Learning two nonverbal communicative strategies through the reading
1. Students and the instructor discuss description of Mr. Ono and communicative strategies
2. Students fill out Work Sheet E-4

Assessment: Writing an essay
1. Using Assessment Sheet E-5, students write an essay based on the work of Work Sheet E-3.
2. Students hand in Assessment Sheet E-5 and Work Sheet E-3 to the instructor. Use Standards for Writing Assessment to grade.

Criteria
5: Excellent
4: Good
3: Average
2: Poor
1: Very Poor
Talking with Mr. Ono

Mr. Ono bowed and asked, “Mr. Lincoln Mendoza?”

Lincoln stood before a small man with watery eyes. His dignified face was lined and dark. It bespoke the long haul of providing for a family. Lincoln bowed a little more deeply than his sponsor. “Yes, I’m Lincoln Mendoza. Thanks for having me.”

“Good,” Mr. Ono remarked. He pumped Lincoln’s outstretched hand, and Lincoln could feel the power of a working man’s grip.

Shouldering his flight bag, Lincoln turned and saw Tony giving a raza-style handshake to Mr. Inaba. Tony was laughing, and his sponsor was smiling and asking to see the handshake again.

“¡Órale, Papi!” Tony screamed. “You got it down!”

Nine thousand miles from home, thought Lincoln, and Tony’s acting like a regular vato. Lincoln called, “See ya in town,” and Tony, playing up the homeboy image, raised a clenched fist and shouted, “¡Viva la Raza!”

Lincoln hurried alongside Mr. Ono. They walked briskly, sliding between the rush of travelers racing to catch their flights.

They gathered the luggage, and only in the car did Mr. Ono say in near-perfect English. “My family is waiting at home.” Lincoln’s head jerked as the car shifted into second, then third, rumbling from a bad muffler.

raza: Latino people

¡Órale, Papi!: alright, Dad!

vato: dude

¡Viva la Raza!: Hurray for the Mexican people!
Lincoln watched Tokyo unfold from the freeway. The evening skyline was bright with neon and skyscrapers. Street-long oil tankers lay docked in the harbor, where the moonlight failed to shimmer on the dark water. A tall radio antenna stood on a hill, a stalk of red lights blinking slowly.

Lincoln thought Tokyo resembles San Francisco, where houses stood against the backdrop of the bay.

The billboards on the side of the freeway advertised in Kanji, Japanese writing, with now and then an English words like “shampoo” or “luxury.” He couldn’t understand the kanji but could easily understand that they were announcing cars, cigarettes, beer, and liquor—the same products as in the United States.

The drivers were just as crazy as in San Francisco, but the honking cars seemed quieter, less obnoxious. The traffic was stop-and-go until they reached a four-lane highway that would take them out of the city.

“Tokyo’s like America,” Lincoln said, smiling and trying to make conversation. “You know, we even have our own Cherry Blossom Festival. In San Francisco.”

“Yes,” Mr. Ono said, braking so hard that Lincoln had to hold on to the dashboard. “Yes, yes.” A car was stalled in the left lane. Mr. Ono wiggled his steering wheel as he maneuvered dangerously into the next lane.

“I’m from San Francisco,” Lincoln continued. “We’re right on a bay like Tokyo.”

“Yes, but America is very large,” Mr. Ono said as he swerved back into the left lane, his eyes looking in the mirror. “It is big as the sky.” A car honked at them, but Mr. Ono ignored it.

Big as the sky, Lincoln thought. He didn’t know how to respond. He turned his attention to the harbor and its huge freighters weighed down with exports. Lincoln thought of his mother’s car, a Maxima made in Japan, and how it was closing in on a hundred thousand miles without a breakdown. It was dented on one side, and the back window was cracked from when Tony accidentally slammed it with a bat.
Talking with Mr. Ono

The muggy air made Lincoln feel lousy. Sweat blotched his underarms and pasted his shirt to his skin. It was July, one of the hottest times in Tokyo, and the cement and asphalt still blazed from the punishing daytime sun. Lincoln looked at a Coca-Cola sign and ran his tongue over his lips, thirsting for one precious swallow.

Mr. Ono noticed; he reached into the backseat and pulled a bottle from a bag. *Ramune. It’s good. Can you say?*

Lincoln took the bottle and turned it over. *Ramune, he said under his breath.*

Mr. Ono opened the bottle by pushing down on the top, dislodging a marble stopper. Lincoln took a long, serious swallow, which cleared his throat and made him feel good. He looked at the characters on the label but couldn’t figure out if the drink was soda or juice.

“What is it again?”

“*Ramune. It’s good for you, Lincoln-kun.*”

Lincoln shrugged his shoulders, drank until the bottle was empty, and placed the bottle in the backseat. “That was good.” He beamed. “Thanks.”

Soon the city gave way to a patchwork of small farms rippling with stalks of rice lit by the July moonlight. As the car picked up speed, the fender rattled. Lincoln had noticed when they got in the car that the fender was old and buckled. He had seen that Mr. Ono was dressed plainly and that his hands were as rough as the hands of Lincoln’s uncle Ray, a radiator man. He had imagined that everyone in Japan was doing well, living off the riches of high-tech computers and first-rate cars. But he had been wrong.

(Soto, 1992)
Focus Sheet E-2

Vocabulary Development

His **dignified** face was lined and dark.
- calm, serious, proud, and making people feel respect

He **pumped** Lincoln’s outstretch hand.
- move vigorously up and down

They walked **briskly**.
- quickly and energetically

Tokyo **resembles** San Francisco.
- to look alike

The honking cars seemed quieter, less **obnoxious**.
- extremely unpleasant or rude

Mr. Ono **wiggled** his steering wheel.
- to make small movement from side to side

Lincoln **shrugged** his shoulders.
- to lift the shoulders upward as a sign of not caring or not knowing

“**That was good.**” He **beamed**.
- to smile or look at someone in a very happy way

As the car picked up speed, the **fender rattled**.
- the part of a car that covers the wheels
  - to shake with quick repeated knocking sounds

(Rideout, 2000)
(Summers & Gadsby, 2000)
Work Sheet E-3

Understanding Plot

Direction: Write what Lincoln and Mr. Ono did in the following settings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Lincoln</th>
<th>Mr. Ono</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>At the airport</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>In the car</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Work Sheet E-4

Talking with Mr. Ono

1. Circle correct words that correspond the explanation of Mr. Ono from the reading.

   A. He was a (big/small) man.
   B. His dignified face was (light/dark).
   C. He was dressed (nicely/plainly).
   D. His hands (were/were not) rough.
   E. He had (stubble/scar) on his chin.
   F. He looked (energetic/tired).

2. Have you noticed that Lincoln and Mr. Ono bowed and shook hands? What do these actions imply? Fill out the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Which culture</th>
<th>Formal/informal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bow</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>handshake</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. In informal situation, how do we usually greet people?

4. If you were Lincoln, how would you greet Mr. Ono? Explain.
Assessment Sheet E-5

Talking with Mr. Ono

Direction: What did Lincoln and Mr. Ono do at the airport? What happened to them in Mr. Ono’s car? Write an essay based on the information on Work Sheet E-3.
## Assessment Sheet E-5 (con’t)

*Standards for Writing Assessment*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Standard</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 5     | - Conveys meaning clearly and effectively  
        - Presents multi-paragraph organization logically  
        - Uses varied and vivid vocabulary consistently  
        - Writes with few grammatical/mechanical errors  |
| 4     | - Conveys meaning clearly  
        - Presents multi-paragraph organization  
        - Uses varied and vivid vocabulary appropriately  
        - Writes with few grammatical/mechanical errors seldom diminish meaning  |
| 3     | - Expresses ideas coherently most of the time  
        - Develops a logical paragraph  
        - Chooses vocabulary that is adequate to purpose  
        - Writes with grammatical/mechanical errors that sometimes diminish meaning  |
| 2     | - Attempts to express ideas coherently  
        - Writes primarily simple sentences  
        - Uses high frequency words; may have difficulty with word order; omits endings or words  
        - Writes with grammatical/mechanical errors that often diminish meaning  |
| 1     | - Begins to convey meaning  
        - Writes simple sentences/phrases  
        - Spells inventively  
        - Uses limited or repetitious vocabulary  |
Instructional Plan F

Welcome, Lincoln!

Level: Eighth grade EFL students

Content Objectives:
1. To understand the sequence of conversation
2. To use nonverbal communication in a social setting

Language Objectives:
1. To answer questions about the reading orally and be familiar with idioms and conversational phrases
2. To increase communicative strategies in English

Time: 45 minutes

Materials: Focus Sheet F-1, Focus Sheet F-2, Work Sheet F-3, Focus Sheet F-4, Work Sheet F-5, Focus Sheet F-6, and Assessment Sheet F-7

Warm-Up: Students review the members of the Ono family

Task Chain 1: Answering questions orally and understanding idioms
1. In pairs, students read Focus Sheet F-1 aloud
2. Instructor asks students meaning of the words and explain them using Focus Sheet F-2
3. Instructor tells students that they will be asked some questions, and the instructor reads the text aloud
4. Students work on Work Sheet F-3 in groups of three and share answers in the class
5. Instructor explains idioms and conversational expressions seen in the texts using Focus Sheet F-4
6. Voluntary students make sentences using the expressions

Task Chain 2: Increasing communicative strategies in English
1. Students work on #1 and #2 of Work Sheet F-5 individually
2. The answers of #1 and #2 are provided by instructor orally
3. In pairs, students practice #3 of Work Sheet F-5
4. In the same pairs, students practice conversation on Focus Sheet F-6 and prepare for role-play
Assessment: *Checking communicative strategies*

1. In pairs, students perform the conversation between Lincoln and his host family. Use Performance Standards to grade.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5: Excellent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4: Good</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3: Average</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2: Poor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1: Very Poor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Focus Sheet F-1

Welcome, Lincoln!

Lincoln fell asleep. When he woke, the car was pulling into a driveway. A cat’s eyes were lit by the headlights. The sky was no longer filled with the harsh, blistering light of the city. It was black, stars pulsating above. Crickets chattered in the grasses. A dog barked in the distance. A radio was playing classical music. They had driven nearly 150 miles, and Tokyo was gone.

Lincoln ran a moist hand over his face, stretched, and yawned. He felt dirty, his shirt was stiff with dried sweat, and his mouth was sour from not having brushed his teeth since breakfast, many time zones ago, when he’d been in California. He opened the car door and lowered a leg stiffly to the ground. He was “home,” and home was a small western-style house on a tiny farm. He could smell the vegetables in the field. He could smell the faint stinks of chickens and compost. The moon hung, silver and round as a nickel, between two trees.

Lincoln got out of the car slowly, trying his best to show his happiness to the Onos and their son, Mitsuo.

“Welcome, Lincoln,” Mrs. Ono said, bowing. “You must be tired.”

Lincoln bowed and said, “Yes, I’m tired. Thank you for having me.”

Mrs. Ono seemed taller than her husband. She reminded Lincoln of his own mother, big-boned and dark, with a smile that made him smile back. She was dressed in jeans and a plaid blouse, and her hair was pinned back into a bun.

Lincoln couldn’t help himself; he blurted out, “You look like my mom.”

“My English is not so good,” the mother said as she helped with the luggage. “Please say again.”

“Oh, I mean, thank you for having me,” Lincoln said, and he bit his tongue. He shouldered his backpack and took the luggage from Mrs. Ono. “I can do it.” Lincoln waddled under the heaviness of the luggage as he followed the Onos into the house.

Only when the family stared at Lincoln’s shoes did realize that he should take them off. He banged his head with the heel of his palm and said, “Oops, sorry.” They smiled, and Mrs. Ono handed him a pair of slippers.
Focus Sheet F-1 (con’t)

Welcome, Lincoln!

“Would you like something to drink?” Mitsuo asked. Mitsuo was as tall as Lincoln. But while Lincoln’s hair was long, almost straggly, Mitsuo’s hair was cropped to almost nothing. He was strong. When he took the luggage from Lincoln, his biceps tightened over his chest, showing two plates of muscle and fresh.

“Ramune, please,” Lincoln said.

The mother and son looked at each other, surprised. Mitsuo went to the kitchen for four ramune and they settled in the living room. They looked at each other, smiling and drinking. Lincoln’s arms felt limp, his head heavy as a boulder; and his eyes small from lack of sleep.

In careful English Mitsuo asked, “Do you play baseball?”

“No, basketball. But I like baseball. I played Little League for two years.”

“Basketball is not so popular here. Baseball is our game. I play the outfield.”

While Lincoln nursed his drink, the heaviness of sleep settled on him. He rubbed his eyes, yawned, and sat up straight, trying to keep awake. His host family seemed ready for Lincoln to tell them something about himself. “Baseball. I ah …” Lincoln couldn’t concentrate; his mind kept sliding into fatigue.

“Do you like the San Francisco Giants? We have Tokyo Giants.”

“Yes, plenty of times,” Lincoln responded, thinking he had been asked if he had seen the Giants play at Candlestick Park. He drained his drink and watched his host family talk, their mouths moving as they asked questions. Lincoln opened his mouth into a yawn as wide as a hat. He fell asleep on the couch, an empty bottle of ramune in his hands.

(Soto, 1992)
Focus Sheet F-2

Vocabulary Development

pulsate
  – to make sounds or movements that are strong and regular like a heart beating
  EX: pulsating star

stiff
  – difficult to bend or move
  EX: His shirt was stiff with dried sweat.

stiffly
  – with difficult
  EX: stand stiffly

straggly
  – growing or spreading out in a messy
  EX: straggly hair

crop
  – to make something smaller or shorter by cutting it
  EX: cropped hair

limp
  – without strength or firmness
  EX: His arm felt limp.

boulder
  – a large stone or piece of rock

(Summers & Gadsby, 2000)
Welcome, Lincoln!

Direction: Answer the following questions.

1. List characters in the reading

2. How far did Mr. Ono drive?

3. What could Lincoln smell when he opened the car?

4. Who was Mitsuo?

5. Was Lincoln’s hair long or short?

6. Does Lincoln like baseball?

7. Lincoln “rubbed his eyes, yawned, and sat up straight, trying to keep awake.” What did his action imply?
Focus Sheet F-4

New Expressions

couldn’t help (can’t help)
  - unable to stop doing something
  EX: I couldn’t help laughing.

blurt out
  - to say something suddenly without thinking, usually because one is nervous
    or excited
  EX: Lincoln blurted out, “You look like my mom.”

bite one’s tongue
  - to try hard not to say what one thinks or feels
  EX: Lincoln said, and he bit his tongue.

Would you like…?
  polite expression to make offers
  EX: “Would you like something to drink?” “Tea, please.”

I mean
  1) said when you want to quickly change what you have just said
     EX: “She plays the violin, I mean the viola.”
  2) said when you stop to think about what to say next
     EX: “She’s just so nice. I mean, she’s a really gentle person.”

(Summers & Gadsby, 2000)
Worksheet F-5

Communicative Strategies

1. Circle A, B, or C.
   Mrs. Otto said "Please say again" to...
   A. agree with what Lincoln had said
   B. ask Lincoln to repeat what was said
   C. persuade Lincoln

2. What is the function of "I mean" in the reading? Circle one.
   A. Lincoln wanted to quickly change what he had just said
   B. Lincoln stopped to think about what to say next

3. Choose phrases from the boxes and practice conversation with your partner.
   A "You look like ______ 1 _______."
   B "Please say again?"
   A "I mean, ______ 2 _______."

   BOX 1
   my mom
   my dad
   my brother
   my sister
   my uncle
   my dog

   BOX 2
   thank you for having me
   I can carry my luggage
   thank you for helping me
   nice to meet you
   it was a long journey
   I'm from San Francisco
Focus Sheet F-6

Welcome, Lincoln!

In pairs, practice the following conversation between Lincoln and his host family (Mrs. Ono and Mitsuo). Add gestures and facial expression if possible. You can substitute the underlined part for Box 2 on Work Sheet F-5

Lincoln: “You look like my mom!”

Mrs. Ono: “My English is not so good. Please say it again.”

Lincoln: “I mean, thank you for having me.”

Mitsuo: “Would you like something to drink?”

Lincoln: “Ramune, please.”
### Assessment Sheet F-7

**Performance Standards**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Standard to be achieved for the performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 5     | - Communicates completely in social classroom setting  
       |   - Speaks fluently  
       |   - Uses varied vocabulary |
| 4     | - Speaks in social and classroom settings with sustained and connected discourse  
       |   - Any hesitations do not interfere with communication  
       |   - Uses adequate vocabulary and structures |
| 3     | - Initiates and sustains a conversation with descriptors and details; begins to communicate in classroom settings  
       |   - Speaks with occasional hesitation  
       |   - Uses adequate vocabulary; some word usage irregularities |
| 2     | - Begins to communicate personal and survival needs  
       |   - Speaks in single-word utterances  
       |   - Requires repetitions |
| 1     | - Begins to name concrete objects  
       |   - Repeats words and phrases  
       |   - Understands little or no English |

Comment: ____________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________

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Instructional Plan G

Field Work

Level: Eighth grade EFL students

Content Objectives:
1. To understand the sequence of the story
2. To participate group activities

Language Objectives:
1. To explain Japanese words in English
2. To understand use of “would like to” and “would”
3. To describe what Lincoln did on the first day in Japan

Time: 45 minutes

Materials: Pens and drawing paper, Focus Sheet G-1, Focus Sheet G-2, Work Sheet G-3, Focus Sheet G-4, Work Sheet G-5, and Assessment Sheet G-6

Warm-Up: Instructor reviews the story and asks students what they expect will happen next. The instructor writes students’ answer on board

Task Chain 1: Explaining Japanese words in English
1. Instructor reads Focus Sheet G-1 aloud
2. Students and the instructor discuss their predictions
3. Instructor asks students meaning of vocabulary orally (Focus Sheet G-2)
4. In pairs, students work on Work Sheet G-3 and practice explaining Japanese words in English

Task Chain 2: Understanding use of “would”
1. Instructor explains use of “would” to students using Focus Sheet G-4
2. Instructor asks students to read aloud the examples on Focus Sheet G-4

Task Chain 3: Describing what Lincoln did on the first day in Japan
1. In groups of four, students discuss what Lincoln did and write it down on Work Sheet G-5
2. Each group makes a poster that describes Lincoln’s first day in Japan based on Work Sheet G-5. The poster should include sentences with pictures corresponding to each sentence.
Assessment: Checking students' understanding and attitude of group work

1. Students turn in the posters they made
2. Students answer questions and self-evaluate themselves using Assessment Sheet G-6

Criteria

9: Excellent
8-7: Good
6-4: Average
3-2: Poor
1-0: Very Poor
Focus Sheet G-1

Field Work

Lincoln woke to the buzz of a fly circling above him. He slowly opened his eyes, stared at the ceiling and muttered to himself, “I’m in Japan.”

He rolled out of his futon and tried to get up but sat back down, feeling dizzy and lethargic. He lay back with a sigh, and after a few minutes of starting at the hypnotic figure eights of the circling fly, he fell asleep again. When he woke a second time, Mitsuo was standing over him, pounding his fist into a baseball glove. The room was hot, sunlight slanting in from an open window. Two flies were circling the air where there had been only one.

“Lincoln-kun, are you awake?”

Lincoln propped himself upon his elbow, blinking sleep from his eyes. “Yeah, I was tired from the flight. What time is it?”

“Lunchtime. Do you like rāmen? Haha is in the field. Chichi is working at the station.”

“Who?”

‘Haha’ is ‘Mother,’ and ‘Chichi’ is ‘Father,’” Mitsuo explained. He places his glove in the closet and pulled back the curtain so that sunlight flooded the room. “Come on, let’s eat.”

Lincoln rose, washed quickly in the bathroom, and joined Mitsuo in the kitchen. They ate in silence, watching each other and smiling now and then. Lincoln liked Mitsuo. “You are good with hashi,” Mitsuo complimented.

“You mean, chopsticks?”

“Yes, ‘chopsticks.’ Very funny word. We have spoons if you need one.”

Lincoln sucked in a cheekful of noodles. He wanted to tell Mitsuo that he ate mostly using a tortilla, but how, on the first day, could he explain that he was both Mexican and American? He drained the broth of his rāmen. Maybe later I’ll tell them about Mexican food, he thought as he wiped his mouth with a paper napkin.

Mitsuo got up and said, “I have to get back to work. You rest.”

“No, I’ll help,” Lincoln said, taking his bowl to the sink.
“You are our guest.”

“No, please. I want to help.”

Mitsuo thought for a moment. “OK, but let me get you something.” He left and returned with a long-sleeved work shirt.

“Here.” Mitsuo handed Lincoln the shirt. “The flies will bite if you don’t wear a shirt. And use this hat.”

Lincoln put on the hat and looked at himself reflected in the kitchen window. He liked what he saw. “My mom would be proud. She used to work in the fields.”

“Your mother is a farmer?” Mitsuo asked, lacing up his boots. “Here, wear Father’s boots.”

“No, but she used to pick grapes when she was little. Now she works in an office.” Lincoln picked up the boots, whose tips were curled, and stuffed his feet into them.

The two of them joined Mrs. Ono, who was knee-deep in eggplant leaves. The family would harvest in a month, but now, in early July, the eggplant fruits balloons. The vegetables needed to be weeded, irrigated, and examined for worms.

“Nasu,” Mitsuo said and pointed to the eggplant.

“Nasu,” Lincoln repeated.

Lincoln knew nothing about work, though he used to wash his uncle’s BMW for money and cut a few lawns. Most of his relatives had once worked in the fields chopping cotton, cutting grapes, and picking oranges, cantaloupes, and almonds on the west side of the San Joaquin Valley. But field work—even in a one-acre patch of eggplant, his least favorite vegetable, and three rows of tomato plants—was something new to Lincoln. He felt proud as he staggered about in oversized boots, a hat shading his eyes from the sun.

Mrs. Ono looked up. “Good morning, Lincoln-kun.” She looked skyward. “No, good afternoon.”

“I was so sleepy,” Lincoln said. And even now, though it was midday, he felt groggy from the flight. “I’m sorry I woke up late.”
Focus Sheet G-1 (con’t)

Field Work

“It was a long trip,” Mrs. Ono said. Her face was hidden in the shadow of her hat; mud clung to her boots. “Did you eat?”

“Rāmen.”

“Do you like rāmen?”

“Of course,” Lincoln said good-naturedly as he took the hoe from her. He saw a ribbon of sweat roll down her cheek, and flakes of dirt on her brow. “You rest. Mitsuo and I will finish up.”

“Lincoln-kun would like to help,” Mitsuo said.

Mrs. Ono turned to Lincoln. “But you are our guest.”

“I want to help, though.”

“But if you are a guest, you cannot work. This would be embarrassing for us.”

“I’m part of the family,” Lincoln countered. “You rest and Mitsuo and I will take over.”

Mrs. Ono’s face softened with tenderness. She laughed and wiped the sweat from her face. “I have work inside. And dinner to prepare.” She left the field, undoing her hat and wiping her neck with a bandanna.

Mitsuotook up a hoe and said, “Like this.” He walked between the narrow rows, parting the leaves and gently whacking at the weeds. Lincoln followed, and they hoed in silence, the hot sun riding on their backs.

(Soto, 1992)
Focus Sheet G-2

Vocabulary Development

ceiling
- the top of a room

dizzy
- faint

lethargic
- having no energy

pound
- to hit something hard many times

prop
- to support something

compliment
- to express praise or admiring

tortilla
- a thin flat Mexican bread made from cornmeal or flour

groggy
- unsteady and with an unclear mind

flake
- a small flat thin piece that breaks off of something

embarrass
- to make someone feel ashamed, anxious, and nervous

hoe
- a digging tool with a long handle, used for making the soil loose and for removing wild plants

(Rideout, 2000)
(Summers & Gadsby, 2000)
1. Fill out the blanks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Japanese Words</th>
<th>English Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Haha</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chichi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hashi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Practice the following conversation with your partner.

Lincoln: “What is _____ (Japanese Word) _____?”

Mitsuo: “_____ (Japanese Word) _____ means _____ (English Word) _____.”
Focus Sheet G-4

Use of "Would"

1. "Would" for showing preference

"Would like" is used in order to say that you want something.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lincoln</th>
<th>You</th>
<th>She</th>
<th>would</th>
<th>(not)</th>
<th>like</th>
<th>to help Mrs. Ono</th>
<th>some Ramune</th>
<th>to eat</th>
<th>to go to the field</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

2. "Would" for showing habits in the past

"Would" is used to show habits or repeated actions in the past.

EX: The family would harvest in a month.
   We would often go camping when we were younger.
   He would often come to see me.

"Used to" is the similar expression that is used to show a frequent or continuous action or state in the past.

EX: She used to pick grapes when she was little.
   We used to go to the movies every week.
   I used to have a car.
Work Sheet G-5

The First Day in Japan

Direction: In groups, write down what Lincoln did (see example, "woke a first time").
Assessment Sheet G-6

Field Work

1. Reorder the words in the box and complete sentences. (9)

help  Mr. Ono  to  would  like

Lincoln

a month  in  harvest  would

The Ono family

2. How did you work together? Circle 1, 2, or 3. If you rate 1 for your answer, write down how you can improve below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Myself</th>
<th>Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Helping each other</td>
<td>1 low</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharing ideas</td>
<td>1 low</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking in friendly manner</td>
<td>1 low</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking each other questions</td>
<td>1 low</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staying on task</td>
<td>1 low</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comment: ____________________________________________

____________________________________________________

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