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COGNITIVE-AFFECTIVE OUTCOMES OF CLASSROOM WRITING
ACTIVITIES IN KOREAN ENGLISH AS
A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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
Soonja Ahn
December 2004

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Approved by:



Lynne Diaz-Rico, First Reader



Marlene López, Second Reader

Nov. 29, 2004

Date

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this project is to address the importance of writing instruction by teaching journal writing, interactive writing, and poetry instruction in the English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) situation. In addition to different types of writing, this project addresses the relationship between writing and identity construction. It is meaningful to investigate the concept of writing conferences, to show how students can meet with the teacher in person and get some ideas and feedback, because most classrooms in Korea are teacher-centered. Teaching writing to EFL students has many advantages.

This project consists of five chapters and provides a model of effective language instruction. Chapter One outlines the background and purpose of this project. Chapter Two reviews relevant literature. Chapter Three presents a theoretical framework that integrates language-learning theories and teaching methodology. Chapter Four provides an overview of the proposed instructional unit. An instructional unit is included in Appendix P consisting of six lessons, along with explanation of each lesson and accompanying assessment. The final chapter discusses methods of assessment that apply to these lessons.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I appreciate Dr. Diaz-Rico who not only taught me how to write this project but also gave me a role model of a responsible teacher. Also, I am deeply indebted to Marlene Lopez, my second reader, for her encouragement and careful review of my project.

I especially thank my parents-in-law who suggested that I study here, and took care of my son. I will never forget my parents' concern and mental support. Without their help, I could not have completed my studying.

I wish to express deepest thanks and love to my husband, Seoungwon Lee, who has assisted my study in America. He showed his great love not only when I was successful but also when I was depressed. I appreciate Sunyeop, my son for his patience and loving relationship with his grandparents.

I have never forgotten my friends, Dongsoon Kim, Myoungja Moon, and Yunkyoungh Kang, who always inspired me. Jungsung Kim, Jinyoung Lee, Mikyoung No, and Hyounjoung Park also have shown their consistent friendship for ten years. I wish to thank everyone who helped me complete this project.

DEDICATION

I would first like to dedicate my thanks and give glory to God for providing me the opportunity to change my whole life by studying in America. I owe this to the prayers of my pastor, Chunghwan Kim, and all the members of the Sa-Rang Presbyterian Church in Riverside.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

The Role of English in Korea

Korean people have the highest desire for getting an education in the world. This is caused by the tremendous suffering of people during the Korean War in 1950. The Korean War left the country in devastation. As a result of this, the older generation suffered starvation, low education, and overwork. The next generation became parents and hoped that their children would not have to suffer as much; therefore, they concentrated on educating their children. Nowadays, learning English is one of the hottest issues in the world. Koreans are enthusiastic to learn English because it is required in the entire education curriculum, beginning at the elementary-school level, and continuing at the junior-high and senior-high school levels. English proficiency is also a benefit for getting a good job in Korea.

In 1998, the Korean government changed the education law, so English would be taught at the elementary school level. In contrast, before 1998, English was taught in junior-high schools. When the Korean government announced

that English would be taught in elementary schools, many parents were pleased to hear it because they wanted their children to learn English as soon as possible. However, the elementary-English program experienced a lot of problems because of the lack of professional English teachers.

History of English Teaching

Korea is now using what is called the 7th Education Program. The 7th Education Program brought great differences in teaching methods. Previously, teaching English focused on grammar-translation methods; however, listening, speaking, reading, and writing are now stressed. For many years, teachers concentrated on teaching grammar and reading in Korea. This is a reflection of Japanese imperialist education, which was focused on entrance exams. Until recently, Korea had not overcome the influence of the Japanese imperialist education; therefore, Korean students had to get good scores to be admitted to good schools, but they did not have to speak English well. However, methodology has been changing rapidly from the grammar-translation method to communicative English education because using English appropriately is the most important thing now in Korea. According to the 7th Education program, the harmony of

four components of studying English, which are listening, speaking, reading, and writing, were considered. In addition, the 7th Education Program encourages the teachers to instruct students in phonetics, and to consider this even more important than before. However, it takes a long time to change methodologies to focus on listening and speaking. Therefore, Korea is faced with a transitional period of English. This causes another kind of problem: now people do not think that studying grammar is important, so they ignore grammar instruction.

Social Context of English Learning

It is not an exaggeration to say that most Koreans try to learn English, because it is related to getting a good job. Most big enterprises in Korea expect future employees to have very high scores on English tests such as the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) and Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). Also, when applicants have had the experience of studying English abroad or traveling to foreign countries, it improves their opportunities to get a good job.

As a result of this, Korea's universities now often enter into alliances with American universities. For example, Han-Yang University in Korea is forming a relationship with twenty-three universities in the US to

interchange students, do joint research, and exchange publications. In the case of Han-Yang University, if students study at an alliance school in the US, they can get the same credit as the student who studies in Korea. Therefore, students want to apply to that program because it will benefit them in obtaining a job. In addition, the entrance exams of public enterprises always include a section to assess one's ability to use English. Even after getting a job, people who want to be promoted to higher positions have to keep studying English.

Target Teaching Level and Current State of Teaching at Target Level

There are two distinct environments to teach English in Korea; public schools and private tutoring schools. First of all, in 1997, due to the 7th Education Program, English was introduced to the elementary school. The goal of English education and the focus of the textbooks at the elementary level is improvement of listening and speaking skills. To improve these skills, various teaching methods were introduced such as TPR and the Natural Approach, and teachers tried to teach English with songs, games, chants and role plays. Those ways were appropriate to teach English because it was reported that these methods

enhanced children's memory, and were the most interesting ways for them to learn English (Cho, 1997).

At the beginning, the lack of qualified teachers was a problem in teaching English at the elementary-school level. Teachers who wanted to teach elementary English were trained for an additional one hundred and twenty hours before beginning to teach. As a result, unskilled teachers have been permitted to give poor instruction. However, many teachers studied English at teacher-education institutions to improve their teaching ability, or they studied English with books, TV, videos and tapes (Lee, 1997). Therefore, it can be said that teachers' passion towards teaching English effectively is very high in Korea.

In addition to schools, there are thousands of *hakwon* for teaching English in Korea. *Hakwon* is the same as *juku* in Japan and it is translated as "tutoring school," "cram school," or "college-prep school" (Kaminaka, 1997). After school, most students go to *hakwon*, to study their English further. At first, tutoring schools for elementary-school level students taught math and Korean; however, due to the importance of English, most tutoring school began to teach English as well. In addition, a lot of specialized English-tutoring schools are now opening. The levels among

the tutoring schools vary greatly. A small number of cram schools have good facilities and skillful English teachers, including native-English-speaking teachers.

In contrast, many tutoring-school teachers who have not majored in English or education are leading these classes. Furthermore, most teachers have to be responsible for more than five hours a day of teaching, so they do not have time to look for better instruction materials.

Previous Career Experiences and Career Goals

I have worked as an English teacher at a cram school in Korea teaching students from third to ninth grade.

The third-grade students were the most enthusiastic to learn English. Learning English is fun for them due to the different characters of letters, pronunciation, and sequence of sentences. I like to teach English to elementary-school children because most of them are curious about English. I do not have to pressure them to learn. By giving my own evaluative tests, I could know how much they understood my lessons. However, it was difficult to teach junior-high-school students. I made them memorize vocabulary and grammar, so they got high scores on school midterm exams and their final exam. In my experience, junior-high-school students began to think that English

was not the most interesting subject but the most important subject.

What I want to do in the future is to be an English teacher who always tries to interact with children well. The first thing I want to do is to concentrate on making effective materials for instruction. I want to make creative teaching materials that are adjusted to children's levels. I would like to motivate children to think that learning English is fun and interesting. One method I intend to use in order to do this is on-line or off-line teachers' meetings, which are concerned with teaching English skillfully. English teachers who are together should share teaching materials and focus on conducting research on how to teach English. I want to meet with other teachers to encourage them and to share information. I hope there are many different kinds of meetings for researching methods of teaching English in Korea in the future.

Besides creating effective teaching materials to teach English, I intend to introduce not only knowledge of English but also knowledge of various aspects of American culture. This is based on my experiences during my study in the US. I am going to make many slides of America from where I traveled and what I experienced. I will show them

to children to attract their attention at the beginning of the semester. My goal is not that children think they have to study English, but through learning English, they can understand different and interesting cultures.

Purpose of the Project

The goal of this project is to introduce different English pedagogy as a way of teaching English-as-a-foreign-language learners in Korea. Teaching English writing is not familiar as a teaching methodology in Korea. Another problem is that there are not many teachers who have the ability to teach English writing. However, English writing should be an essential part of teaching English because of many benefits offered by this pedagogy.

This project provides concepts about English writing and way to use these concepts in the classroom. Diverse English writing methods are introduced: journal writing, interactive writing, and poetry instruction. Each part is composed of four to five categories: definition, purposes and benefits, use in the classroom, and so on. In addition to using different writing methodologies, holding writing conferences is proposed as a way of exchanging feedback between students and the teacher. All these methods are

helpful in reinforcing the students' identity. Therefore, the relationship between writing and identity construction is examined.

Content of the Project

This project consists of five chapters: Introduction (Chapter One), Review of the Literature (Chapter Two), Theoretical Framework (Chapter Three), Curriculum Design (Chapter Four), and Assessment (Chapter Five).

Chapter One describes the situation of English education in Korea and the purpose of this project. Chapter Two is a review of literature which examines five important theoretical concepts: writing and identity, writing conferences, journal writing, interactive writing, and poetry instruction. Chapter Three introduces a theoretical framework that integrates language theories and teaching methodology. Chapter Four describes a curriculum unit into which the model introduced in Chapter Three is integrated. The lesson plans of the unit are presented in Appendix P. Chapter Five discusses the forms and methods of assessment applied to these lessons.

Significance of the Project

As mentioned above, teaching English in Korea is in transition from focusing on grammar-translation to

communicative language teaching. However, it is not an exaggeration to say that writing instruction is not developed at all compared to the effort to balance grammar and listening/speaking. This project suggests different ways for EFL teachers to approach the teaching of English. Teaching English writing will be a big challenge not only to teachers but also to students who are harassed by busy schedules and a competitive environment.

In addition, the situation in which grammar teaching is very developed provides a rich context in which students can improve their writing skills. Many students want to study abroad; therefore, teaching English writing can build the foundation to enhance their academic study abroad.

Finally, this project applies various assessments in the unit lessons. Evaluation of students' work in Korea is mostly by means of standardized tests; however, the unit lessons provide self-assessment using learning journals and "traffic icons." Through these self-assessments, students will become more active learners.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Writing and Identity

Ivanič argued that writing "does not just convey information, it also conveys something about the writer" (1994, p. 3). Through writing instruction, teachers have unique opportunities to see students' identity construction revealed in writing.

Identity in Theory

Sarup (1996) suggested that "Identity is a construction, a consequence of interaction between people, institutions and practices" (p. 11). Identity is related to material resources, power, and society. West (1992) said that identity is related to desires and these desires are linked to material resource distribution. People with access to a wide range of resources have access to privilege. Their power influences how they see their relationship to the world and their possibilities for the future. In other words, West felt that the question "Who am I?" cannot be understood apart from the question "What can I do?" In this view, a person's identity is tied to social and economic relations, and will shift as these relations change.

Unlike West, Weedon (1987) attempted to integrate language, individual experience, and social power in a theory of subjectivity. Weedon defined three characteristics of subjectivity: (a) the multiple, non-unitary nature of the subject; (b) subjectivity as a site of struggle; and (c) subjectivity as changing over time. In this theory, subjectivity is produced in various social sites, each structured by relations of power. In turn, the subject is not conceived of as passive; she or he is conceived of as both subject of, and subject to, relations of power within a particular community.

Cummins (1996) complemented the work of West and Weedon. He distinguished between coercive and collaborative relations of power. According to Cummins, coercive relations of power refer to the exercise of power by a dominant individual, group, or country that is harmful to others and maintains an inequitable division of resources in a society.

On the other hand, collaborative relations of power can empower rather than marginalize. In this view, power is not a fixed quantity but can be mutually generated in interpersonal and intergroup relations. "The power relationship is additive rather than subtractive," Cummins said. "Power is created with others rather than being

imposed on or exercised over others" (p. 15). Relations of power can serve to enable or constrain the range of identities that language learners can negotiate in their classrooms.

Social constructionists rejected the idea that identity is surely the product of individual minds and intentions. They thought it was essential to see identity in the context of society, as a result of connections to beliefs and possibilities, which are available to the individuals in their social context (Ivanič, 1998). Social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982) and social categorization theory (Turner, 1991) focus on the way in which people identify themselves in relation to social groups, categories, or stereotypes.

In sum, theorists see identity as complex, contradictory, and multifaceted, but reject any simplistic notions of identity. In addition, identity construction must be understood with respect to larger social processes.

Issues of Identity

Language plays a key role in the process of identity construction (McCarthy, 2001). There are many topics dealing with identity construction: discourse and

identity, literacy and identity, situated activity, and critical literacy.

Discourse and Identity. The relationship between language and identity has always been a topic of discussion in sociolinguistics. Halliday (1994) represented language in a "social-semiotic" perspective. The word "semiotic" conveys two principles. First, language is one of sign systems that conveys meaning. Second, language is essentially connected with meaning, and all linguistic choices can be linked to the meaning they convey. In other words, there is no such thing as meaning in a text, independent of the form in which it is worded.

Halliday's (1994) view of social identity has three dimensions. First, social identity consists of a person's set of values and beliefs about reality. These affect the ideational meaning. Secondly, social identity consists of a person's communication. This affects the interpersonal meaning. Both ideational and interpersonal meaning are conveyed through language. The third component of social identity is a person's orientation to language use. This will affect the way they construct their message.

Literacy and Identity. The word "literacy" is used in two ways: the ability to use written language, and the way

written language is used. Written language is embedded in social context just as much as spoken language. Literacy theorists have contributed to an expanded understanding of how the use of written language is connected to other aspects of social life (Ivanič, 1998).

Besnier (1995) studied the uses of literacy in Nukulaslas Atoll, a group of Polynesian islands inhabited by 350 people. He made two useful observations about the relationship between written language and identity. First, he distinguished between person-hood and self-hood. Person-hood is the aspect of identity which is associated with someone's social role in the community. Self-hood is the aspect of identity which is associated with someone's private life and personality characteristics. Both of these are socially constructed, and both affect a person's literacy practices.

This distinction connects to Besnier's second contribution, the idea that different forms of literacy highlight different aspects of identity. Besnier (1991) found a range of linguistic features which expressed strong interpersonal feelings in the letters he studied. This is important for literacy because it shows that the expression of feeling and interpersonal involvement can be

found in both written and spoken language, and is not specific to the use of spoken language.

Situated Activity. Situated theorists view learning as situated activity acquired from meaningful participation in specific communities. Learners build knowledge in relational networks that evolve from the interactions of people and the contexts of their activities. Thus, knowledge and inquiry processes are considered to be social activities, and learning is mediated by the resources of the culture, both symbolic (e.g., language) and material (e.g., computers). From this perspective, an important understanding is that social activities and related discourses are mutually constitutive phenomena that reflect and mediate one another (Wertsch, 1991).

Bakhtin's (1986) notion of the speaking personality expressed children's biliteracy as socioculturally mediated activities. He argued that language reflects people's orientation and connects their social relationships with the world. Therefore, children experience illiteracy through an evaluative lens in the particular contexts in which they find themselves. He suggested that the words of others carry their own

expression and interpretive overlays, which children in turn appropriate, accent, and reaccent.

Critical Literacy. Critical theorists view learning as a negotiation of one's preferences toward written language within diverse discourses of gender, race, ethnicity, power, and status. Thus, aspects of identity are related to philosophy of knowledge making and positioning within different discourses. Researchers examining the interactions between the individual and the social suggested that subjectivities, signification, and positioning become visible in writing. In addition, all agree that the process of language learning is complex, context specific, and multidimensional.

Pierce (1995) used the term social investment to explain that language learners have a complex social identity. When language learners speak, "they are not only exchanging information with target language learners, but they are constantly organizing and recognizing a sense of who they are and how they relate to the social worlds around them" (p. 18). Thus, subjectivity is a site of struggle, and identity is constantly changing across time and space.

Identity in Writing

Ivanič (1998) considered three aspects of the identity of writers: autobiographical self, discorsal self, and self as author.

The autobiographical self emphasizes a writer's sense of his/her origin, where he/she is coming from. The identity he/she brings to writing is socially built and constantly changing as his/her life history changes through new experiences. The term also suggests that "it is not only the events in people's lives, and their way of presenting these experiences to themselves, which constitutes their current way of being" (p. 24)

The discorsal self "is constructed through the discourse characteristics of a text which relate to values, beliefs and power relations in the social context in which they were written" (p. 25). A writer's discorsal self consists of the impressions conveyed either consciously or unconsciously in a particular text. It is concerned with the writer's voice in the sense of the way they want to sound, rather than in the sense of the stance they are taking (Ivanič, 1998).

In describing the self as author, Ivanič refers to the way writers reveal themselves as authors. This aspect of the writers' identity includes the writer's voice as

evidenced in stance, opinions, and beliefs. A sense of self as author emerges as child authors, through social interactions with responsive interlocutors, choose to participate in sociocultural practices from a particular social location; a particular time or trajectory; and a particular sense of agency (Ivanič, 1998).

Bakhtin (1986) also guided the understanding of how multiliterate children who engaged in discursive literacy practices adopt their own way of making sense of the world, their life experiences and their identity construction. Bakhtin clearly connected identity construction with the concept of voice. Maguire and Graves (2001) examined how these practices contribute to the development of writer's voice and positioning. Children's literacy actions reflect diverse areas connected with agency, access, choice, identity, and power in their community. Although researchers may use different models in attempting to understand the complex relationship between language and the social order, they agree that discursive practices contribute to the development of a writer's discursal identity and voice.

A Multidimensional Model

Maguire and Graves (2001) presented a multidimensional model (see Appendix A). This places a

child's speaking personality and voice at the center of the language-learning process in a first, second, or third language. There are four aspects of positioning and actions of bilingual child writers: appropriation, social action, participation, and presentation of self. These four outer dimensions call for a contextualized, situated perspective.

Appropriation involves a tension between subjectivity and intersubjectivity. This concept focuses on how children develop individually and what gives form to their identity as they incorporate their cultural and ethnic backgrounds, including language, into their thinking activities (Maguire & Graves, 2001).

Social action is the sociocultural domain that involves activities in a particular sociocultural community of practice. Social action focuses on children's tasks and activities, and how they actively construct their own identity in this social setting. What they learn from participating in the discursive literacy practices of school, classroom, or family, influences what they recognize they can do and what are their social actions (Maguire & Graves, 2001).

The focus of participation is on children's access to semiotic and symbolic resources and their use of these to

ensure their participation; and that they integrate mediational tools to control their own behavior. What children can do is influenced by the activity systems and participant structures of their teachers' and family's discursive literacy practices as well as their access to and use of mediational means (Maguire & Graves, 2001).

Presentation of self is focused on the way children signal their identity through verbalization with significant interlocutors, and how they position themselves through multiple discourses. How children present themselves during interaction is embedded in their discourse choices. These choices in turn either enhance, or constrain children's discursual construction of identity and their positioning (Maguire & Graves, 2001).

An Example of Using Literacy Differently in the Class

Sluys (2003) introduced the journal shown in Appendix B of one student, Wera, who came from Poland, to show how Wera used writing to construct who she was in the classroom and larger world. Wera wrote about her move from Poland and many different issues she faced: her extended family, getting ready for school, entering her new classroom, struggling through recess, and experiencing the challenges of learning.

By writing about her experiences, Wera explored life in transition and gained an understanding of what it means to write. Her writing helped her define who she is within her social worlds. She learned how writing is a process and can be a tool for thinking, reflecting, and identifying who she is (Sluys, 2003).

"Every child has a story to tell and within that story is the secret to him or her as learner" (Kohl, 1995, p. 115). If teachers provide the opportunity for students to write about their lives, students will tell many stories. In Korea, it is time to enhance the role of literacy in the curriculum, to provide an excellent tool not only for teaching English but also for constructing relationships, sharing experiences, and enhancing identity in students' lives.

Writing Conferences

The writing conference is one important way to assess students' writing. A teacher has an opportunity to discuss how students can improve their writing by asking questions during conference. If a conference goes well, the child's energy for writing increases. The child should leave the conference wanting to write more.

What Is a Writing Conference?

A writing conference is the formal or informal meeting with students and a teacher. Conducting an effective conference is difficult because each student has different needs and interests. The following are suggestions for holding effective conferences (Block, 1993).

The most important principle of conferencing is to provide opportunities for a teacher to interact with each child individually by sharing the student's experiences. Writing conferences can be scheduled. The teacher lets students sign up for a time. Two students (or more) who have similar questions can meet jointly with the teacher. The concept of these two principles is that teachers listen to students and inquire what they want to know. At the same time, the teachers have to think about what they want to teach or convey to students (Block, 1993).

At the end of the conference, teachers ask students to summarize what they learned and how they will think differently in the future. However, teachers need to focus on improving students' learning rather than correcting students' thinking (Block, 1993).

The Purposes of the Writing Conference

As each student's writing process is different, teachers have increasingly turned to one-to-one instruction (Clark, 1985) using the writing conference. This instruction is more effective than group instruction or written responses a teacher might annotate on a student's paper (Calkins, 1986). According to the teachers' suggestions, students' writing can become not merely acceptable, but outstanding.

Helping Writers Become Independent. The basic purpose for a writing conference is to help writers gain the confidence and skill necessary for them to write well independently (Meyer & Smith, 1987). Some students can be too passive, waiting to be told what to write about, how many pages to write, and what to correct to improve a paper. To make writers self-sufficient and able to function on their own, teachers have to shift the responsibility to them (Harris, 1986). Students need to learn that it is their job to ask and answer their own questions.

Motivation for Writers. While guiding students toward independent writing, instructors can also pursue the goal of helping their students to care about their writing. Students who come to realize the importance of writing

will make an effort for their own improvement (Harris, 1986).

Positive comments offered in the conference are effective because they are delivered in person and offered in detail. If teachers emphasize the good aspects of a paper, students keep from focusing only on the negative. Even when weaknesses are pointed out in a conference, comments tend to sound less unpleasant because they appear more humanized (Harris, 1986). Therefore, students' motivation can be increased by conferences. A child who is expected to work hard and do well will live up to that expectation, given the right encouragement and motivation.

Attending to the Writer's Concern. Ideally, students come to the writing conference with attitudes of seeking help, feedback, and answers to questions. To achieve the goals of a conference, teachers have to recognize the kind of help students want to get out of it. Many students come to conferences seeking ways to get a better match between the sentences on the page and the not-yet-clearly-expressed thoughts in their minds. They are unhappy because they do not know how to write what they want (Harris, 1986).

Teachers should also face the reality that another major goal for students is completing the writing

assignment. Although writing skills must be developed over a semester or through a series of exposures to writing exercises, students tend to ask about the conclusion, how to finish their paper. Therefore, teachers need to address this concern (Harris, 1986).

Writing teachers want to help students to be independent writers through conferences. In addition, students can be motivated by teachers' instruction. Finally, teachers can enlarge their understanding about students by holding conferences. Most classrooms in Korea are teacher-centered. Therefore, conferences provide the opportunity for students to meet with the teacher in person and get some ideas and feedback.

Roles of the Teacher

Teachers who conduct conferences play a fundamental role in helping students of all levels learn to write well. According to Simon (1988), a student's potential can be stretched by suggestions from a good teacher during a writing conference. The role of an individual teacher can have an enormous impact on the sources of any writing conference.

During a conference, the teacher's role is to be a listener and a guide. If they listen as the children talk about their writing, the teacher can learn a great deal

about children and their writing. They are better equipped to help students decide on methods to work through their problems (Tompkins, 2004).

Wilcox (1994) proposed that teachers play two roles during conferences: that of a text-oriented instructor and a student-oriented nurturer. He emphasized that the objective of building confidence and skill can only be reached if teachers understand the importance of their dual roles when conferring with students. The role of the text-oriented instructor is to build skill, whereas the student-oriented nurturer builds confidence.

As text-oriented instructors, teachers must be able to inspire students to generate ideas, clarify purpose and audience, organize and revise drafts, and add description and detail. When teachers fulfill this instructional role, students' attention is turned to the content of their work (Estabrook, 1982).

Wilcox (1994) indicated that for a writing teacher, the role of student-oriented nurturer is more important than the role of instructor. When a child takes the initiative to begin talking about experiences, ideas, or feelings, the teacher needs to show genuine interest and fuel the openness and desire to explore.

Besides the instructional role and the nurturing role, building trust is an important aspect of the teacher's role. A conference cannot be entirely productive if the student does not trust the teacher's sincerity. Teachers must be approachable and friendly and be willing to highlight the student's strengths (Wilcox, 1994).

There are some nonverbal cues that build trust and assure the student that he/she is the author and will maintain ownership of the writing. One is for the teacher to be careful not to reach out and take the student's paper. In other words, the student should offer to share the paper by laying the paper between the student and teacher on the table. It may be a good idea for the teachers to invite the child to read the paper aloud (Bissex, 1981).

The second cue, which is the most difficult for the teacher, is to wait when the student does not quickly respond to a question or prompt. Students often need time to think about what they really know, think, and feel. Children need to feel free to think, and free to realize that their ideas are important enough that the teacher is willing to wait to hear them (Graves, 1985).

To lead conferences successfully, the instructor has to play a role of a guide and a sincere and trustworthy

listener. Teachers need patience to wait until students initiate their work and build confidence and skills.

Content Conferences

A first type of conference is the content conference. Content conferences are interesting conversations about the content of writing, or even about the content of students' lives. Graves (1985) said that a good writing classroom is determined by the presence of the children's own interests in the room. Therefore, it is essential for teachers to know about students' interests.

Through content conferences, writers can learn to anticipate their audience's hunger for information and expect places where their readers may be confused and need clarification. Writers will learn to do this if teachers have questions about the student's writing because they do not understand it (Calkins, 1994).

It is not hard for classmates to take on the role of being effective conference partners. They can listen, respond, and ask honest questions in order to clarify something they did not understand. Soon children will learn to conduct these content conferences on their own. If they can hold content conferences with one another, they are well on their way toward holding content conferences with themselves, and clearly this marks

important growth in a child's abilities as a writer (Calkins, 1994).

Content conferences may end with the child compiling a list of topics for future entries, or taping a second sheet onto the bottom of the first, or stapling paper together to make a book with chapters. As each of these content conferences concludes, the focus tends to shift from content to process, from "What do you have to say?" to "How will you go about saying it?" (Calkins, 1994).

Again, the core of content conferences is not just for advice but to focus on the writer. During conferences, students can make helpful clarifications. Both teachers and classmates can be effective conference partners.

Writing-Process Conferences

The importance of writing-process conferences is that teachers need help with the process, rather than simply evaluations of the products. It is necessary that the writing teacher asks, "What is this youngster doing that works well? What problems is she encountering? How is she trying to meet those problems?" (Calkins, 1994, p. 243).

If writing teachers watch how students go about writing and talk with them about their strategies, teachers can help them develop more effective strategies for writing. In a process conference, teachers give

students the chance to teach teachers about what they do when they write (Calkins, 1994).

Once teachers understand what their students do as writers, it is not difficult to extend these processes by teaching them a new strategy they can use often. For example, if a child does a lot of sitting in front of a blank page, teachers want to help that child learn ways to start his or her writing. Another example is that if a child keeps writing and writing and writing without ever pausing to reread and to judge what he or she has done, it will be needed to teach that youngster ways to shift from being a writer to being a reader, from a creator to being a critic (Calkins, 1994).

It is even more helpful to make writers conscious of what they tend to do over and over as they write. Skilled writers approach writing by planning not only what they will say, but also what they will do. These plans allow a writer to set priorities and to organize ways of solving problems (Calkins, 1986). Therefore, through this writing-process conference, teachers can find out how the writer selects the topic, plans the writing, composes the written pieces, and edits or revises the product afterwards (Church, 1993).

The Writing-Process Checklist, as shown in Appendix C, is a good way to monitor the writing process. During each stage of the writing process, students learn strategies that will assist them in meeting the work requirement for that stage. More frequent recordings can be arranged to benefit students that need it on an individual level (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996).

In summary, teachers can assist in the process of students' writing, rather than simply evaluating the products during the writing-process conference. They can apply various strategies to solve problems students often face during the writing process. Adapting the Writing-Process Checklist is an excellent way to monitor student's writing process.

Writing-Assessment Conferences

Teachers can also hold evaluation conferences with their students. Often, students come to teachers with drafts in hand asking, "Is this good?" or "Am I done?" At this point, teachers need to make them become critical readers of their writing lest they write and write without so much as a glance back over what they have written (Calkins, 1986).

At the writing-assessment conference, the teacher examines and discusses the student's writing, and decides

on a grade based on the goals established for the writing project or that grading period. These discussions may focus on the writing process, including topic selection, prewriting activities, word choice, writing-group activities, types of revisions, consistency in editing, and degree of effort and involvement in the writing project (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996).

To use following questions is one way for teachers to examine students' paper effectively. In other words, these questions help children probe their understanding of the writing process and their own competencies (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996).

Did you write on the assigned topic?

Did you write for the assigned audience?

Did you explain the key ideas or events for the theme?

Did you use complete sentences?

Did you correct errors in spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and usage? (p. 141)

Atwell (1987) recommended keeping conferences brief, spending only 10 minutes with each student. At the end of the meeting, she advised that the student and teacher develop a set of goals for the following project or grading period. This list of goals can be added to the

student's writing folder and used during the next assessment conference.

By doing writing-assessment conferences, the teacher and students have time to examine the whole process of writing. This is the chance for students to become critical readers by looking through their writing. After that, they can plan for next project.

Portfolio Conferences

By conducting portfolio conferences with student at least twice during each quarter, teachers can discuss student progress and plan future goals. Portfolios can also be used to show parents evidence of growth (Valencia, 1990). Portfolios can be particularly useful for students who are not making progress in the class. By focusing on actual student work, teachers can share information with students and parents. Because assessments portfolios are focused, teachers can make professional judgments about individual students (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996).

A list of questions for teachers to use in portfolio conferences on writing assessment is presented in Appendix D. In addition, students can be prepared for the portfolio conference by providing them with questions on a Portfolio Review Guide, as showed in Appendix E.

Although many teachers hold portfolio conferences at the end of the grading period, it is possible to hold a portfolio conference in the middle of the grading period as well. In this way, students begin to understand how their work will be evaluated at the end of the quarter (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996).

The conference begins by asking students to reflect on their growth and the status of their goals in regard to the learning objectives. The conference is not meant to put students on the defensive; rather, it is meant to get students actively involved in reflection, and self-assessment, and to provide teacher feedback (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996).

Therefore, during the writing conference, it is important that the student do most of the talking. The teacher should act as a facilitator of the learning process. Murray (1982) commented on this: "The teacher has to restrain himself or herself from providing the content, taking care not to inhibit the students from finding their own meaning, their own subjects, their own forms and their own language" (p. 13). Once this rule is kept, the conference will be taken a proper role in the classroom.

Journal Writing

A new model for second-language teaching that emphasized the value of writing for the purpose of generating language was suggested by Raimes (1985). She proposed journal writing as an effective way for English students to generate words, sentences, and chunks of discourse, and to communicate with others to boost English fluency. This was a novel approach because writing used to be considered the last skill to be learned. In the last twenty years, journal writing has been widely used in education to develop written skills. In this chapter, journal writing is introduced, including the definition, role, and types of journal writing, and ways to deliver feedback to journal writers.

Definition of Journal Writing

In academic settings, writing tends to fall into four categories: journal writing, creative writing, academic writing, and pseudo- or real professional writing. The definition of journal writing is "a type of written interaction between instructors and students that focuses on meaning rather than form and is a means of developing students' linguistic competence, their understanding of course content, and their ability to communicate in written English" (Peyton, 1990, p. ix). When students

write in journals, they are not writing to perform; instead, they are writing to think on paper about new ideas they are encountering. Thus, a good way to help sharpen English written skills is for the students to keep a writing journal (Peyton, 1990).

It is important to distinguish between diary and journal because students write both during their daily life. First, a diary usually has a space for each day of the year with the students' writing limited to the space provided for that day. However, with a journal, there are no expectations to write something everyday and there is no space limitation. Therefore, students can write as often as students like and as many sentences they want (Janeczko, 1999).

In addition, a journal can hold more than just writing. The following characteristics are the elements of effective journals: (a) a journal should be primarily a place for personal reflection as it relates to course material and should not be a personal diary, (b) a journal should be a place for critical thinking and not simply a vehicle for note-taking, (c) a journal is meant to encourage a student's thinking process rather than produce a finished product, and (d) a journal should be given the same consideration as any other course assignment,

although it is not graded (Cole, Raffier, Rogan, & Schleicher, 1998).

Even though a journal has many interesting aspects, it is still writing that is considered boring work to students. Therefore, guidance and coaching is important. These basic guidelines should be established at the beginning of the course, and it is important that the instructor have students take responsibility to produce writing within these parameters.

Effectiveness and Limitations of Journal Writing

Keeping journals provides a great opportunity for students to practice their writing, therefore enhancing their learning; moreover, it encourages students to be reflective. Journal writing is with a current emphasis on student centeredness. This stresses the value of individual experience and beliefs. The expected result of journal writing is that effective students should be able to take initiative, become actively engaged in the learning process, and assume personal responsibility for their learning. The experiences afforded through journal writing provide an opportunity for students to develop their self-awareness skills. Consequently, journals heighten self-awareness and engage writers in a process of critical thinking (Cole et al., 1998).

English learners who engage in journal writing can reap benefits from the experience in two ways: an increased confidence in their writing skills and a deepened understanding of themselves. Student-generated writing not only builds confidence, but also promotes autonomy that is crucial to the language student. Journal entries can be precursors to academic writing (Peyton, 1990).

ESL or EFL instructors can gain great value from journal writing. It makes evident certain grammatical weaknesses not only in individuals, but also in the class as a whole. Through journal writing, students are able to monitor their own progress. These records provide added means for gauging overall process and assessing general language proficiency. This gives the practitioners a greater understanding of the cultural and language issues of their students' experience as well as of the students' personal interests and needs. This increased understanding can be used to help a student to adjust more fully to the teaching-learning situation, to the new language, and for those in an ESL setting, to add life in a new culture (Peyton, 1990).

Greesen (1977) stated that the advantages of journal writing are that instructors can review written responses

more carefully than oral ones. Students become more precise and complete in their answers in writing papers rather than speaking. They also learn how to reflect on and evaluate their own learning.

Although teachers' response to the use of journals has been mostly positive and enthusiastic, some limitations and concerns have been identified. Because the results of critical reflection are not always tangible, instructors may not fully understand the benefit of student journals. Instructors may also resent the added task of reviewing a student's journal amidst an already busy teaching schedule (Matsuda & Matsuda, 2001), requiring considerable time commitment on the instructor's part. It involves a commitment to read and constructively critique each student's entry. To lessen the workload, the instructor reduces the journal assignments from daily to only twice or three times a week (Peyton, 1990).

Additionally, the journal is seen as merely an assignment, with many students reluctant to participate. To engage these students, the instructor may want initially to engage the students in the process of writing and then gradually maintain the involvement for an extended period. This process may result in a deepened trust between the students and the instructor, as well as

an increased willingness on the part of students to share their experiences with others (Peyton, 1990). Therefore, instructors need to think of various ways for students to involve their writing actively rather than complain about their passive attitudes. Then, the effectiveness of journal writing will be enlarged in the classroom.

Types of Journal Writing

Though there are many different kinds of journal writing, there are three types of journals suitable to use in the ESL classroom: personal journals, dialogue journals, and learning logs. These three types show some similarities and some differences.

Personal Journals. It is appropriate to use personal journals in the ESL/EFL classroom because students can choose topics that they want to recount in their lives. To begin with, selecting topics is not easy for students; therefore, many instructors help the students by jointly creating a list of possible journal-writing topics. Then, this mutually developed list is displayed in the classroom or duplicated for students to clip inside their journals.

Whenever students have trouble thinking of something to write about, they can be encouraged by the topics generated. Referring students to the list or asking them to brainstorm a list of topics inspires them to become

more independent writers and discourages them from depending entirely on instructors for writing topics (Tompkins, 2004).

Besides students becoming more independent, the other dimension of personal journals is that instructors gain insight into a student's life through journal entries. Details about problems with family and life with which they may not know how to deal with could come out in students' writing. Entries about child abuse, suicide, or drug use may be a child's way of asking for help. Although instructors are not counselors, they have a legal obligation to protect their students and report possible problems to appropriate school personnel. Making time to respond to an entry or directing student to a counselor will help to ensure that the student's safety is being fully considered (Tompkins, 2004).

To build a trusting relationship with students, the instructor should protect their privacy. By the third or fourth grade, some students enter a phase where they become themselves reluctant to share with their classmates. Therefore, instructors must nurture that trust by protecting the student's privacy and not insist that the students share their writing with each other. It is also important to create an environment where the

expectation is that students should respect each other's privacy and not read each other's journals (Tompkins, 2004).

Dialogue Journals. When whole-language methodology was popular, dialogue journals enjoyed a surge of interest. Many instructors use this style as a means of increasing fluency and promoting interpersonal communication (Diaz-Rico, 2004). A dialogue journal is a partnership and contains essentially written conversations between a student and instructor. It is kept in a bound notebook or on a computer disk or file. Over a given period of time, both partners write back and forth frequently about any topic of interest to them (Tompkins, 2004).

The goal of dialogue journals is to communicate in writing and to exchange ideas and information. In this style, students are freed from rigid grammatical rules. There is little concern for the correctness so often imposed on developing writers (Jones, 1991).

Dialogue journals are especially effective in promoting the writing development of English-as-a-second-language (ESL) students. Instructors contribute to the development of the student through dialogue, by responding

with requests, questions, statements, and other appropriate comments (Peyton & Seyoum, 1989).

Appendix F features an excerpt from a fourth-grader's dialogue journal. This fourth-grade student from Laos recounts enthusiastically a trip to a country fair, and activities there. The instructor responds briefly to the account, prompting the student for more information (Tompkins, 2004).

Learning Logs. The third style of journal writing encourages the use of learning logs to record what students have learned in classes like social science or math. In their logs, students write in response to informational books, write vocabulary related to the themes, create time lines, and draw diagrams and maps (Tompkins, 2004).

Tompkins (2004) gave specific examples of learning logs, one of science-related learning logs (see Appendix G). Science-related learning logs are developed in several ways. One type of learning log is an observation log in which students make daily entries to track the growth of a plant or animal.

Appendix G presents a first grader's seed journal. The student learns to track and account for physical change. A second type of learning log is one in which

students make daily entries during a unit of study. Students may take notes during a presentation by the instructor or a classmate, after viewing a film, or at the end of each class period: A lab report is a third type of learning. In these learning logs, students list the materials and procedures used in the experiment, present data on an observation chart, and then conclude by discussing the results (Tompkins, 2004).

Students also use learning logs to write about what they are learning in math (Salem, 1982). Students create a log of the steps involved in problem solving, definitions of mathematical terms, or things that are difficult to understand.

Instructors can apply different kinds of journals according to students' interest and learning objectives. Through personal journals, students can be more independent, and instructors can gain insight into a student's life through journal entries. The goal of dialogue journals is to communicate in writing and to exchange ideas and information. Students can be encouraged to record what they have learned in classes by using learning logs.

Feedback in Journal Writing

Interaction can and should involve not only instructor-student but also student-student dialogue. Instructors need to make an effort to establish a trusting environment among students. If students trust one another, journals could be exchanged among them, thus enabling them to enter into a dialogue with one another, exchange ideas, and discuss issues raised during the course (Cole et al., 1998).

Feedback through Peer Response. Peer response can be more valuable than instructor feedback in helping writers. However, it is hard to expect that students in a group will respond to the strengths and weaknesses of a paper by themselves. To be effective, peer response must be taught as part of the writing process. This way, students are responsible for writing about their peers as well as for the instructor. It is good to provide students with a peer-review feedback sheet because students can have a model on how to deal with a response evaluation criteria required for the writing paper (Diaz-Rico, 2004).

Feedback from Instructors. The most common feedback from instructors is error correction. Error correction is essential for ESL students; however, this feedback is criticized because most ESL students are frightened of

making errors. To avoid this, instructors should be careful that what students want to say is more important than what their instructors want them to say. Even though error identification is the most widely employed technique, instructors' responses to the same text may differ, and the application of error-identification techniques varies considerably (Sommers, 1982).

Zamel (1985) suggested several ways to give effective feedback to students. The student's ability to learn how to revise their writing is dependent upon the instructor's behavior in responding to their errors. The first step is that instructors should avoid vague and contradictory comments, and suggest specific and consistent recommendations. Second, instructors must adopt a flexible standard depending on students' ability or proficiency. In addition, instructors should give appropriate suggestions according to the various stages. Finally, instructors need to create a collaborative relationship with their students, drawing attention to problems, offering alternatives, and suggesting possibilities. In this sort of relationship, students and instructors can more effectively exchange information about what they are trying to communicate.

In summary, journal writing is an interesting challenge to both students and instructors because of many benefits discussed in this chapter. These benefits are not limited to increasing peoples' heightened sense of self-awareness as well as their engagement in the process of critical thinking as they build confidence in writing. Today, society is changing rapidly, and people need to communicate well with each other. Therefore, journal writing can be one alternative for students to communicate more effectively with peers and instructors.

Interactive Writing

Through writing, teachers can have the chance to look at students' thoughts and ideas. Interactive writing can be a beneficial tool to make connections among peers, the writer, and a teacher. Because of the many benefits of interactive writing, it is good to know what it is and how to apply in teaching.

Definition of Interactive Writing

Interactive writing is a collaborative group writing experience that produces an authentic writing piece composed and constructed by students. In 1991, a group of educators at The Ohio State University coined the term "interactive writing" as an approach to help young

children understand how words work or how they fit together to make a sentence. The research group defined the place of interactive writing in the curriculum and the way it differed from the traditional language experience approach, shared writing, and independent writing (McCarrier, Pinnell, & Fountas, 2000).

For a clearer definition of interactive writing, it is necessary to distinguish between shared writing and interactive writing. McKenzie (1985), working with British teachers, developed a process she called "shared writing." This process required teachers and students to collaborate on the text to be written. The focus of the writing could come from the students' literature selection, and an event experienced by the students in the class, or a topic under study in social studies or science. In McKenzie's view, the teacher served as a scribe and usually used chart paper to create a text that then served as the students' reading text. The accumulated result of the charts was a room surrounded with meaningful print (Button, Johnson, & Ferguson, 1996).

Interactive writing is a form of shared writing which is part of early-literacy lesson frameworks developed to provide educative experiences for young students. The use of interactive writing integrates reading, writing,

speaking, listening, and thinking. During interactive writing, students improve their reading, and this repeated reading helps students reconstruct the story. This information is necessary to generate their ideas (Button et al., 1996).

Despite commonalities between shared writing and interactive writing, there are two important ways in which interactive writing differs from shared writing. First, children take an active role in the writing process by actually holding the pen and doing the writing. Second, the teacher's role is to focus the children's attention on the conventions of print such as spaces between words, left-to right and top-to-bottom directionality, capital letters, and punctuation using direct instruction (Button et al., 1996).

Purposes and Benefits of Interactive Writing

When teachers think of a language-arts curriculum, they strive to help students learn more about their world, including the literary world, using the processes of reading and writing. Using interactive writing in the language-learning classroom had many advantages.

Yarrow and Topping (2001) found that in a study of 28 ten-and eleven-year-old students under both interaction and no-interaction conditions, the writers involved with

interaction produced significantly greater gains than those of the individual writers. The observations of the interaction in pairs indicated that the children accepted support from their helpers, questioned, reassured, and praised each other, and kept each other on task.

First, children can develop their writing process as they write with a group. In interactive writing, the teacher and children "share the pen" at strategic points in the construction of the text. Each time a child is asked to come up to the easel to contribute a letter, letter cluster, word, or print feature such as punctuation, the action has high instructional value. When students see a peer's mistakes such as using a period or comma incorrectly, they learn themselves (McCarrier et al., 2000).

Second, peer interaction during group work may result in conflict. Through this process, language learners can improve their cognitive ability. Researchers have begun to examine the role of close relationships and friendships in the processes of early literacy learning. The role of interaction through peer relationships in the context of writing is significant. Interacting with friends during writing activities enables students to increase their

cognitive ability during the writing process (McCarrier et al., 2000).

Lastly, students expand their language when they engage in discussion about a variety of topics. They use language to communicate with each other. Discussion helps students understand and decide what they want to create for the text. They have new models of language from peers, teachers and literature (McCarrier et al., 2000).

Using Interactive Writing in the Classroom

The focus of interactive writing is on concepts and conventions of print, the sounds in words, and the connection of sounds with letters. Students actively plan and construct the text. For the most part, children also control the writing of the text. The teacher guides this process and provides appropriate pacing, assistance, and instruction when needed (Pinnell & Fountas, 1998).

Teachers can use interactive writing in numerous areas: creating stories and poems; retelling favorite literature; and writing recipes, directions, and lists. The pieces created by the students become a part of the classroom environment and may be used for independent reading and shared reading (McCarrier et al., 2000).

The simple menu shown in Appendix H is interesting for the students to write about and presents a good

example for the usefulness of print. They generated the list and made this illustration. Students then make small order forms in tablets. The list on the other form is exactly the same as shown on the menu. When "customers" came into the play restaurant to order food, the waiter could check off items on the other form. To students, the activity was purely fun, but they did not notice that implicitly they were integrating functional literacy (McCarrier et al., 2000).

Another example of interactive writing shown in Appendix I is based on the reading of Jan Peck's "The Giant Carrot" (1998), an Appalachian version of the "Great Big Enormous Turnip." Students read the story several times and they acted it out.

The story is about a little girl who "dances around the carrot" while the characters pull up the giant carrot. The students' writing consisted of retelling the story with the innovation of substituting their own names and the teachers' for the original characters' names. Even simple phrases such as "pulled it," which were repeated in the story, can be important for students to use and make their own. Placed in sequence, their list represented an abstract of the important points in the text. A basic

component of comprehension involves summarizing a story by listing the events in sequence (McCarrier et al., 2000).

The students made illustrations showing themselves "pulling" the carrot. Then each child wrote a sentence under his or her picture stating, "(Name) pulled it." The result was to encourage opportunity and motivation for independent writing. The point was for students to attend to language and words in specific ways and to notice details as they use words for themselves (McCarrier et al., 2000).

Appendix J, Wall Story of Pumpkin, is an example of interactive writing in the form of a wall book. Because it is complicated to create, teacher support is important as they write. The layout of this text is particularly supportive for beginning words and lines are good because it makes the text easier to read. The text is limited to no more than two lines that start at the left side of the page. The layout requires a high level of picture support with the text at the bottom of each picture (McCarrier et al., 2000).

In summary, children have the opportunity to plan and construct text through interactive writing. Because students generally control the writing of the text, spelling knowledge increases, as well as the ability to

construct words through connecting letters, clusters of letters, and sounds. Student-created text in an interactive-writing experience can be used for reading in the classroom and thus provides a connection between reading and writing (McCarrier et al., 2000).

The Steps of Interactive Writing

In interactive writing, the process is as important as the product. It might be said that what students learn on the journey is more valuable than reaching the destination (Swartz, Klein, & Shook, 2001). However, there are many ways to conduct interactive writing. One example is described below.

To begin, the teacher and students collect materials for interactive writing. Teachers use chart paper, colored marking pens, white correction tape, an alphabet chart, magnetic letters or letter cards, and a pointer for interactive writing. The children will need individual small white boards, dry-erase pens, and erasers (Tompkins, 2004).

Next, the teacher initiates the interactive writing process by reading a story aloud or having a discussion about a shared experience or classroom activity. Then, the teacher talks about points of interest in the story or activity. The oral language used during this discussion

will be a rich source for the interactive-writing piece (Swartz et al., 2001).

The teacher then provides a stimulus activity to set a purpose for writing. Often teachers read or reread a trade book as a stimulus, but students can also write daily news, compose a letter, or brainstorm information they are learning in science or other subject areas (Tompkins, 2004). The teacher tells the students that he/she would like them to write about their ideas related to the story or activity. The teacher asks the students to give suggestions about what they are going to write and how they want to start their story.

The teacher and students negotiate a text, where the teacher helps the children recall the events in the story. In the early stages of interactive writing, the negotiated message is repeated several times by the group. Additionally, it is reread from the beginning each time a new word is completed (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996).

At various points in the writing, writing is shared by teacher and students. The story is written word by word, as the students reread up to each new addition. Sometimes the teacher writes the word; often different children contribute a letter, several letters, or a whole word (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996).

As students write, they find that some words are known words that can be written quickly. These are almost under control for most of the children in the class, and can be called to attention as a "word we almost know." Different kinds of words can be placed on a "word wall" to be used as a resource for writing. Where appropriate, the teacher invites the children to say the word slowly, emphasizing but not segmenting sounds, as they predict each letter by analyzing sounds. Students may come up with any letter in any order: the teacher fills in the rest (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996).

Finally, as the teacher and students complete the interactive writing process, the teacher may help children attend to important concepts about print such as spaces, punctuation, capitalization, or the features of a type of writing, such as a list or set of directions (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996).

Interactive learning is a powerful tool in helping English learners makes connections between writing and reading. While students are watching other peer's writing, they have to concentrate on reading what they write. In addition, after the work is done, they share the written task together. By doing this, students' reading ability will increase.

It is common that an EFL classroom has multiple levels of English learners. Interactive writing provides active learning experiences regardless of students' English proficiency. Through these experiences, English learners can participate in classes with enthusiasm.

Poetry Instruction

The teacher can make most effective use of poetry in the ESL/EFL classrooms when poetry instruction is integrated with reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Poetry can be used in many ways in the second-language acquisition (SLA) classroom. For example, poems have sounds and rhymes; therefore, students can use poetry to consolidate English pronunciation patterns. In addition, students' imaginations are stimulated by both reading the poems of others and creating their own poetry. This also helps them to recognize the beauty of English as a language (Diaz-Rico, 2004). These various purposes are discussed below.

The Purposes of Poetry Instruction

Students can write poetry to play with words, create images, explore feelings, and entertain themselves and others (Tompkins, 2004). EFL students may be familiar with

reading and writing poems; and able to compare poems written in English with those of their own language.

Imagination. The first goal of poetry instruction is to stimulate students' imagination. Students who wrote poetry can be encouraged to make the second language their own by inventing words, using new words in old ways, and being freer to be more imaginative and more creative in the second language than they could be in their first (Maley & Duff, 1989).

Students can achieve personal growth by writing poetry. While they are writing poems, they can become whatever they want to be. For example, if they are young, they can become old. Therefore, this is an opportunity for students to change their identity, culture, past, and future by poetic imagination (Diaz-Rico, 2004).

Oral Reading. Commonly, students share poetry with others orally. Teachers can encourage children to read poems during silent-reading time. Children can then choose their favorite selections to read to each other in pairs. This is a good way for teachers to arrange for oral reading regularly, such as once a week, to strengthen students' oral reading. Teachers can encourage students to share their poetry not only with friends, but also with their parents. The response to their poetry is important.

If students get responsive comments and appreciative applause, they will look forward to sharing their poetic discoveries again (Cecil & Lauritzen, 1994). For variety in reading, students can choose to read their poems as a solo, duet, quarter, or any other grouping that fits with the poetry they have selected (Gruber & Gruber, 1995).

Cecil and Lauritzen (1994) also introduced interesting methods to read a poem. They emphasized that students can read or memorize a poem for their poetry reading, whichever seems most comfortable to them. Students can practice their poems by reading them aloud in front of a mirror, in front of classmates, or privately into a tape recorder. When they feel ready to perform their selections, they can decide how to stage their poetry reading using appropriate props, music, and/or actions to enhance the feeling of each poem. The teacher can consult with individuals, or groups to offer helpful suggestions or comments.

The culminating poetry reading can be a special public celebration with parents and community members offered written invitations. Alternatively, for a more informal event, the class might invite another class or a group of staff members acting to act as audience to extend their appreciation and applause (Cecil & Lauritzen, 1994).

Vocabulary Development. Poems are rich sources of vocabulary because poets use many words to demonstrate their ideas. While reading, students discover vocabulary words. It can be said that collecting words and rearranging them in phrases to make a poem stimulates vocabulary acquisition. Therefore, it is better for English learners to try and match a poem in their native language to the English version, rather than simply translating a poem. This could result in a dramatic dual-language choral reading (Chatton, 1993).

Emotional Awareness. The advantages of writing poetry are that students can express their emotions--positive or negative--throughout the school day and in their lives outside of school. Poetry is a means of expressing oneself that helps connect literacy with everyday living (Graves, 1992).

Graves (1992) demonstrated several ways that poetry can help students to become aware of their emotions. First, students become aware of their emotions in class, such as sorrow, happiness, or boredom. Next, students can be aware of their emotions when they occur. Teachers can explain that anger is a reasonable emotion that is worth writing about. Lastly, students can write an angry poem and share it with the class. By doing this, students can

explore where the anger came from. Over time, students will recognize that various emotions can result in entirely different outcomes. The literate life constantly relates the everyday to the literacy event.

If teachers only use books to teach English, second-language acquisition can be boring and hard for students. However, students may feel more interested during poetry instruction when teachers show how to read and create poems in various ways. They can develop imagination, vocabulary, and emotional awareness, and share public celebration with their parents.

The Types of Poems

During elementary grades, children usually learn to write five types of poems: formula poems, free-form poems, syllable-poems, word-count poems, and rhymed-verse poems (Tompkins, 2004).

Formula Poems. Formula poems follow short and simple rules; therefore, students who struggle in writing them feel successful (Tompkins, 2004). Students can use words in their poems such as "I wish..." —they begin each line of their poems with "I wish" and then complete the line with a wish (Koch, 2000). Students can list their wishes in their poem, such as in the following example.

I wish I had all money in the world.
I wish I was a star fallen down from Mars.
I wish I were a teddy bear.
I wish I had a flying carpet.
I wish I could go outside and play. (Tompkins,
2004, p. 396)

Besides beginning with "I wish," a color is another way for students to write poems. The same color may be repeated in each line, or a different color may be used (Koch, 2000). For example, second grader Cheyenne describes yellow in this color poem:

Yellow is bright,
Yellow is light.
Yellow glows in the dark,
Yellow in an autumn tree,
Yellow is giving to you and me. (Tompkins, 2004,
p. 397)

Writing color poems can be coordinated with teaching primary students to read and write the color words. Tompkins (2004) suggested that teachers encourage students to create color poems rather than lead students to read color words on worksheets.

Teachers also can use contrast poems. Students begin the first line with "I used to" and the second line with "But now..." (Koch, 2000). A third-grade teacher adapted this formula for her social studies class, and her students wrote a class collaboration poem using the pattern "I used to think.../ But now I know..." and

information they had learned during a unit on the Plains Indians.

I used to think that Indians always wore beads, but now I know they didn't until the white men came.

I used to think that Indians didn't paint their teepees, but I know that they did.

I used to think that Indians had guns, but now I know that Indians didn't, before the white men came. (Tompkins, 2004, p. 339)

As shown here, teachers can achieve their goals in interesting ways with students through these simple skills.

Syllable- and Word-Count Poems. *Haiku* and other syllable and word-count poems provide a structure that helps students succeed in writing; however, the formula in these poems may hinder students' freedom of expression. According to the exact syllable counts, students try to search for words to express their ideas and feelings. They sometimes use a thesaurus and a dictionary to find the right words (Tompkins, 2004).

Block (1993) gave definitions and examples of syllable-and word-count poems shown in Appendix K and Appendix L. Each of these types of poetry can stand alone or become separate stanzas in a poem. As examples of couplets, one couplet is written as a poem in itself, whereas the second is a stanza in a longer poem.

The *haiku* often involves a seasonal hint. The cinquain challenges students to choose more precise words that evoke the exact images they wish to present. The cinquain verse that follows was written by Adelaide Crapsey in 1914, during the last year of her life. Her brief word etchings are similar to the Japanese *tanka* and *haiku*.

The diamente was invented by Iris Tiedt, of the University of Santa Clara, California.

Rhymed-Verse Poems. Several rhymed-verse forms, such as limericks and clerihews, can be used effectively with middle- and upper-grade students. In using these forms, it is important that teachers try to ensure that the rhyme schemes do not restrict students' creative and imaginative expressions. Definitions and examples of rhymed verse poems are presented in Appendix M.

Block (1993) suggested that teachers introduce three of the above types of poetry on one day, and three on the second day. Students can practice each type and decide which type best matches the emotion they wish to express. The important thing in the SLA classroom is that emotion, image, and creative word use are more important than rhyme.

Publishing Poetry Books

It is important for teachers to encourage students to write poems for themselves. Then students can save their poems in a folder or binder. If students have a number of poems ready to publish, teachers can consider putting them into a book (Janeczko, 1999). Students can then experience the pleasure of sharing their books with others.

This activity can help students understand the process of writing from idea to finished book. The easiest way to make a book is to fold several pieces of paper down the center and staple them together along the centerfold. A student can then print poems or, if he or she has the talent, write them in calligraphy on the blank pages. For a more successful-looking book, the student can use a word-processing program to print the poems. To dress up the book a student might want to use a sheet of colored paper for the cover (Janeczko, 1999).

Another type of book that students can make is a concertina or accordion book, which looks just like its name implies. It is easy to make this type of book; students fold a piece of paper so it looks like an accordion. One of the good things about this is that it requires no equipment or supplies to hold it together (Janeczko, 1999).

Making cards and posters are other ways to share new poems. Students can print poems on bright-colored cards and mail them to friends and family; the poem can be in a folded card that opens like a regular greeting card, with a picture painted on the front. A photograph can be used instead of artwork. Alternatively, students can make a poster that can be rolled up or folded for presentation. They can put their poem on the poster and jazz it up with a painting, a drawing, or pictures cut from a magazine. The bigger the poster, the more room they have for their art, and the larger they can write their poem (Janeczko, 1999).

If there is a publishing center in the classroom, students can make an easy decision to publish their own books. The publishing center can be a table where students go to work, or it can be a place where students get book-making materials to take to their own desks. After this, the teacher prepare publishing center supplies: construction paper, wallpaper for book covers, white art paper, lined paper for writing, stapler, hole punch, brads, and paste, etc. (Gruber & Gruber, 1995).

The goals of the SLA classroom are not only to improve students' language proficiency but also to stimulate imagination and self-awareness. Students can

achieve these goals by means of poetry instruction because this can improve their reading, listening, speaking, and writing. Using various types of poems can help students feel more interest toward in-class activities. If they have a chance to publish a poetry book, they can create a record of their poems to share with their parents.

In summary, this chapter addressed five key areas about writing instructions that can be applied in the EFL situation in Korea. Three effective types of writing instruction are introduced: journal writing, interactive writing, and poetry instruction. Teachers can use these forms according to students' interests and situations. In addition to these writing activities, students get feedback from teachers and become more independent writers during writing conferences. By participating in all these activities, students can increase awareness of themselves.

CHAPTER THREE
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Components of the Model

The theoretical framework (see Appendix N) in this chapter combines the key concepts examined in Chapter Two. This will assist the teacher in incorporating these concepts into instruction.

Key Concepts of the Model

The literature reviewed in Chapter Two was organized around five key areas: (1) writing and identity, (2) writing and conferences, (3) journal writing, (4) interactive writing, and (5) poetry instruction. Each of these will be examined to summarize what has been researched.

Writing and identity. Through writing instruction, teachers have a unique opportunity to see students' identity construction revealed in writing. Theorists see identity as complex, contradictory, and multifaceted. Identity construction must be understood with respect to larger social processes. There are many topics dealing with identity construction: discourse and identity, literacy and identity, and critical literacy. Ivanič (1998) considered three aspects of the identity of

writers: autobiographical self, discursal self, and self as author.

Writing Conferences. The writing conference is one important way to assess student's writing. A teacher has an opportunity to discuss how students can improve their writing by asking questions during the conference. If a conference goes well, the child's energy for writing increases. To lead conferences successfully, the instructor has to play a role of a guide and sincere and trustworthy listener. Teachers need patience to wait until students initiate their work and build confidence and skills.

Journal Writing. Journal writing is a written interaction between teachers and students that focusses on meaning rather than form. This is a means of developing students' linguistic competence and their ability to communicate in written English. The important point of the teacher's feedback to a student's journal entry is that the teacher communicates encouragement to students rather than giving critical comments about their work.

Interactive Writing. Interactive writing is a collaborative group-writing experience. It produces an authentic writing piece composed and constructed by students. The writers involved with interaction produced

greater gains than those of individual writers.

Observations of the group interaction have indicated that children easily accept questions and support from the other members of the group.

Poetry Instruction. When teachers use only books to teach English, second-language acquisition can be very boring and hard for students. However, during poetry instruction, students may feel more interested and excited about the subject because teachers show how to read and create poems in various ways. The students can develop imagination, vocabulary, and emotional awareness as well as reading, listening, speaking, and writing by means of poetry instruction. Using various types of poems can also help students feel more interest in class activities. If they have a chance to publish a poetry book, they can create a record of their poems to share with their parents.

Writing Activities

Students can define who they are within their social worlds through diverse writing contexts. Therefore, using various writing activities can have the result not only of teaching English but also of constructing relationships, sharing experiences, and creating identity in students' lives.

Through writing personal journals, students can learn to be more independent and their teachers can gain insight into their lives. Teachers can utilize different types of journals according to students' interests and subjects. The goal of dialogue journals is to communicate in writing and to exchange ideas and information. Students can be encouraged to record what they have learned in classes by using learning logs.

Teachers can use interactive writing in numerous areas: creating stories, recipes, directions, and lists; writing poems; and retelling favorite literature. The pieces created by the students become a part of the classroom environment and may be used for independent or shared reading.

During elementary grades, students usually learn to write five types of poems: formula poems, free-form poems, syllable-poems, word-count poems, and rhymed-verse poems. The important thing in the EFL poetry classroom is to emphasize emotion, image, and creative word use rather than rhyme.

Writing activities lead to writing conferences.

During these conferences, teachers increase their understanding of their students, and help them to become more independent. Most classrooms in Korea are

teacher-centered. In contrast, conferences provide the opportunity for students to meet with the teacher in person and get some ideas and feedback.

Cognitive and Affective Outcomes

The writing activities mentioned above develop English learners' language proficiency and promote communication skills. The primary outcome of these writing activities is identity construction. Students' discursive practices contribute to the development of a writer's discursal identity and voice. Other effects of the writing activities are that these increase students' cognitive abilities and stimulate their imagination.

In summary, key concepts of the model involving writing activities that promote identity have as their outcome the development of students' cognitive and affective abilities.

Design of the Model

The model presented in Appendix N shows how the five key areas are interconnected, and also shows the outcomes of the writing activities.

Writing Activities

Students improve their self-expression skills by writing journal entries and by having conversations with

the teacher. In interactive writing, there are many interactions between a teacher and students or between students and students. For example, they can discuss the story plot and give suggestions how to start the story. A teacher can use poetry instruction as a means of teaching speaking, listening, and writing. Students can create poems and share their poems with peers and parents. Sometimes these poems are "published" for all the students in the classroom. Students get feedback about their writing from their teacher during writing conferences.

Writing activities that have been discussed above are focused on interactions between teacher and student or between students and students.

Cognitive and Affective Outcomes

Appendix N shows both cognitive and affective outcomes of writing activities.

Cognitive Outcomes. During interactive writing, peer interaction can have significant results. Interacting with friends and conflicts that can occur during these interactions enable students to increase their cognitive abilities during the writing process, strengthening their skills in critical thinking, inference, sequencing events, reasoning with cause and effect, and so forth.

One goal of poetry instruction is to stimulate students' imagination. Students who write poetry can be encouraged to make the second language their own by inventing words, using new words in old ways, and being freer to be more imaginative and more creative in the second language than they could be in their first.

Affective Outcomes. The experiences afforded through journal writing provide an opportunity for learners to develop an awareness of their own discovery processes. Consequently, journals heighten self-awareness and engage writers in a process of enhancing their enjoyment of language.

English learners who engage in journal writing can benefit from the experiences in two ways: an increased confidence in their writing skills and a deepened understanding of themselves. Learner-generated writing both builds confidence and promotes autonomy that is crucial to the language learner.

Again, through journal writing, interactive writing and poetry writing, students can develop their creativity and imagination, become more confident in their written skills, and gain a deeper insight into themselves.

In summary, there are different types of writing that can be applied in the classrooms. Using writing

instructions, teacher can develop closer relationships with students and help students to develop their affective and cognitive abilities.

CHAPTER FOUR

CURRICULUM DESIGN

The curriculum unit is designed for EFL teachers in Korea at the target-teaching level grades 3-6. The title of this unit is America: Symbols, Heroes, and Traditions and applies the key ideas addressed in Chapter Two and the principles formulated in Chapter Three. Appendix O presents how the key ideas are integrated in the unit lessons. The content of the unit consists of six lessons to provide background knowledge about America.

The Purpose of the Instructional Unit

Students in these early grades do not have much knowledge about America. In addition, they often have incorrect concepts about America. For example, most students see America as the "land of dreams." However, they may not realize what effort, tears, and sacrifices have gone into making America what it is today.

The most serious problem of English education in Korea is that there is no reason for students to learn English except for obtaining good grades. Students need the opportunity to think about why learning English is good for them. This unit will suggest some way to address

this; for example, it can give them the opportunity to have role models.

The task chains applied in this unit provide opportunities to improve students' language competence. Students improve their writing by generating a letter, a book report, and a poem. Students work together to write a book report. During this interactive writing, students develop their writing processes more efficiently than by writing individually; in addition their cognitive ability is stimulated. In addition to writing improvement, students improve their speaking skills by interviewing, debating, singing songs, and storytelling. Therefore, the key concepts of the literature review (writing and identity, writing conferences, journal writing, interactive writing, and poetry instruction) form the language objectives in the instructional plans (see Appendix O).

Besides content and language objectives, learning-strategy objectives are used in these unit lessons. Students learn how to use various learning strategies: compare and contrast, cause and effect, and problem and solution. By applying these strategies to task chains, students' thinking ability will be improved.

In addition to the above three objectives (content, learning strategy, and language), assessment is used as a means of inspiring students' learning. There are various assessments used in this unit: self-evaluative journal entries, story retelling, peer assessment, and so on. And so it is evident that the purpose of the instructional plans is to convey content about America, develop language skills in writing, and build capacity in learning strategies.

The Content of the Instructional Plans

The unit plan begins with a lesson on Symbols of America. As mentioned above, elementary-school students in Korea do not have much knowledge about America. This lesson provides symbols of the United States. Then, students have opportunities to compare and contrast the symbols of America and Korea. Comparing many symbols between the two countries, such as "The Pledge of Allegiance to the Flag," can be interesting and informative. As the next step, the teacher explains to students the format of a letter. Students then try to write a letter to friends or pen pals in America.

Lesson Two begins with the story of Martin Luther King, Jr. The purpose of this lesson is to provide

background knowledge about Martin Luther King, Jr., who is not familiar to elementary school students in Korea.

Next, students think about the causes and effects of Martin Luther King's fight for justice. Students then write a group book report about Martin Luther King. In this step, students have a chance to work with peers. There are not many opportunities to interact with friends in the classroom in Korea; therefore, it can be hard for students to cooperate. It is meaningful, though, because through interaction among peers, they will learn how to work together and help each other.

Lesson Three is about César Chávez, who worked to improve the life for Mexican Americans. The concept of discrimination is explained by César Chávez's life story. A language goal of this lesson is to help students learn the role of the adjective in the English language, and how to describe something with adjectives. Then, students describe characteristics about César Chávez with adjectives.

This lesson also provides information about the Korean Taeil Jeon, who sacrificed his life to improve the working conditions of labor workers in Korea. Students compare and contrast these two people's lives. These people's stories provide an opportunity for students to

realize that they should pursue goals both for their personal success and for contribution to society.

Lesson Four is about slavery and Abraham Lincoln. By reading the book, Working Cotton, which describes a slave family's daily life from early in the morning to night, students can gain insight into a slave's life. At the next step, students list the views of Lincoln and Douglas concerning the spread of slavery. Students learn how to debate with others. In most classes, students are passive recipients, so they seldom have a chance to express their opinions. Through this lesson, students learn not only to express their opinions but also to listen to others, even those who may not have the same opinions.

Immigration is very important in American history and students gain background knowledge about this in Lesson Five. Students learn the meaning of immigration and the reasons why people leave their countries to go to America. Students hear many successful stories of American immigrants through television or books in Korea. However, immigrants had to overcome many difficulties.

Students imagine what kind of problems immigrants might face and ways to overcome these problems. Through this, students learn how to solve rather than avoid problems they might face in the present or future.

Students interview people to get information about immigration. By conducting interviews, students' fear of speaking English can be decreased.

In Lesson Six, students have a chance to sing a song. Singing is the easiest way to approach teaching English because most students like to sing songs. In addition, students in Korea know how to play the piano; therefore, if sing-a-song instruction is interesting, they will practice the song at home. Students also learn how to write a cinquain, a five-line poem. Poetry is familiar to students, who often create poems in Korean, so generating a poem in English is fun to them. Students create a poem about themselves, so they have a chance to think of "Who I Am."

To sum up, this unit provides background knowledge about America and opportunities for students to think about the many reasons for learning English. The task chains applied in this unit provide opportunities for improving students' speaking, grammar, and especially writing. The writing that students perform is directly related to the key concepts investigated in Chapter Two and integrated theoretically in Chapter Three. Students learn how to use various learning strategies: compare and

contrast, cause and effect, and problem and solution, as appropriate.

CHAPTER FIVE

ASSESSMENT

The Purpose of Assessment

"Many students feel anxiety when confronting a test and have been conditioned to fear assessment. But assessment means more than scoring high marks on a test, getting good grades, or satisfying the accountability demands of an external authority. Assessment plays a vital role in supporting and enhancing learning" (Diaz-Rico, 2004, pp. 73-74). This shows an important aspect of assessment because in Korea, assessment has been focused more on ranking students than achievement of learning. Therefore, students are frustrated whenever they have to be evaluated, as most assessment consists of standardized multiple-choice tests.

In the article, "Working inside the Black Box: Assessment for Learning in the Classroom" (Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall, & William, 2004), demonstrated that improving formative assessment raises student achievement. They provided several ways to change assessment as a part of the learning process. First, they suggested that teachers have to make more effort in framing questions that are worth asking. Second, after

teachers ask questions, they need to wait in order to give students time to think. Even though the answer may not initially be correct, everyone can contribute to the discussion leading to the right answer. Third, the focus of comments should be on what has been done well and what still needs improvement, and on giving guidance as to how to make those improvements.

There are some difficulties in accepting and adopting the suggestions mentioned above, because English teachers in Korea are overworked. Parents also want to see specific and immediate results of their children's achievements. Therefore, the changes suggested here need to be implemented one step at a time. First, teachers need to discuss these changes with their colleagues. Then, they can carry out one or two things (Black et al., 2004).

Diaz-Rico (2004) identified performance-based learning which provides content, learning strategy, and language objective in the instruction. The unit lessons attached as Appendix D are based on performance-based learning; therefore, students' work is assessed in these three areas.

Assessment in the Curriculum Unit

The purpose of the curriculum unit is to gain background knowledge about America from such simple concepts as symbols of America to much more complex subjects such as how this country was developed by specific Americans. To expand students' learning through this unit, several assessment methods are applied.

Self-assessment is the first way to assess students' learning. If students understand their goals and recognize the importance of these goals, they can be successful in achieving them (Black et al., 2004). One way to stimulate students' self-assessment is by journal writing. After the lesson, the teacher distributes task sheets for students to record in their journals what they have learned. Students create these journals to write many things: the definition of important terms, things that are difficult to understand, and the part of the lesson that made the greatest impact on them. After this whole unit, students will have a set of journals to keep, and they will know what they have done during this unit.

Even though self-assessment is helpful to improve students' writing, it is sometimes hard for them to do that; therefore, traffic-light icons are used in this unit. Students label their work green, yellow, or red

according to the degree of their comprehension.

Traffic-light icons are used in most places in this unit because of their many benefits.

Using this format, students' fear of assessment can be reduced. A traffic light does not look like a grade; therefore, students might be more honest in reporting their understanding. At this point, it is important that a teacher helps students to realize that the role of assessment is not so much to determine their grade but more to help their learning.

Summative assessment is also applied in this unit. Most lessons include task sheets to check students' comprehension about the concept being taught. To avoid students' focusing on a better grade, a scale or 1 to 5 is used to present student' achievement. Retelling is another way to evaluate students' comprehension and is used in Lesson One.

It is difficult to assess writing proficiency; however, in this unit, there are three writing activities: writing a letter, a book report, and a poem. In addition to these activities, students write something using various graphic organizers to achieve learning objectives. To evaluate these, specific criteria are provided in the assessment sheets.

There are many group activities in this unit, such as group book reports, debates, interviews, making lists, and singing songs. To evaluate group work, the teacher observes students' attention, attitude, and cooperation. A checklist of group cooperation is also used to encourage students' participation. At the beginning of the lesson, the teacher tells students that they should fill out the Checklist because if not, students are likely to give responsibility to high-level achievers.

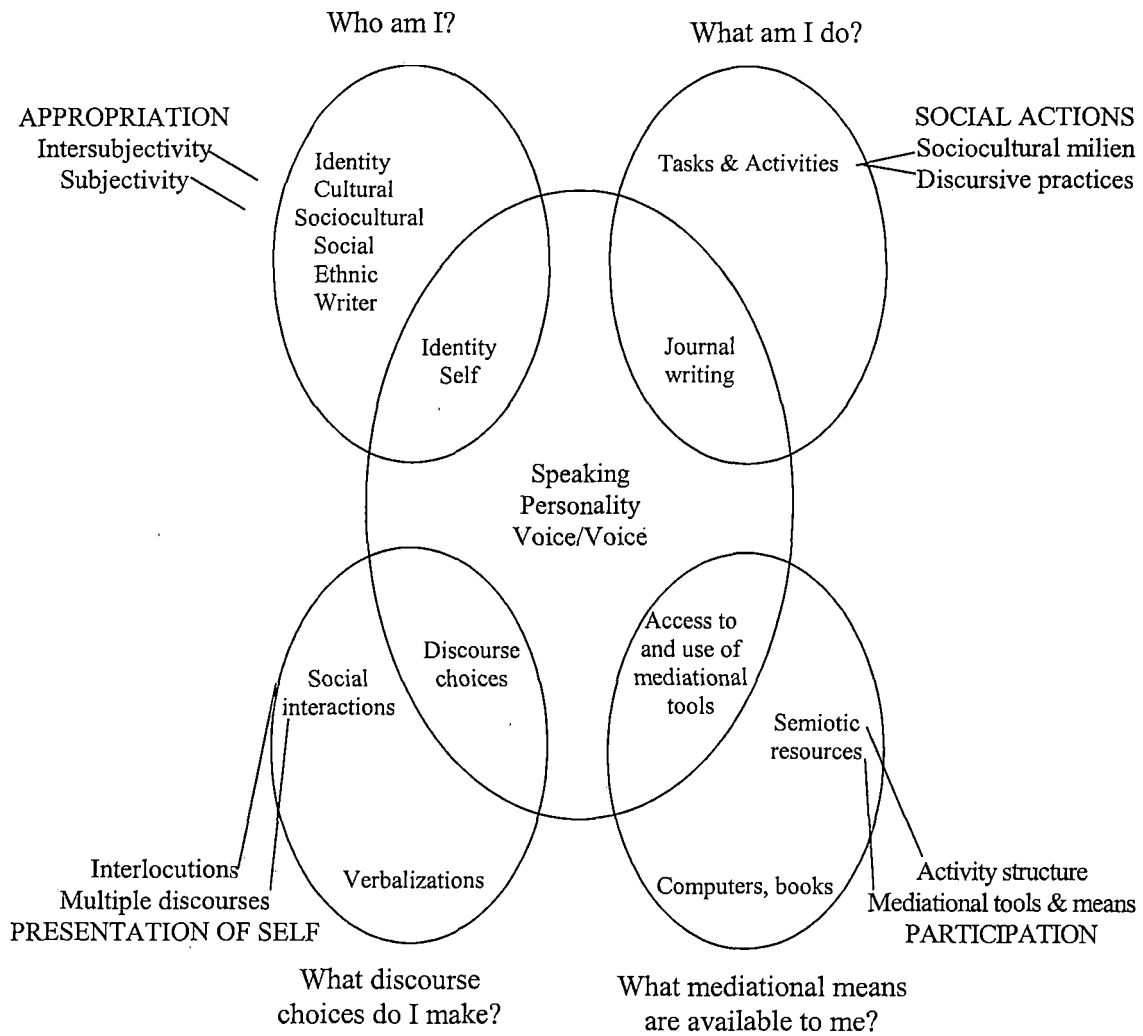
With good assessment, students can not only invest in their goal of learning, but also facilitate their learning. As mentioned above, assessment is a means of grading or measuring students in Korea. However, the most important issue about assessment is to encourage students to be active participants, rather than passive recipients. The teacher's role would become important as facilitator, rather than just transmitter of knowledge.

In conclusion, this project is about writing instruction that can be applied in Korea and is composed of five parts. Chapter One is concerned with the background of this project. Chapter Two addresses five concepts of writing instruction: writing and identity, writing conferences, journal writing, interactive writing, and poetry instruction. The theoretical framework shown in

Chapter Three represents how students develop their cognitive and affective abilities by writing activities. Chapter Four presents the design of the curriculum unit, which integrates the five concepts investigated in Chapter Two. The final chapter is about the importance of assessment and how to evaluate students' work. This project has offered some ideas about English writing instruction to English teachers in Korea. By conducting this writing instruction, teachers can help students enhance their English proficiency and develop their identity.

APPENDIX A
MULTIDIMENSIONAL MODEL

- Manifested in acts of meaning
- Self Expressed through signs (e.g., language)
- Expressed in and through discourse choices and evaluative orientations



Source: Maguire and Graves, 2001, p. 560

APPENDIX B
WERA'S MEMOIR

Moveing
MY TREW LIVE

~~I~~ I was born in Poland. I had lived there for 5 and a half years. I was in ~~the~~ pri school and kiegardin. ~~When~~ When I was ~~4~~ four I always ~~went~~ went to my ~~Grandma~~ Grandma. I always wanted to call her. When I was six I was in the last grad of ~~the~~ kiegardin. And it was the ~~last~~ ^{best} time ~~of~~ of my ~~live~~ live. ~~Because~~ Because I had to move to Unital State ~~of~~ of Amarka.

Grandma had to stay in Poland and my hale fimly had to too!

Source: Sluys, 2003, p. 177

APPENDIX C
WRITING-PROCESS CHECKLIST

<u>Writing Process: Quarter</u>	1	2	3	4
Prewriting Strategies Formulates topics before writing Considers approach to topic Discusses topic for writing Outlines or makes schematic organizer				
Writing Strategies Monitors writing (rereads, reviews, backtracks) Uses adaptive techniques (e.g., skips word, makes substitutions)				
Postwriting Strategies Edits (word-level changes) Revises (sentence-level changes) Rewrites (composition-level changes) Gets feedback from others				
Application and Interests Writes for pleasure Uses writing to communicate (letters, notes, etc) Actively seeks guidance in writing activities Writes in subjects other than language arts Participates in discussions about writing Shares writing with others Edits writing of others				

Source: O'Malley & Pierce, 1996, p. 149

APPENDIX D
PORTFOLIO-CONFERENCE QUESTIONS

1. What you like to write about?
2. How do you make your writing better?
3. What does your portfolio show about you as a writer?
4. Did you meet your writing goals from last quarter?
5. What are your goals for becoming a better writer next quarter?

Source: O'Malley & Pierce, 1996, p. 44

APPENDIX E
PORTFOLIO-REVIEW GUIDE

Name:

Grade:

Your teacher will soon have a conference with you about your portfolio.

Review your portfolio and prepare for the conference by answering the following questions:

1. How has your English improved since the last report period?
2. What can you do now that you could not do before?
3. How has your reading improved?
4. What do you like to read? What does it make interesting?
5. What are you doing to become a better reader?
6. How has your writing improved?
7. What are you doing to become a better writer?

Source: O'Malley & Pierce, 1996, p. 45

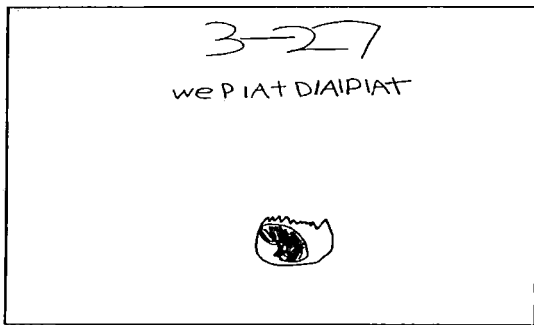
APPENDIX F
AN EXCERPT FROM A FOURTH GRADER'S
DIALOGUE JOURNAL

Yesterday I went to the Fair with my brother-in-law and my brother, sister my sister tell me to use the three dollar to get that big mirror so I use the three dollar but I only got one dart to throw at the balloon then I hit the balloon and I got a big mirror for my sister my brother-in-law tell me to get one for my brother-in-law so I got a bigger one then I give to my sister and I got my self some tikit to ride I went on the super side and I got scard then I was sitting and I jump up hight when I was going down.

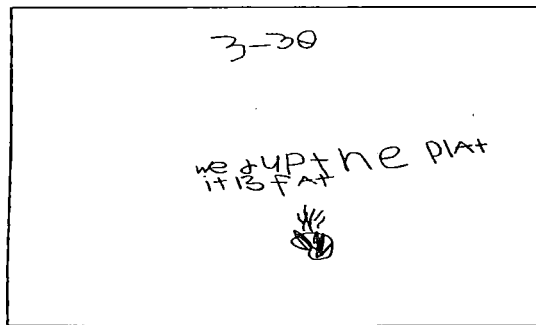
You must have good aim to be able to throw a dart and hit a balloon. I'm glad you won some mirrors. Was this your first trip to the Fair?

Source: Tompkins, 2004, p. 198

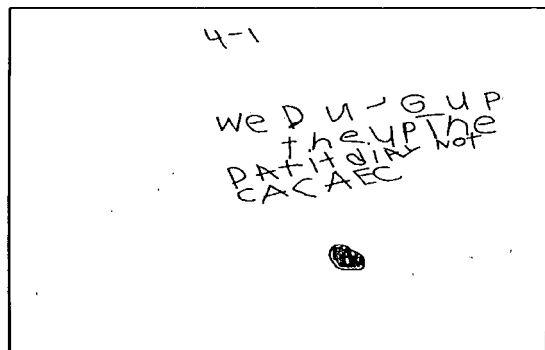
APPENDIX G
A FIRST GRADER'S SEED LOG



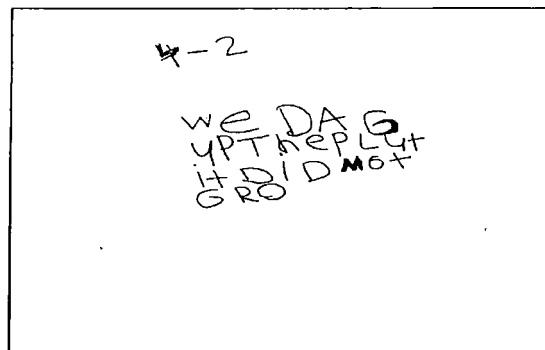
Translation:
We planted a plant.



We dug up the plant.
It is fat.



We dug up the plant.
It did not crack open.



We dug up the plant.
It did not grow.

Source: Tompkins, 2004, p. 203

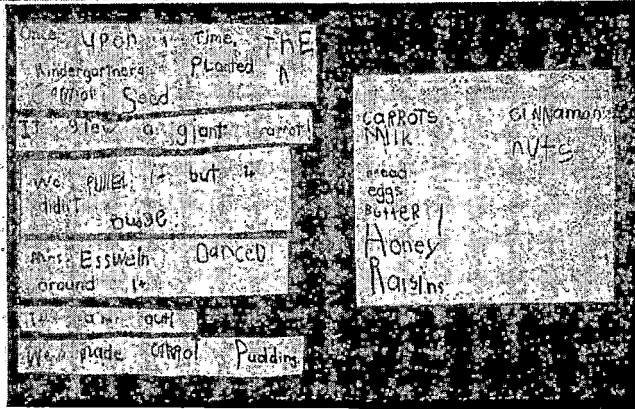
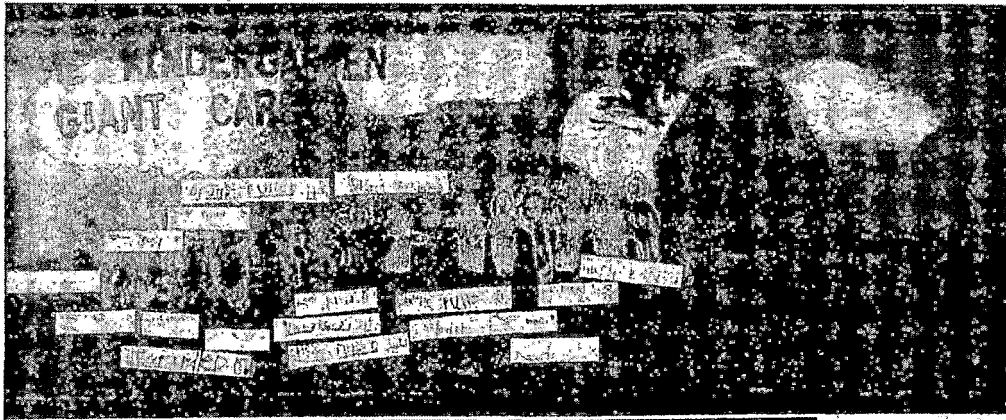
APPENDIX H

LIST MENU



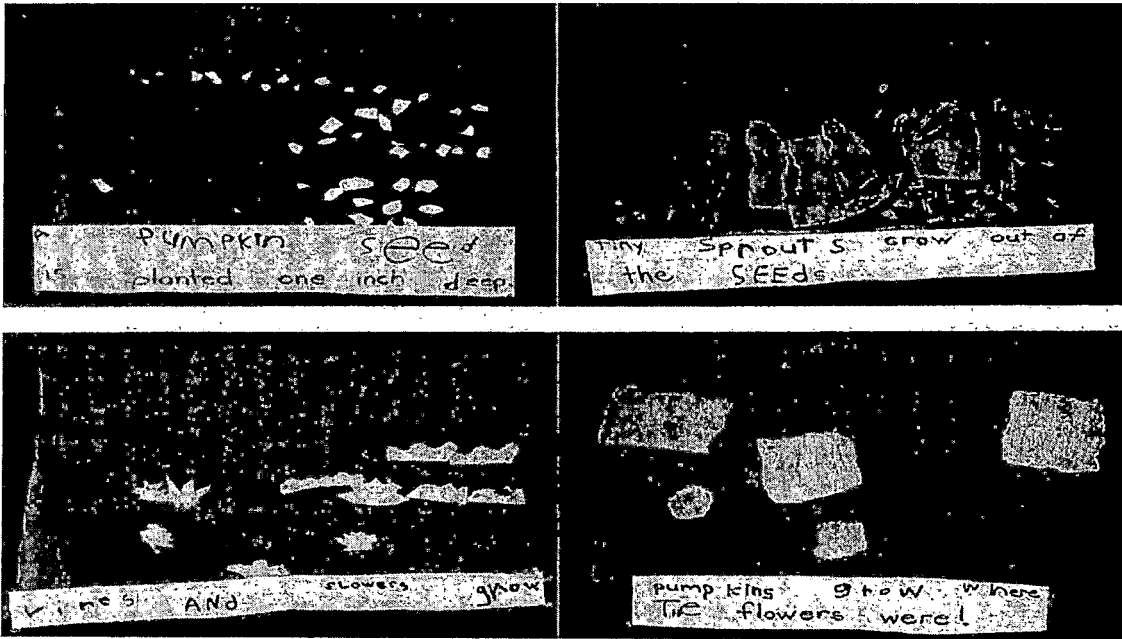
Source: McCarrier, Pinnell, & Fountas, 2000, p. 146

APPENDIX I
GIANT CARROT MURAL



Source: McCarrier, Pinnell, & Fountas, 2000, p. 127

APPENDIX J
WALL STORY OF PUMPKIN



Source: McCarrier, Pinnell, & Fountas, 2000, p. 149

APPENDIX K
THE DEFINITIONS OF SYLLABLE- AND
WORD-COUNT POEMS

<u>Term</u>	<u>Definition</u>
Couplet	Two-line stanza that usually rhymes and contains the same number of syllables
Triplet	Three-line stanza that usually rhymes
Quatrain	Four lines with several ways to rhyme (a popular framework for poetry)
Haiku	Japanese poetry that consists of seventeen syllables
Cinquain	(pronounced "sinkane") A five-line poem
Diamante	(pronounced "dee-ah-mahn'-tay") A diamond shaped pattern

Source: Tompkins, 2004, pp. 366-367

APPENDIX L
THE EXAMPLES AND PATTERNS OF SYLLABLE-
AND WORD-COUNT POEMS

<u>Term</u>	<u>Example and Pattern</u>
Couplet	Bladeskates glaze the sidewalk Taking me as fast as a hawk.
Quatrain	Rain comes down soft and steady, Making the world heavy, We put on our raincoats And march with raindrops as our notes.
Haiku	1 st line: five syllables 2 nd line: seven syllables 3 rd line: five syllables Green leafy branches In the wind wave greetings to The passing stranger
Cinquain	1 st line: one word, giving the title 2 nd line: two words, describing the title 3 rd line: three words, expressing action 4 th line: four words, expressing a feeling 5 th line: another word for the title Clouds Earth's roof Moving gray mists Gentle drops of rain Overcast
Diamante	1 word: subject noun 2 words: adjectives 3 words: participles (-ing, -ed) 4 words: noun related to subject 3 words: participles 2 words: adjectives 1 word: noun (opposite of subject) Winter Cold windy Chattering my teeth My frozen red hands Slapping my face Warming soothing Heat

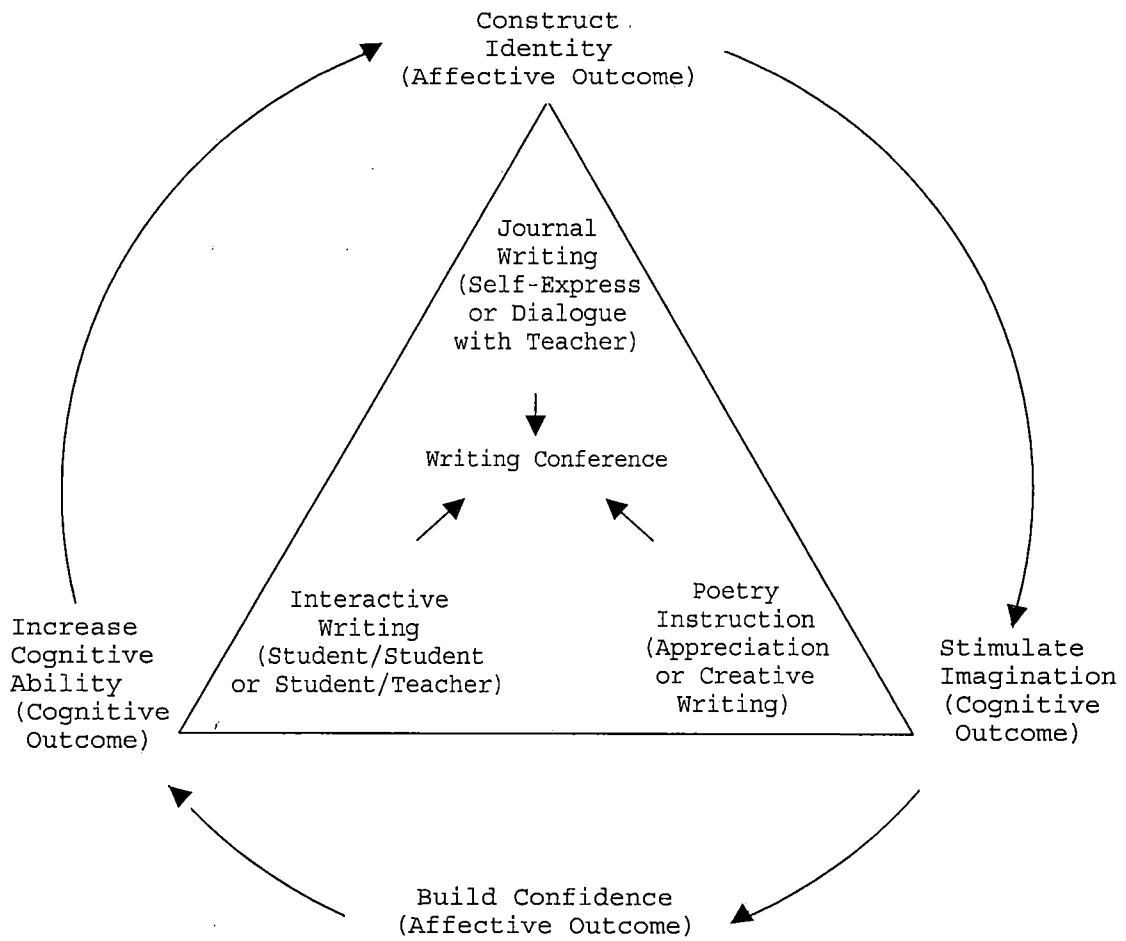
Source: Tompkins, 2004, pp. 366-367



APPENDIX M
THE DEFINITIONS AND EXAMPLES OF
RHYMED-VERSE POEMS

<u>Definition</u>	<u>Example</u>
<p>Limerick: The first, second, and fifth lines rhymes, and the third and fourth rhymes with each other and are shorter than the other three lines. The rhyme scheme is a-a-b-b-a.</p>	<p>There once was a frog named Pete Who did nothing but sit and eat He examined each fly With so careful an eye And then said, "You're dead meat."</p>
<p>Clerihews: A four-line rhymed verse that describes a person</p>	<p>John Wayne Is in the Cowboy Hall of Fame In movies he shot his gun the best, And that's how he won the West.</p>

Source: Tompkins, 2004, 406-407

APPENDIX N
THEORETICAL MODEL



Key:  = Writing Activities
 = Cognitive and Affective Outcomes
of Writing Activities

APPENDIX O

KEY CONCEPTS APPLIED IN THE INSTRUCTIONAL PLANS

<u>Concepts</u>	<u>Lesson Plan</u>
Writing and Identity	<p>Lesson 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 By writing journal entry, students construct their identity.</p> <p>Lesson 6 Language objective: Students create a poem about "Who am I?"</p>
Writing Conferences	<p>Lesson 1, 2, 3, 6 After writing of each task chain, the teacher provides writing conferences to students.</p>
Journal Writing	<p>Lesson 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 Formative assessment: Students write journal entries to record what they have learned.</p>
Interactive Writing	<p>Lesson 2 Language objective: Students write a book report with a group.</p>
Poetry Instruction	<p>Lesson 6 Language objective: Students create a poem.</p>

APPENDIX P
LESSON PLANS

Lesson Plans

Symbols of America	122
Martin Luther King Jr.	133
César Chávez	142
Slavery and Abraham Lincoln	156
Immigration	167
Sing a Song	179

Unit One: Lesson Plan One

Symbols of America

Objectives:

1. Content objective: Identifying symbols of the United States
2. Learning objective: Compare and contrast
3. Language objective: Writing a letter to a friend in the U.S.

TESOL Standards: Goal 1, Standards 1 and 2

Materials: Focus Sheets 1-1, 1-2, 1-3, 1-4, 1-5, 1-6
Task Sheets 1-1, 1-2
Assessment Sheet 1-1

Task Chain 1: Identifying Symbols of the United States

1. The teacher shows Focus Sheet 1-1, the map of America.
2. The instructor distributes Focus Sheets 1-2 and 1-3.
3. The instructor explains about the symbols of America.

Task Chain 2: Comparing the Symbols of the U.S. and Korea

1. Instructor passes out Focus Sheet 1-4.
2. Instructor explains "The Pledge of Allegiance to the Flag."
3. Instructor distributes Focus Sheet 1-5 for students to think about Korea's symbols.
4. Instructor distributes Task Sheet 1-1. Students compare and contrast the symbols of the U.S. and Korea.
5. The Task Sheet 1-1 is evaluated as follows:

The student writes more than five differences and similarities.	5
The student writes four differences and similarities.	4
The student writes three differences and similarities.	3
The student writes two differences and similarities.	2
The students write one difference and similarity.	1

- Evaluation Key: 5 (Excellent)
 4 (Very Good)
 3 (Adequate)
 2 (Needs Improvement)
 1 (Missing)

Task Chain 3: Writing a Letter

1. Instructor passes out Focus Sheet 1-6 to explain the form of a letter.
2. Instructor passes out Task Sheet 1-2.
3. Instructor asks students to write a letter to American elementary school students.
4. Instructor holds a conference to discuss students' writing.
5. Task Sheet 1-2 is assessed as follows:

Grammatical mistakes	5	4	3	2	1
The length of the letter	5	4	3	2	1
The content of the letter	5	4	3	2	1
Spelling	5	4	3	2	1

Assessment:

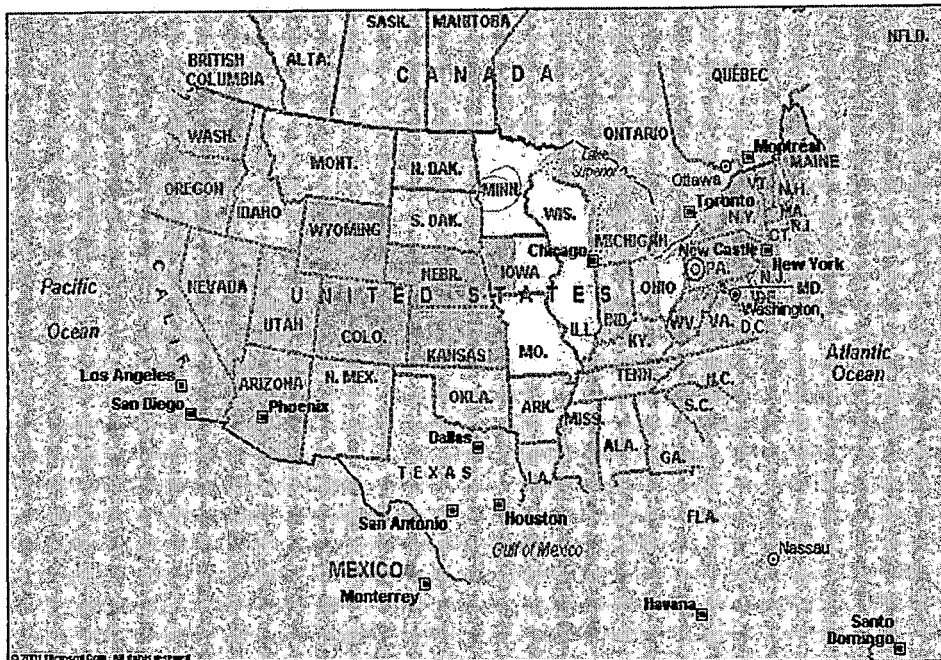
Formative

1. The teacher provides traffic-light icons and students label their work green, yellow, or red according to the degree of their comprehension. If students indicate each of comprehension at the "yellow" level, the teacher will ask a peer to assist. Students indicating "red" will meet with the teacher for additional mediation.
2. Students write a journal entry to record what they have learned.

Summative

1. The teacher assesses the students' compare-and-contrast skills about the symbols of America by analyzing Task Sheet 1-1.
2. The teacher assesses the students' letters by analyzing Task Sheet 1-2.

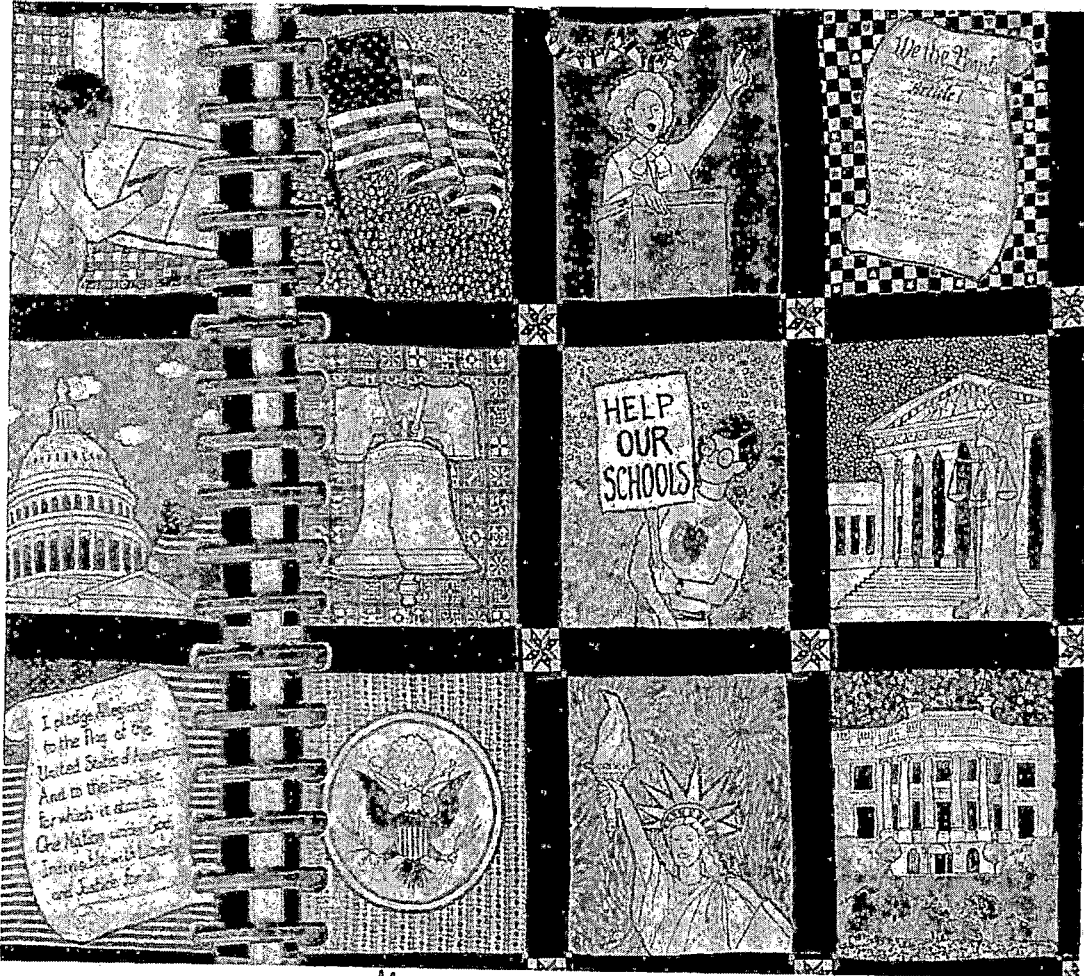
Focus Sheet 1-1
The Map of America



Alabama	AL	Louisiana	LA	Ohio	OH
Alaska	AK	Maine	ME	Oklahoma	OK
Arizona	AZ	Maryland	MD	Oregon	OR
Arkansas	AR	Massachusetts	MA	Pennsylvania	PA
California	CA	Michigan	MI	Rhode Island	RI
Colorado	CO	Minnesota	MN	South Carolina	SC
Connecticut	CT	Mississippi	MS	South Dakota	SD
Delaware	DE	Missouri	MO	Tennessee	TN
Florida	FL	Montana	MT	Texas	TX
Georgia	GA	Nebraska	NE	Utah	UT
Hawaii	HI	Nevada	NV	Vermont	VT
Idaho	ID	New Hampshire	NH	Virginia	VA
Illinois	IL	New Jersey	NJ	Washington	WA
Indiana	IN	New Mexico	NM	West Virginia	WV
Iowa	IA	New York	NY	Wisconsin	WI
Kansas	KS	North Carolina	NC	Wyoming	WY
Kentucky	KY	North Dakota	ND		

Focus Sheet 1-2

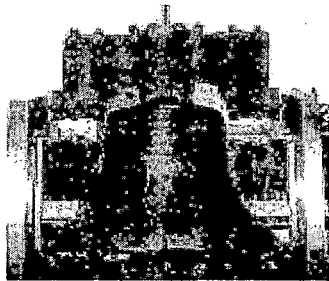
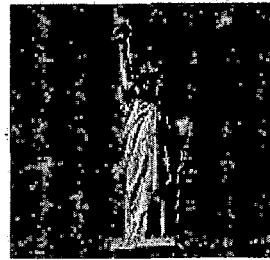
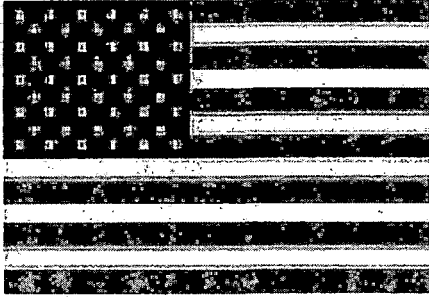
The Symbols of America



- | | | |
|-------------------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Voter | 2. American Flag | 3. Community Leader |
| 4. Constitution | 5. Capitol | 6. Liberty Bell |
| 7. Freedom | 8. Supreme Court | 9. Pledge of Allegiance |
| 10. Great Seal of the United States | | |
| 11. Statue of Liberty | | 12. White House |

Focus Sheet 1-3

The Symbols of America (2)



- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. American Flag | 2. Abraham Lincoln |
| 3. Martin Luther King Jr. | 4. Statue of Liberty |
| 5. Liberty Bell | 6. César Chávez |

Green

Yellow

Red

Focus Sheet 1-4

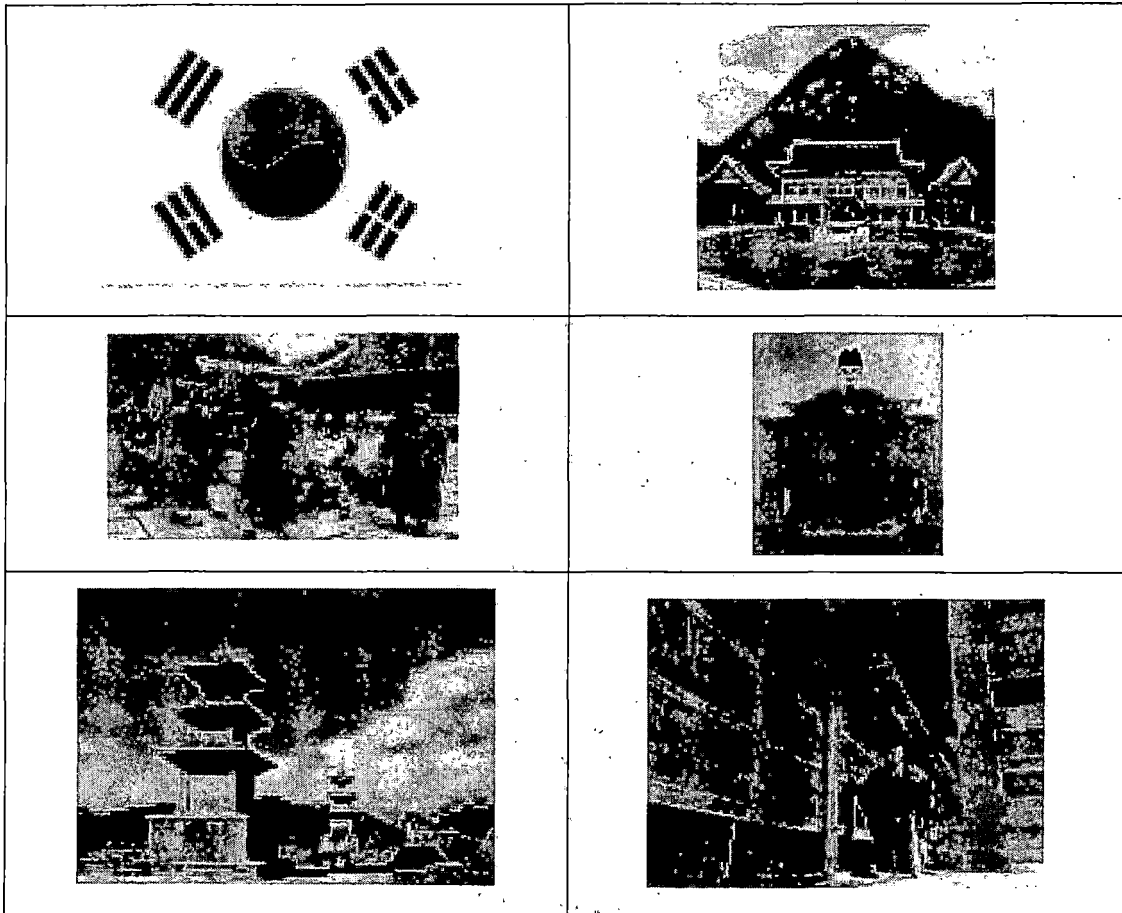
The Pledge of Allegiance to the Flag

<u>America</u>	<u>Korea</u>
<p>I pledge allegiance to the flag of the United States of America and to the Republic for which it stands; one nation under God, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all.</p>	<p>나는 자랑스런 태극기 앞에 조국과 민족의 무궁한 영광을 위하여 몸과 마음을 다하여 충성을 다할 것을 굳게 다짐합니다.</p>

Green	Yellow	Red
-------	--------	-----

Focus Sheet 1-5

The Symbols of Korea



1. 태극기 (Taeguekgi; The national flag of Korea)
2. 청와대 (The Blue House; The house of the Korean president)
3. 종묘제례악 (Chongmyo jeleak; The music of the ancestral temple)
4. 세종대왕 (King Sejong; The king who invented the Korean alphabet)
5. 감은사지 삼층 석탑 (Three-stone statues in Kamunsa)
6. 해인사 팔만 대장경 (Palman Daejangkyoung; 80,000 wooden pages of scriptures in Haeinsa)

Green	Yellow	Red
-------	--------	-----

Task Sheet 1-1

Compare and Contrast

Write the differences and similarities between the two countries' symbols.

	<u>Korea</u>	<u>America</u>
Differences		
Similarities		

Green	Yellow	Red
-------	--------	-----

Focus Sheet 1-6

A Friendly Letter

A friendly letter includes five parts:

1. Heading: sender's address and date
2. Greeting: usually begins with Dear, followed by the receiver's name
3. Body of the letter: Content
4. Closing: capitalized words that signal the end, such as *Sincerely*, *Yours truly* and *Love*
5. Signature: the sender's handwritten name

Address

Date

Dear

Body

Sincerely,

Signature

Green

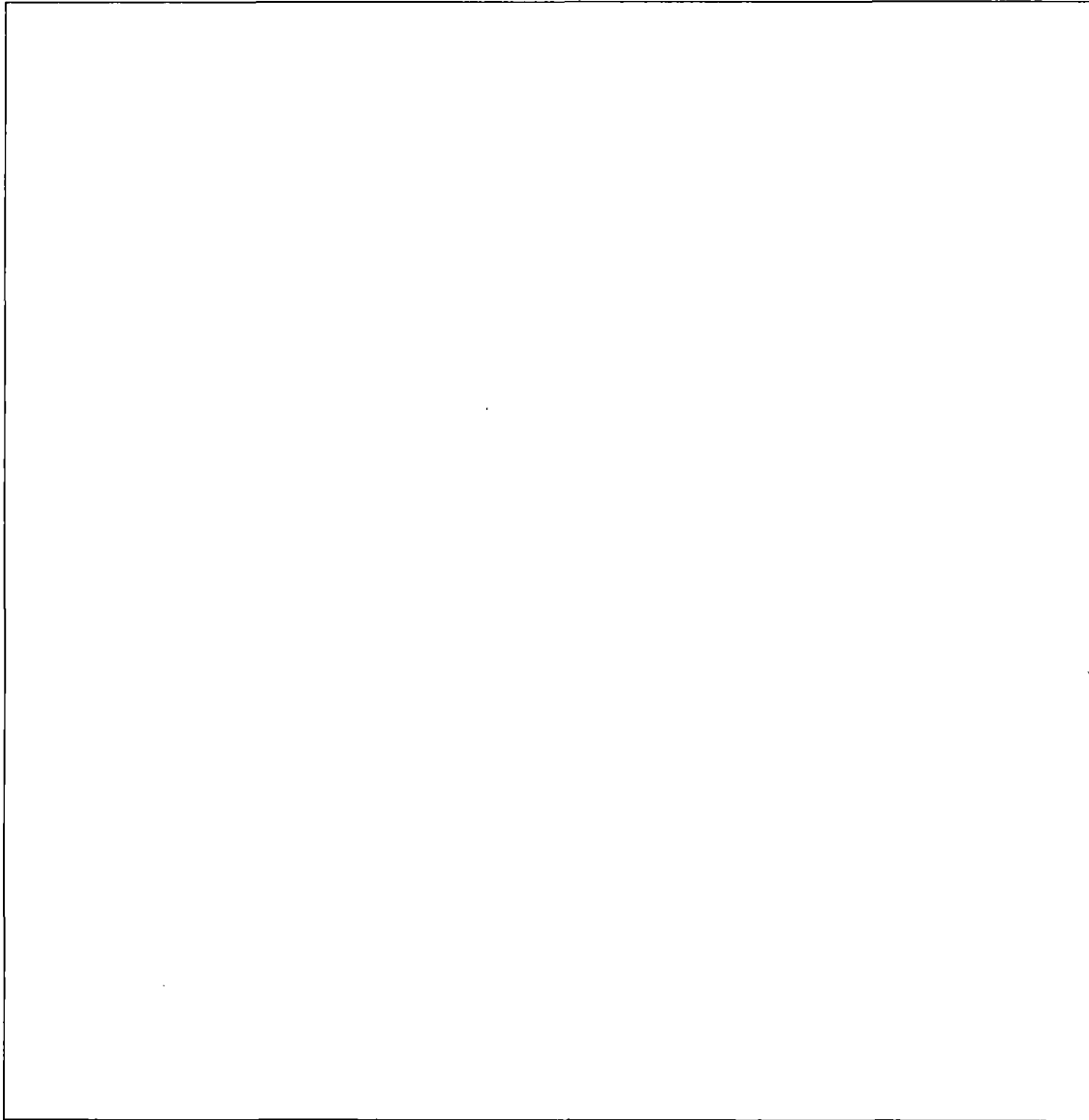
Yellow

Red

Task Sheet 1-2

Write a Letter

Name:



Green	Yellow	Red
-------	--------	-----

Self-Assessment Sheet 1-1

My Learning Journal 1

Date:

The single most important thing I learned was

Something that confused me or that I did not understand was

What surprised me the most was

I would like to know more about

Sources I can use to find answers to my questions

The part that made the greatest impact on me was

Lesson Plan Two

Martin Luther King Jr.

Objectives:

1. Content objective: Demonstrate comprehension by retelling
2. Learning objective: Cause and effect
3. Language objective: Write about Martin Luther King Jr. with a group

TESOL Standards: Goal 2, Standards 1 and 2

Materials: Focus Sheets 2-1, 2-2
Task Sheets 2-1, 2-2, 2-3
Self-Assessment Sheet 2-1

Warm-up: Instructor will explain that America consists of people who come from many different countries, so there is often unequal treatment of minority people. However, there have been leaders who tried to make America become a better country.

Task Chain 1: Telling a story about Martin Luther King, Jr.

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 2-1.
2. The instructor reads Martin Luther King's story.
3. Students are given Task Sheet 2-1.
4. Instructor divides students into groups of four.
5. Students discuss what they are going to do in storytelling.
6. After several practices telling a story, students retell a story to the class.
7. Storytelling is assessed as follows:

The tone of voice	5	4	3	2	1
Body language	5	4	3	2	1
The length of storytelling	5	4	3	2	1
The content of storytelling	5	4	3	2	1

Task Chain 2: About Martin Luther King, Jr.

1. The instructor divides students into groups of four.
2. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 2-2 and explains, "What is cause and effect?"
3. The instructor distributes Task Sheet 2-2.
4. Students discuss three important causes and effects in Martin Luther King's life.

5. Task Sheet 2-2 is assessed as follows:

Students write three causes and effects	5
Students write two causes and effects.	3
Students write only one cause and effect.	1

Task Chain 3: Writing a Book Report with a Group

1. The instructor distributes Task Sheet 2-3.
2. The students summarize Martin Luther King's life on a story-sequence chart.
3. The instructor encourages students to write more than four sentences in each paragraph.
4. The instructor holds conferences to discuss students' writing.
5. A book report is assessed as follows:

The content of story	5	4	3	2	1
The length of paragraphs	5	4	3	2	1
Spelling	5	4	3	2	1

Assessment:

Formative

1. The teacher provides traffic-light icons and students label their work green, yellow, or red according to the degree of their comprehension.
2. Students write a journal entry to record what they have learned.

Summative

1. The teacher assesses the students' comprehension about Martin Luther King's life by analyzing Task Sheet 2-1.
2. The teacher assesses the students' book report by analyzing Task Sheet 2-3.

Focus Sheet 2-1

Martin Luther King, Jr.

Martin Luther King, Jr. was one of America's great leaders. He was a powerful speaker, and he spoke out against laws which kept black people out of many schools and jobs. He led protests and marches demanding fair laws for all people. Martin Luther King Jr. was born on January 15, 1929 in Atlanta, Georgia. Martin's father was a pastor. His mother had been a teacher. Martin had an older sister, Willie Christine, and a younger brother, Alfred Daniel.

Young Martin liked to play baseball, football, and basketball. He liked to ride his bicycle and to sing. He often sang in his father's church. Young Martin played in his backyard with his friends. One day he was told that two of his friends would no longer play with him because they were white and he was black. Martin cried. He didn't understand why the color of his skin should matter to anyone.

Martin's mother told him that many years ago black people were brought in chains to America and sold as slaves. She told him that long before Martin was born the slaves had been set free. However, there were still some people who did not treat black people fairly. In Atlanta, where Martin lived, and elsewhere in the United States, there were "White Only" signs. Black people were not allowed in some parks, pools, hotels, restaurants and even schools. Blacks were kept out of many jobs.

Martin learned to read at home before he was old enough to start school. All through his childhood, he read books about black leaders. Martin was a good student. He finished high school two years early and was just fifteen when he entered Morehouse College in Atlanta. At college Martin decided to become a minister. After Martin graduated from Morehouse, he studied for a doctorate at Boston University. While he was there he met Coretta Scott. She was studying music. They fell in love and married.

In 1954 Martin Luther King, Jr. began his first job as a pastor in Montgomery, Alabama. The next year Rosa Parks, a black woman, was arrested in Montgomery. She had been sitting just behind the "White Only" section on a

bus. When all the seats in that section were taken, the driver told her to get up, so a white man could have her seat. Rosa Parks refused and was arrested. Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. led a protest. Blacks throughout the city refused to ride the buses. Dr. King said, "There comes a time when people get tired of being kicked about."

One night, while Dr. King was at a meeting, someone threw a bomb into his house. Martin's followers were angry. They wanted to fight. Martin told them to go home peacefully. "We must love our white brothers," he said. "We must meet hate with love." The bus protest lasted almost a year. When it ended there were no more "White Only" sections on buses.

Dr. King decided to move back to Atlanta in 1960. There, he continued to lead peaceful protests against "White Only" waiting rooms, lunch counters, and rest rooms. He led many to march for freedom. In 1963 Dr. King led the biggest march of all--the March on Washington. More than two hundred thousand black and white people followed him. "I have a dream," he said in his speech. "I have a dream that my four children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character." The next year in 1964, Dr. King was awarded one of greatest honors any person can win, the Nobel Peace Prize.

The country was changing. New laws were passed. Blacks could go to the same schools as whites. They could go to the same stores, restaurants and hotels. "White Only" signs were against the law. Dr. King told his followers to protest peacefully. But there were some riots and some violence. Then, in April 1968, Dr. King went to Memphis, Tennessee. He planned to march so black and white garbage workers would get the same pay for the same work.

On April 4 in Memphis, Dr. King stood outside his motel room. Another man, James Earl Ray, was hiding nearby. He pointed a rifle at Dr. King. He fired the gun. An hour later Dr. King was dead. Martin Luther King, Jr. dreamed of a world free of hate, prejudice and violence. Carved on the stone which marks his grave are the words, "I'm free at last."

Adler, D. A. (1989). A picture book of Martin Luther King, Jr. New York: Holiday House.

Task Sheet 2-1

Story-Sequence Chart

Setting: When does the story take place?
Where does the story take place?

Beginning:

--

Middle:

--

End:

--

My opinions about the story:

Focus Sheet 2-2

Cause and Effect

A cause is the reason for an event. An effect is what happens as a result of a cause.

Directions: Circle the cause and underline the effect in each sentence. They may be in any order.

1. The truck hit an icy patch and skidded off the road.
2. When the door slammed shut, the baby woke up crying.
3. Our soccer game was cancelled when it began to storm.
4. Dad and Mom are adding a room onto the house because our family is growing.
5. Our car ran out of gas on the way to town, so we had to walk.
6. The home run in the ninth inning helped our team win the game.
7. We had to climb the stairs because the elevator was broken.
8. We were late to school because the bus had a flat tire.

Green	Yellow	Red
-------	--------	-----

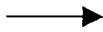
Task Sheet 2-2

Causes and Effects

Discuss three important causes and effects in Martin Luther King's life.

Cause

Effect



Green	Yellow	Red
-------	--------	-----

Task Sheet 2-3

Book Report

Group members: _____

Author: _____ Date: _____

Setting: _____

Characters: _____

Problem: _____

Events: _____

Solution: _____

Self-Assessment Sheet 2-1

My Learning Journal 2

Date:

The single most important thing I learned was

Something that confused me or that I did not understand was

What surprised me the most was

I would like to know more about

Sources I can use to find answers to my questions

The part that made the greatest impact on me was

Lesson Plan Three

César Chávez

Objectives:

1. Content objective: To enhance concepts about "discrimination and justice"
2. Language objective: To describe César Chávez with adjectives and adjective phrases
3. Learning objective: Compare and contrast César Chávez and Taeil Jeon

TESOL Standards: Goal 2, Standards 2 and 3

Materials: Focus Sheet 3-1

Task Sheets 3-1, 3-2, 3-3

Self-Assessment Sheets 3-1, 3-2

Warm up: The instructor explains that America consists of many different people who came from other countries, and there are lots of Mexican Americans.

Task Chain 1: Enhancing Concepts about Discrimination and Justice

1. The instructor reads the book César Chávez, the Struggle for Justice to students.
2. The instructor distributes Task Sheet 1-1.
3. The students discuss the questions.
4. Task Sheet 1-1 is assessed as follows:
Evaluation Key: 3 (Good)
2 (Satisfactory)
1 (Needs improvement)

Students answer more than 4 correct answers.	3
Students answer more than 3 correct answers.	2
Students answer more than 1 correct answer.	1

Task Chain 2: Describing César Chávez

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 3-2.
2. The instructor explains how to describe something with adjectives.
3. The instructor distributes Task Sheet 3-2.
4. Students describe César Chávez with adjectives.
5. The instructor holds conferences to discuss students' writing.

6. Task Sheet 3-2 is assessed as follows:

Students describe César Chávez with more than 5 characteristics.	3
Students describe César Chávez with more than 4 characteristics.	2
Students describe César Chávez with more than 3 characteristics.	1

Task Chain 3: Comparing and Contrasting César Chávez and Taeil Jeon

1. The instructor passes out Focus Sheet 3-3.
2. Students read the story about Taeil Jeon.
3. The instructor distributes Task Sheet 3-3.
4. Students compare and contrast César Chávez and Taeil Jeon.
5. Task Sheet 3-3 is evaluated as follows:

Students write more than four similarities and differences.	3
Students write three similarities and differences.	2
Students write one or two similarities and differences.	1

Assessment:

Formative Assessment

1. The teacher provides traffic-light icons and students label their work green, yellow, or red according to the degree of their comprehension.
2. Students write a journal entry to record what they have learned.

Summative

1. The teacher assesses the students' comprehension about discrimination by analyzing Task Sheet 3-1.
2. The teacher assesses the students' understanding about adjectives by analyzing Task Sheet 3-2.
3. The teacher assesses the students' compare-and-contrast skills about César Chávez and Taeil Jeon by analyzing Task Sheet 3-3.

Focus Sheet 3-1

César Chávez, the Struggle for Justice

César Chávez was a very important Mexican-American leader in the United States. He was a man who improved the lives of poor farm workers. He fought to help them get better wages and working conditions. He helped them gain more respect and end discrimination against them. César Chávez organized the United Farm Workers Union to do this. He gave the poor hope that life could be better.

César Chávez was born on March 31, 1927 near Yuma, Arizona. His parents had both come to the United States from Mexico. His father opened and operated a small grocery store. César Chávez played in the fields with his brothers. He never dreamed that his life would be linked forever to those fields that provide so much food for our country.

César learned from his parents. His mother told him many stories that taught the importance of helping the poor and not being violent. César's grandmother also taught him how to believe in God and the teachings of the Catholic Church. César's uncle taught him to read in Spanish.

One day César's teacher punished him for speaking Spanish. Some children made fun of his accent and called him names because he was Mexican-looking. This hurt his feelings. This was César's first experience with discrimination. When he came home, his mother told him he had been born in the United States and was an American.

When César was ten years old, his family lost their farm and store during the 1930s. They had to leave Yuma and go to California to look for work. The whole family became immigrant farm workers, without a home. They moved from place to place planting and harvesting crops--vegetables and fruits.

Working and moving from place to place, Cesar learned how poor farm workers were. They worked long hours in the hot sun and received very low pay. They were always very hungry. Sometimes they were cheated by the labor bosses. Because they were Mexicans, they were discriminated against in store and schools.

César joined the Navy during World War II. When he got back to California, he met Helen Favela and they got married. They moved to San José. There, César met Father Donald McConnell, who taught him more about how labor unions had helped improve worker's lives. César read about Mahatma Gandhi, a famous leader in India who had won independence for his people through nonviolent means.

In 1952, César began working as an organizer for the Community Service Organization. César's job was to help poor families register to vote. He helped them organize to improve their communities by paving streets and building parks. Soon, César became the national director. But he never forgot the problems of the farm workers. In 1962, he quit the job to dedicate himself full time to organizing a union to help poor farm workers.

César and Helen worked hard for four years. They traveled up and down California, trying to convince farm workers to join a union. It was called the Farm Workers Association. César told the workers that they would have better lives if they organized a union. Finally in 1962, they had their first union convention. They designed a new flag for their organization, the famous union eagle.

On September 16th, 1995, Mexican Independence Day, César and the members of his union went on strike to get better wages from the grape growers in Delano, California. This grape strike soon attracted world-wide attention. The growers opposed the strike with violence but César followed the way of Gandhi and would not allow any violence from the strikers. He said, "We can turn the world, if we can do it non-violently."

Starting on March 16, 1996, César led a march from Delano, California, to Sacramento, the state capital. This was more than 340 miles. Many farm workers joined the procession. The purpose was to tell people about the struggle of the farm workers. At the front of the line was the banner of the Virgin of Guadalupe, the patron saint of Mexico. At night, the marchers camped in small farming towns and César met hundreds of new supporters. At the state capital, he announced that they had won their first victory. A grower had agreed to raise the wages of the workers.

During the grape strike, César asked that people stop eating grapes to show their support for the farm workers.

This was called a boycott. Farm workers, students and ministers and priests traveled all over the United States to tell people about the strike and boycott. Millions of people joined the farm workers' struggle and stopped eating grapes.

But most of the farmers did not want a union of farm workers. The strike continued. César's group was now called the United Farm Workers, UFW. Some people talked about violence to get what they want. César continued to be against all violence, even when bullies hired by the farm owners beat up and injured the union members. He decided to go on a hunger fast to show how important it was to be peaceful. César did not eat food for twenty-five days. He became very weak and many people worried that he would die.

Finally, Bobby Kennedy, the president's brother, came to visit him and he ended his fast. César's words when he ended his fast were, "Our struggle is not easy. Those who oppose our cause are rich and powerful, and they have many allies in high places. We are poor. Our allies are few. But we have something the rich do not own. We have our own bodies and spirits and the justice of our cause as our weapons."

On July 29, 1970, the boycott and strike worked. Most of the farmers agreed to sign an agreement with the union. The UFW had won! They met to sign the contracts at the union headquarters called "40 Acres." This was the first time farm workers had won such a victory.

But this was not the end of the struggle. Almost immediately, others tried to destroy the union and César had to lead the farm workers again. They marched and boycotted again. Some UFW members were killed because they supported the union. Finally in 1975, Governor Jerry Brown of California signed the Agricultural Labor Relations Act, a law to protect farm workers from violence and discrimination. César had helped convince the government that such a law was necessary.

César Chávez encouraged the government to pass laws ending the use of the short-handled hoe. This was a tool that hurt many farm workers because it forced them to bend over all day long. César also was responsible for many changes in the labor laws to give farm workers basic rights.

In the 1980s, César Chávez fought against the use of pesticides in farming. Many chemicals used to kill bugs also harmed or even killed farm workers and their children. To convince farmers not to use bad chemicals, César, at age 61, started another thirty-six day boycott and another long fast.

On April 23, 1993, César Chávez died in the home of a farm worker family in Arizona. His friends and supporters had a huge funeral march in Delano. People remembered his saying, "The truest act of courage, the strongest act of manliness, is to sacrifice ourselves for others in a totally nonviolent struggle for justice. To be a man is to suffer for others. God help us to be men!"

Today, many streets, schools and official buildings are named in honor of César Chávez. In 1994, a year after his death, President Bill Clinton awarded Cesar Chavez the Medal of Freedom for his heroism and service to the principles of equality, justice and liberty.

Richard, G. D. C. (2002). César Chávez, the struggle for justice. Huston, TX: Arte Publico Press.

Task Sheet 3-1

Comprehension

Read the Focus Sheet 1-1 and think about following questions.

1. What does "discrimination" mean?
2. What was César Chávez' first experience with discrimination?
3. What does "justice" mean?
4. What kind of things did César Chávez do to improve Mexican Americans' working condition?

Green	Yellow	Red
-------	--------	-----

Focus Sheet 3-2

Adjective

Adjectives are words that describe nouns. Adjectives make writing more interesting. Adjectives can be colors, numbers or feelings. They can describe size, shape and other attributes of persons, places and things.

Directions: Read the story below and underline the adjectives which are used in the story.

The Best Soup I Ever Had

I woke up one cold winter morning and decided to make a delicious pot of hot vegetable soup. The first vegetables I put in the big gray pot were some sweet white onions. Then I added orange carrots and dark green broccoli. The broccoli looked just like little, tiny trees. Fresh, juicy tomatoes and crisp potatoes were added next. I cooked it for a long, long time. This soup turned out to be the best soup I ever had.

Write two adjectives to describe each of the words below.

cucumber _____ peas _____
_____ _____
spinach _____ corn _____
_____ _____

Now, rewrite two of the sentences from the story. Substitute your own adjectives for the words you underlined to make your own soup.

Douglas, V. (2000). Comprehensive curriculum plus test practice. Columbus, OH: McGraw Hill Children's Publishing, p. 260.

Green	Yellow	Red
-------	--------	-----

Task Sheet 3-2

Describe César Chávez with Adjectives

Write five sentences that describe César Chávez with adjectives. Underline words used as adjectives.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

Green	Yellow	Red
-------	--------	-----

About Taeil Jeon

전태일은 1948년 대구에서 태어났다. 아버지는 봉제공장 노동자, 어머니는 광주리 행상. 너무나 살기 힘들어 서울로 올라온 전태일의 식구들은 어머니가 팔죽, 비빔밥, 찹쌀떡을 팔거나 채소 행상을 해서 입에 풀칠을 했다. 어머니가 병으로 자리에 눕자, 전태일은 남대문국민학교를 그만두고 신문팔이로 나섰다. 낮에는 구두닦이, 밤에는 빈 병 줍기, 여름에는 하드 장사, 비오면 우산장사... 그는 해보지 않은 일이 없을 만큼 닥치는 대로 일했고, 그렇게 번 돈으로 어머니와 세 동생을 먹여 살렸다.

16살이 된 전태일은 1964년 봄에 청계천 평화시장 봉제공장에 들어갔다. 하루 14시간 노동에 일당 50원. 함께 일하는 12살 먹은 여자 아이들은 기관지염, 안질, 빈혈, 신경통이나 위장병을 앓고 있었다. 먼지 구덩이 다락방 작업장에서 주린 배를 안고 온종일 햇빛 한 줍 못보고 쏟아지는 졸음을 막으러 타이핑약을 먹으며 뽀족한 바늘 끝으로 제 살을 찌어댔다. 어느 날 함께 일하던 미싱사 처녀가 새빨간 피를 미싱판 위에 쏟아놓았다. 전태일이 급히 돈을 모아 데려가 보니 폐결핵. 평화시장 직업병 가운데 하나였다. 하지만 그 여공은 해고당하고 말았다.

전태일은 그 사건에서 큰 충격을 받고 이 열악한 노동조건을 바꿔보자는 생각에 낮에는 틈틈이 일터에서 친구들을 만나며 자기 생각을 알렸고, 밤에는 근로기준법을 공부했다. 그리고 바보회라는 친목회를 만들어 재단사들과 함께 근로조건을 고치는데 앞장섰다.

그렇게 힘든 날을 지낸 채 1970년 11월 13일 그와 동료들은 청계천 노동자들 앞에서 근로기준법을 화형시키기로 했다. 오후 1시 30분경, 전태일은 시장 입구 골목에서 근로기준법과 함께 자신의 몸에 석유를 붓고 불을 당겼다. 동료들이 미처 말릴 새도 없이 불덩이가 된 전태일은 거리로 뛰쳐나왔다. 그는 죽었지만, 모든 노동자들의 근무 환경이 나아지기를 바라는 희망은 먼 훗날에도 기억될 것이다.

Retrieved October 14, 2004

From <http://sun-g.ms.kr/library/read/read2-16.htm>

Translation of Focus Sheet 3-3

Taeil Jeon was born in 1948 in Daegu. His father was a sewing factory worker and his mother was a peddler with a basket of household wares. Because it was so difficult to live in Daegu, his family moved to Seoul. His family could survive because his mother sold *patjuk* (red bean soup), *bibimbap* (rice with vegetables), *chapssalteuk* (ricecake), and vegetables from door to door. As his mother was sick, Taeil quit his studies at Namdaemun Elementary school and he began selling newspapers. He polished shoes during the day and collected empty bottles at night; he sold ice cream in the summer and umbrellas when it rained. He did everything that he could do to make money to feed his mother and three younger brothers and sisters.

In the spring of 1964, he turned 16 years old and began working at a sewing factory at the Pyungwha Market in Cheongyecheon. He worked fourteen hours a day and made fifty *Won*. Twelve year-old girls who were working with him had diseases such as bronchial inflammation, eye diseases, anemia, neuralgia, and gastroenteric disorders. Their working environment was terrible; for example, the working space was too narrow, dusty, and dark. In addition, their long hours forced them to take pills (and even to stab themselves with their own sewing needles) to stay awake.

One day, a worker coughed up blood. Taeil collected some money from his coworkers and brought her to the hospital. She had tuberculosis. That was one of the most common illnesses in this market. As a result of her illness, she got fired. Taeil was shocked, so he decided to try to change these terrible working conditions. He met his co-workers to inform his thoughts, and he studied 'The Labor Standard Law' at night. With his coworkers, he formed *Bobowhe*, an organization dedicated to improving their working environments.

On November 13, 1970, Taeil and his co-workers planned a protest against the authorities for not enforcing the Labor Standard Law. At about 1:30 pm, Taeil set a copy of the Labor Standard Law book on fire, and then, to everyone's surprise, he poured oil on himself and set his own body on fire. There was no time for his coworkers to react. Taeil died in the fire, but his hope for improving working conditions lives on.

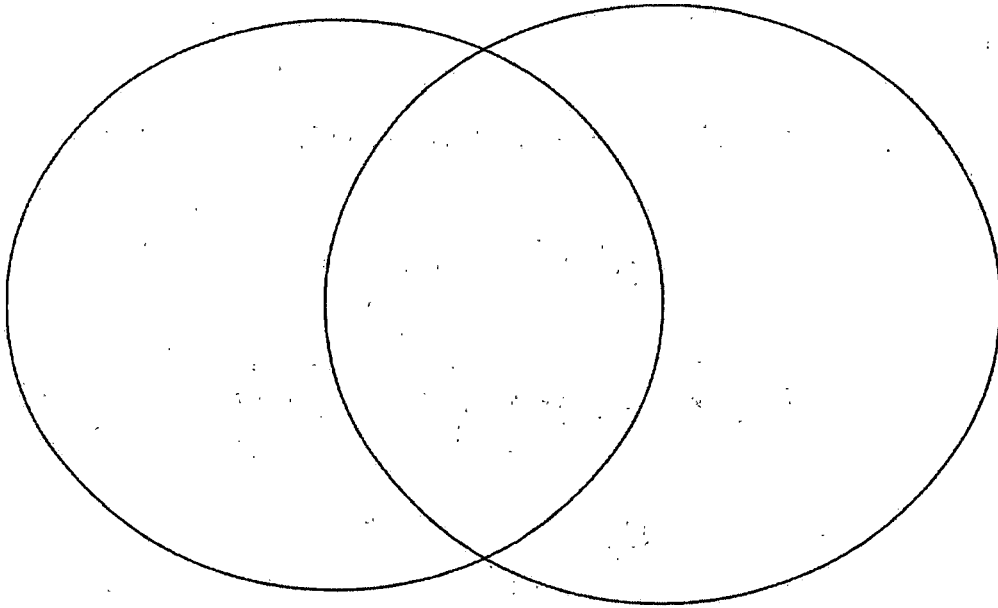
Task Sheet 3-3

Compare and Contrast

Write the differences and similarities between César Chávez and Taeil Jeon.

César Chávez

Taeil Jeon



Green	Yellow	Red
-------	--------	-----

Self-Assessment 3-1

What Have You Learned from This Lesson?

	3	2	1
I enhanced my concepts about discrimination.			
I learned the role of adjectives.			
I can use adjectives to describe something.			
I gained knowledge about Taeil Jeon.			

Evaluation Key

3: Satisfactory

2: Good

1: Needs Improvement

Self-Assessment Sheet 3-2

My Learning Journal 3

The single most important thing I learned was

Something that confused me or that I did not understand was

What surprised me the most was

I would like to know more about

Sources I can use to find answers to my questions

The part that made the greatest impact on me was

Lesson Plan Four

Slavery and Abraham Lincoln

Objectives:

1. Content objective: To achieve knowledge about daily life of slaves in America.
2. Learning objective: List the view of Lincoln and Douglas concerning the spread of slavery
3. Language objective: To prepare a cooperative Debate

TESOL Standard: Goal 2, Standards 1 and 2

Materials: Focus Sheets 4-1, 4-2, 4-3
Task Sheets 4-1, 4-2, 4-3
Self-Assessment Sheet 4-1

Task Chain 1: Achieving Awareness of the Daily Life of Slaves in America

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 4-1.
2. The instructor has students share the story about the family described in Focus Sheet 4-1.
3. The instructor distributes Task Sheet 4-1.
4. Students answer the questions.
5. Task Sheet 4-1 is assessed as follows:

Students answer 5 correct answers.	5
Students answer 4 correct answers.	4
Students answer 3 correct answers.	3
Students answer 2 correct answers.	2
Students answer 1 correct answer.	1

Task Chain 2: Listing the Views of Lincoln and Douglas Concerning the Spread of Slavery

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 4-2.
2. The instructor divides students into groups of four.
3. Students discuss the differences in opinions between Lincoln and Douglas.
4. Students make a list of the views of Lincoln and Douglas about slavery.
5. Task Chain 2 is assessed as follows:

Students list more than 5 views.	5
Students list more than 4 views.	4
Students list more than 3 views.	3
Students list more than 2 views.	2
Students list more than 1 view.	1

Task Chain 3: Preparing a Cooperative Debate

1. The instructor divides the class into five groups, and assigns each group one of these topics: the driving age in America, fast food, traveling by bus, Internet chatting, and horror movies.
2. Each group prepares and presents a five-minute debate that provides both sides of the topic.
3. Each group summarizes how the disagreements over its particular topic were settled.
4. Students discuss what they learned about settling disagreements.
5. Debate is assessed as follows:

The presenter uses the expressions about opinions properly.	5	4	3	2	1
The presenter uses good supporting examples.	5	4	3	2	1
The presenter's voice is clear and loud, and speech is natural.	5	4	3	2	1
Class members are active and involved.	5	4	3	2	1

Assessment

Formative

1. The teacher provides traffic-light icons and students label their work green, yellow, or red according to the degree of their comprehension.
2. Students write a journal entry to record what they have learned.

Summative

1. The teacher assesses the comprehension about the daily life of slaves by analyzing Task Sheet 4-1.
2. The teacher assesses the list describing different views of Lincoln and Douglas about slavery by analyzing Task Sheet 4-2.
3. The teacher assesses the students' debate by analyzing Task Sheet 4-3.

Focus Sheet 4-1

Working Cotton

(Note the use of the African-American dialect.)

We gets up the fields early, before it's even light.
Sometime I still be sleep.

It be cold, cold, cold.

The field fire send up a gray trail to the hazy sky.
Everyone speak in smoky whispers. "Don't get too close to
that fire, Shelan."

This side warm, other side cold: both sides can't get warn
at once. "Sun be out soon," Daddy say. "Burn off this fog
and the dew."

Daddy pick the row side of Ruise and Jesmarie: they
picking the row side of us.

Mamma keep the baby, Leanne, and the water jug on the row
we be working. Mamma sign; Daddy hum.

I'm a big girl now. Not big enough to have my own sack,
just only to help pile cotton in the middle of the row for
Mamma to put in hers.

Cotton smell like morning, sometime, kind of damp. It
smell dusty now it's warm, like if you get too close, you
sneeze. The rows of cotton stretch far as I can see.

Daddy pick so smooth and fast. You see him reach for a
bunch of cotton, then you see him pull his hand out the
sack. The cotton's gone, may be in his sack, but you never
seen my daddy put it there.

Daddy' cotton sack so long, they have to fold it double to
weigh it. Take a long time to empty his sack into the
trailer.

Mamma bring cornbread for lunch, and greens. Sometime,
it's a little piece of meat in your bowl.

It's always kids in the field; sometime they be your
friend. But you hardly ever see the same kids twice,
specially after we moves to a new field.

Jesmarie always be thirsty after we eats; then Ruise have
to have water, too. Mamma say, "You-all should drink at

lunch." Daddy say, "You girls stop playing around so much."

I wish I could still stay down at the end of Mamma's row and just only fetch the water jug and see at Leanne.

If I was old as Ruise or Jesmarie, I could pick fifty, even a hundred ponds of cotton a day.

It's a long time to night.

Daddy say cotton blossoms like any growing thing, only seomtime cotton don't know when it be spring. Cotton flower this late in the year bound to bring us luck.

The bus com when it's almost dark. Us all be tired. Daddy taek the baby: Mamma take the bundle. Me and Ruise, Jesmarie carry the sacks.

Williams, S. A. (1992). Working cotton. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Green	Yellow	Red
-------	--------	-----

Task Sheet 4-1

Comprehension

1. What is slavery?

2. What kind of work did slaves do?

3. Why was the role of slavery more important in the South than the North in America?

4. Which expressions show African-American dialect?

5. What is your feeling about the slave family?

Green	Yellow	Red
-------	--------	-----

Focus Sheet 4-2

What Is Right or Wrong?

Abraham Lincoln Works for Change

The Kansas-Nebraska Act and the Dred Scott decision caused violence and anger that caught the attention of Americans across the country. Soon new leaders began to speak out. One of these leaders was Abraham Lincoln.

Abraham Lincoln had grown up the frontier in Kentucky and Indiana. Like other pioneers, he had a hard life. He worked so many hours on the family farm that he often could not go to school. But he borrowed books and read all he could.

When Lincoln was a young man, he moved with his family to Illinois. There he held several jobs before serving in the state legislature. He studied law, and in time he became a lawyer. In the late 1840s he served a term in Congress. During these years the matter of the spread of slavery to the West became an important question.

Lincoln was against the spread of slavery. He did not think the government had the right to end all slavery in the country. But he hoped that if slavery were not allowed to spread, it would one day die out.

Lincoln joined a new political party formed to fight the spread of slavery. This party was called the Republican party. He even thought about running again for government office. The Kansas-Nebraska Act and the Dred Scott decision entered a race for the United States Senate. He ran against Stephen A. Douglas, who had written the Kansas-Nebraska Act.

The Lincoln-Douglas Debates

Few people could have been more different from each other than Lincoln and Douglas. Abraham Lincoln was a tall, thin man from the frontier. He wore plain, dark clothes that were a bit rumpled. He was not well known around the country. In fact, few people outside of Illinois had heard of him.

Stephen Douglas was heavy and a full foot shorter than Lincoln. He was well educated and wore fine clothes-was already serving in the Senate, and many Americans across the country knew of him.

In one way, though, Lincoln and Douglas were very much alike. They were both powerful public speakers. In the summer of 1858, the two men traveled around Illinois crowds turned out to listen. Everyone wanted to hear

Lincoln and Douglas debate about whether slavery should be allowed in the West.

Stephen Douglas argued that each new state should decide the slavery question for itself. That was what the country's founders had allowed, he said, and that was what the new Kansas-Nebraska Act allowed.

Abraham Lincoln disagreed. He said that "the framers of the Constitution intended and expected" slavery to end. To problem, Lincoln pointed out, was more than a question of what each state wanted. It was a question of right or wrong. Slavery should not spread to the West, he said, because slavery was wrong. Lincoln said, "That is the real issue. That is the issue that will continue in this country when these poor tongues of Judge Douglas and myself shall be silent. It is the eternal struggle between these two principles--right and wrong--throughout the world."

Stephen Douglas won the race for the Senate. But people around the country now know who Abraham Lincoln was.

Harcourt Brace Social Studies (2000). New York: Harcourt Brace & Company, pp. 494-495.

Task Sheet 4-2

The Views of Lincoln and Douglas

Directions: List the views of Lincoln and Douglas concerning the spread of slavery.

<u>Lincoln</u>	<u>Douglas</u>

Focus Sheet 4-3

Giving Opinions

1. Expressing opinions
The point I'm making is...
In my opinion...
It seems to me that...
I believe (think, feel) that...
As I see it...
If you ask me...
Personally (Frankly), I think...
2. Asking questions about other people's opinions
Are you opposed to... ?
Are you in favor of... ?
What's your opinion on (about)... ?
How do you feel about... ?
I'd be interested to know your thoughts on...
3. Agreeing
I couldn't agree more!
How true!
You're exactly right!
I agree wholeheartedly with what you say!
That's exactly what I was thinking!
That's what I believe!
There's no doubt about it!
That's my opinion, too.
Absolutely!
Definitely!
4. Disagreeing
I disagree with what you're saying.
I don't see it that way.
I don't think so.
I don't agree with you.
I respect your opinion, but I think...
I'm not sure if I agree with you completely on...
Well, you have a right to your opinion, but I...
I understand what you are saying, but I believe...
I hate to disagree with you, but in my opinion...
You could be right, but don't you think that...?
You have a point, but don't you think that...?

Green	Yellow	Red
-------	--------	-----

Task Sheet 4-3

Debate

Topic:

<u>Pros</u>	<u>Cons</u>

Self-Assessment Sheet 4-1

My Learning Journal 4

The single most important thing I learned was

Something that confused me or that I did not understand was

What surprised me the most was

I would like to know more about

Sources I can use to find answers to my questions

The part that made the greatest impact on me was

Lesson Plan Five

Immigration

Objectives:

1. Content objective: To gain background knowledge about immigration.
2. Learning objective: To use a problem-solution chart to solve problems.
3. Language objective: To interview people to ask why people choose to leave their own country to live in the U. S.

TESOL Standard: Goal 2, Standards 1 and 2

Materials: Warm-up Sheet 5-1

Focus Sheets 5-1, 5-2, 5-3

Task Sheets 5-1, 5-2, 5-3

Self-Assessment Sheet 5-1

Warm up: The instructor distributes Warm-up Sheet 5-1.

1. The instructor organizes the students into groups of four.
2. On Warm-up Sheet 5-1, one person should draw a large suitcase shape.
3. Students take turns writing or drawing in it things they would take if they were moving to the U. S.
4. Students talk about why their things are important to them.
5. Students share with the class what the members of their group "packed."

Task Chain 1: Gaining Background Knowledge of Immigration

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 5-1.
2. The instructor explains a new word: "immigrant," and Focus Sheet 5-1.
3. The instructor distributes Task Sheet 5-1.
4. Students answer the questions.
5. Task Sheet 5-1 is assessed as follows:

Students write more than 4 correct answers.	3
Students write 2-3 correct answers.	2
Students write 1 correct answer.	1

Task Chain 2: Solving Problems

1. The instructor gives the students Task Sheet 5-2,
2. Students will write on Task Sheet 5-2, if students were immigrants, what kinds of problems they could face, and how they would solve these problems.

3. Task Sheet is assessed as follows:

Students write 3 problems and 3 solutions.	3
Students write 2 problems and 2 solutions.	2
Students write 1 problem and 1 solution.	1

Task Chain 3: Interviewing People to Ask about Why People Immigrate to the U. S,

1. The instructor passes out Focus Sheet 5-3 to the students to explain expressions and how to interview.
2. The instructor distributes Task Sheet 5-3.
3. The students practice the interview with Task Sheet 5-3.
4. The instructor divides students by groups of three.
5. One of three students has the role of interviewer, and others have the role of interviewee.
6. Students take turns.
7. The students present the interview contents in the class.
8. Interview is assessed as follows:

The student confidently speaks to interview.	3
Voice is clear and loud.	2
Class members are active and involved.	1

Assessment

Formative

1. The teacher provides traffic-light icons and students label their work green, yellow, or red according to the degree of their comprehension.
2. Students write a journal entry to record what they have learned.

Summative

1. The teacher assesses the student's comprehension about immigrants by analyzing Task Sheet 5-1.
2. The teacher assesses the student's work by analyzing the problem-solution chart in Task Sheet 5-2.
3. The teacher assesses the students' interviews.

Warm-up Sheet 5-1

Packing for a Journey

What Would You Take?

A large, empty rectangular box with a thin black border, intended for a student to write their response to the question 'What Would You Take?'. The box is centered on the page and occupies most of the lower half of the page.

Focus Sheet 5-1

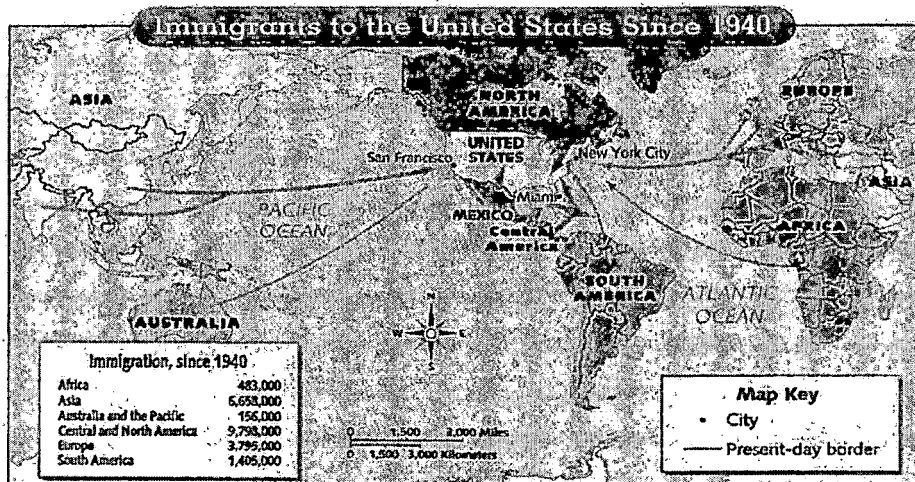
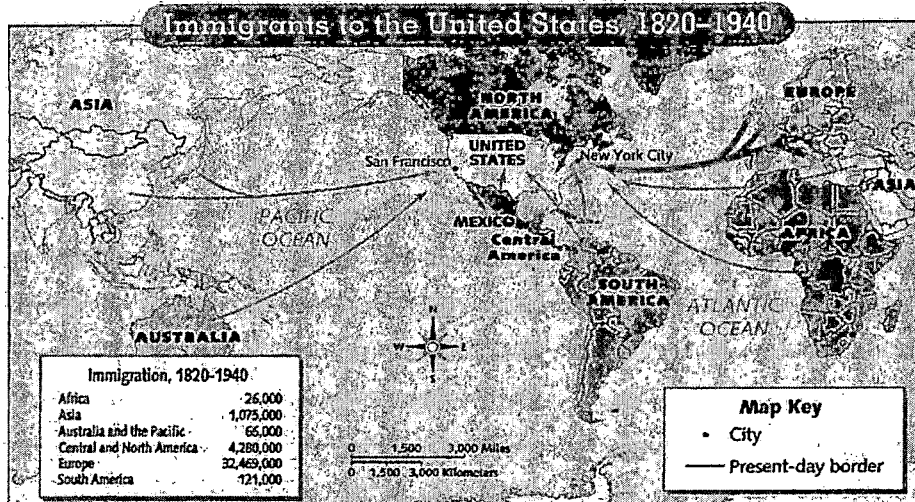
People Who Come into the US from Other Countries



Walter, T. (1997). Bridge to communication. San Diego, CA: Santillana Publishing Company, Inc.

Focus Sheet 1-1 (continued)

People from Many Places



People Move for Many Reasons

Many people who move from one part of the world to another are hoping to find opportunities in their new country. An opportunity is a chance to find a job, to get an education, and to have a better way of life.

Sometimes people move because they are not allowed to follow their religion in their home country. A religion is a set of ideas a person believes about God or a set of gods. People may move to a country where they will be free to believe as they wish.

Some people move because a war is making life hard for them. They need safety. Others move because of hunger

in their country. They want to live in a country where there is enough to eat.

Many People Move to the United States

People have moved to the United States from countries all over the world. People who move from one country to live in another are called immigrants.

From 1881 until 1920 almost 24 million immigrants came to the United States. The immigrants came from all over the world. The greatest numbers of them were from Europe. When their ships arrived at Ellis Island, in New York Harbor, or Angel Island, in San Francisco Bay, many decided to make New York City or California their new home. Some looked for opportunities in other cities along the West and East Coasts. Other immigrants traveled to the middle of the United States and worked as farmers.

Today, immigrants still come from Europe. Others come from Africa. However, greater numbers are now coming to the United States from Mexico and Central and South America. Others come from countries on islands in the Caribbean Sea, between Florida and South America. Large group of immigrants also come from China, the Philippines, Vietnam, India, and other countries in Asia.

A City of Many Cultures

Many immigrants feel homesick. They feel sad because they miss their home and family and the language and customs of their culture.

Often people move to neighborhoods where others from their home country have lived for a long time. The people in these neighborhoods help new immigrants learn about their new country.

East Los Angeles is one of the largest neighborhoods in Los Angeles. The people who live there call it the *barrio*, the Spanish word for neighborhood. Many of the people are immigrants from Mexico and Central and South America or are the children and grandchildren of these immigrants.

In East Los Angeles, grocery stores and outdoor markets sell the fruits, vegetables, meats, and breads that people from these countries like to eat. If you shopped there, you might think you are in a marketplace in Mexico or in Central or South America.

There are many other neighborhoods in Los Angeles where groups of people share a culture. The picture below shows one of these groups.



A Korean Festival in Los Angeles, California

Harcourt Brace Social Studies (2000). New York: Harcourt
Brace & Company, pp. 349-353.

Task Sheet 5-1

Comprehension

Find out the meaning of following phrases (1-3).

1. _____ : what a person believes about God or a set of goals
2. _____ : person who comes from one country to live in another country
3. _____ : the chance to have a better way of life
4. What emotions do you think the immigrants are feeling?

5. What do you think an immigrant family might want to live in a neighborhood with people from the same country?

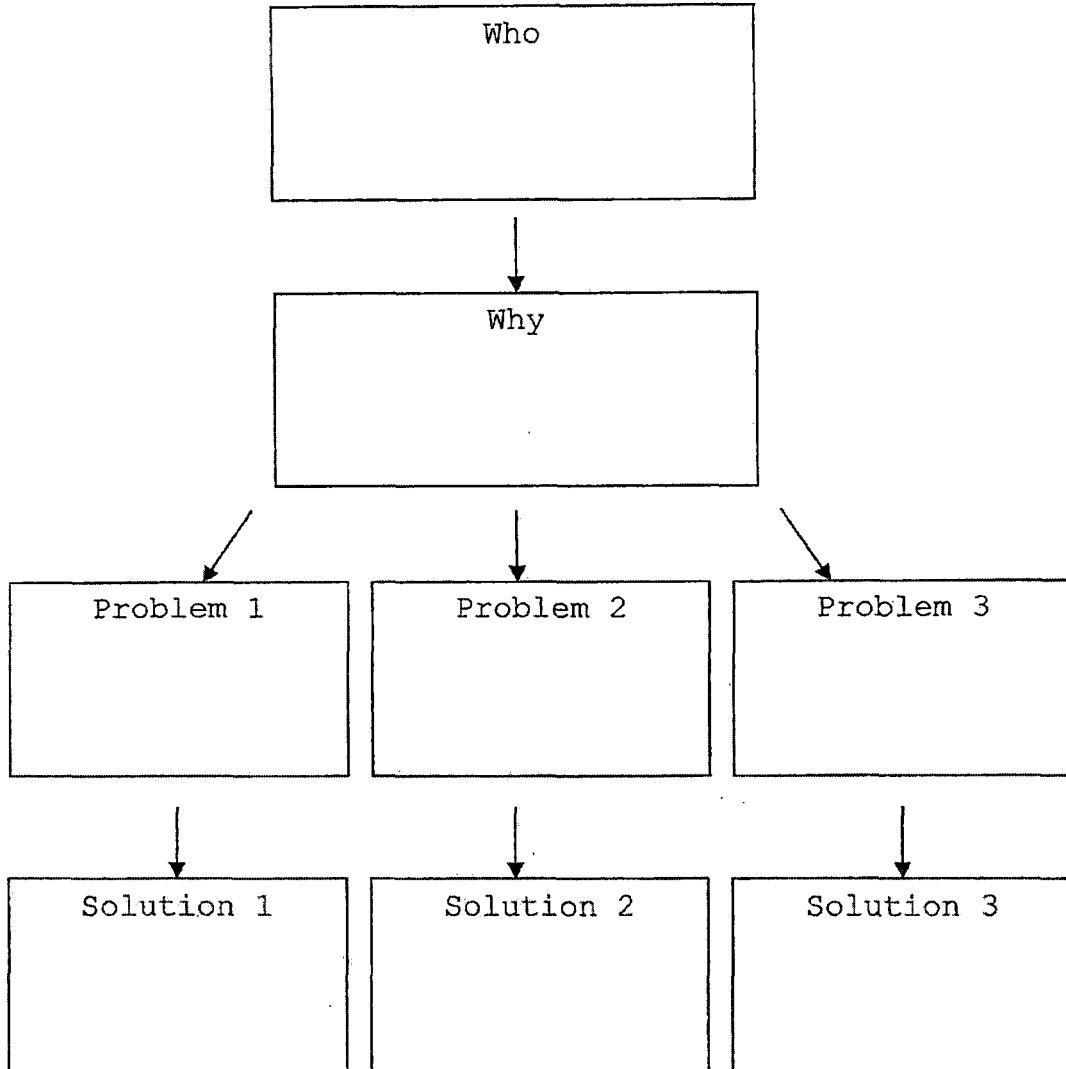
6. How do you react if your neighbor celebrated a different holiday than you did?

Green	Yellow	Red
-------	--------	-----

Task Sheet 5-2

Why Did They Come?

Through the years, millions of people have immigrated to the United States. With your partner, write who immigrates to the U. S., and why people immigrate. If you were an immigrant, what kinds of problems could you face, and how could you solve these problems?



Green	Yellow	Red
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Focus Sheet 5-3

Interview

1. Checking the information
Could you repeat that?
I didn't get that (first/last) part
I'm not sure I understand, do you mean...
So, you mean...
So, you're saying...
Let me make sure I got this right. You think
(believe, are saying that)...
2. To wrap it up
Well, that's about it.
That's my last question.
Looks like we're all done.
Looks like that's the last question.
Thank you very much for your time.
You've helped me a great deal. Thanks a lot.
3. Interview tips
During the interview, speak slowly and clearly.
Ask the questions you prepared.
Don't read your questions.
Don't be afraid to ask the person to repeat, expand,
of clarify.
Take notes as your questions are answered.

Green	Yellow	Red
-------	--------	-----

Task Sheet 5-3

Questions for the Interview

Name: _____ Date: _____

Question 1: _____

Answer 1

Question 2: _____

Answer 2

Question 3: _____

Answer 3

Self-Assessment Sheet 5-1

My Learning Journal 5

The single most important thing I learned was

Something that confused me or that I did not understand was

What surprised me the most was

I would like to know more about

Sources I can use to find answers to my questions

The part that made the greatest impact on me was

Lesson Plan Six

Sing a Song

Objectives:

1. Content objective: Students read the immigrant girl's story, *My First American Friend*
2. Language objective: Students create a poem
3. Learning objective: Students learn a song "So Many Voices Sing America's Song"

TESOL Standards: Goal 2, Standards 1 and 3

Materials: CD player and CD

Focus Sheets 6-1, 6-2, 6-3
Task Sheets 6-1, 6-2
Assessment Sheet 6-1

Warm-up: The teacher begins the class by asking questions of students such as, "Have you ever heard the song 'So Many Voices Sing America's Song'?"

Task Chain 1: Reading My First American Friend

1. The instructor passes out Focus Sheet 6-1.
2. The instructor reads My First American Friend.
3. The instructor distributes Task Sheet 6-1.
4. Students find the sequence of the story.
5. Task Chain 1 is assessed as follows:

Students find the right sequence.	5
Students make one mistake.	4
Students make two mistakes.	3
Students make more than three mistakes.	2

Task Chain 2: Creating a Poem

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 6-2.
2. The instructor explains a cinquain to students.
3. The instructor distributes Task Sheet 6-2.
4. Students create a cinquain.
5. The instructor holds writing conferences to discuss students' poems.
6. The instructor encourages students to practice the poem at home and read the next day in front of others.
7. The poem students create is assessed as follows:

The content of the poem	5	4	3	2	1
The format of the poem	5	4	3	2	1
Grammar	5	4	3	2	1
Spelling	5	4	3	2	1

Task Chain 3: Singing a Song

1. The instructor plays a CD player for students to listen to the song, "So Many Voices Sing America's Song."
2. The instructor distributes Task Sheet 6-3.
3. Students repeat the song several times.
4. The instructor divides students by groups of five.
5. Students sing a song by a group in the class.
6. Task chain is assessed as follow:

Class members are active and involved.	5	4	3	2	1
Class members listen while someone is singing.	5	4	3	2	1
The singer makes eye contact with audience.	5	4	3	2	1
The singer is loud enough.	5	4	3	2	1

Assessment:

Formative

1. The teacher provides traffic-light icons and students label their work green, yellow, or red according to the degree of their comprehension.
2. Students write a journal entry to record what they have learned.

Summative

1. The teacher assesses the student's comprehension about My First American Friend by analyzing Task Sheet 6-1.
2. The teacher assesses the student's poem by analyzing Task Sheet 6-2.
3. The teacher assesses the student's song.

Focus Sheet 6-1

My First American Friend

I was born in China. When I was two months old, I went to live with my grandparents in a place called Inner Mongolia in China. This made it possible for my parents to go to school in a different part of China. They wanted to do this so that we could all have a better life someday.

Later, my parents went to America to study at a school called Boston College. It is in the state of Massachusetts. I stayed with my grandparents in China. I was happy there with them and my friends.

When I was six years old, my parents asked me if I would like to join them in America. I said, "Okay!"

On the morning of my journey to America, I had to get up at five o'clock. My grandma and I traveled by train to Beijing, the capital of China. There we met my aunt, who took us to the airport. Even though I was so young, I was flying to America all by myself.

The trip was a real adventure. I flew from China to Japan and from Japan to San Francisco in America. From there I flew to New York, where my mom and dad were waiting. We had a happy reunion with hugs and kisses.

Soon after I got to America, I started first grade. I didn't know any English. That made it difficult for me to do everything. I tried to talk with the other children, but we could not understand each other.

I was sitting at my desk during playtime when a girl named Ali came over to play with me. Ali had blue eyes, a pretty smile, and beautiful blonde hair. I had never seen such pretty hair before. Even though I could only speak a little bit of English, Ali and I had lot of fun together. She let me touch her pretty hair.

From that day on, we always played together at school. Sometimes we played on the swings. Sometimes we played on the slide.

In the classroom, we built blocks and painted together. Ali and I became best friends and were very happy.

At the end of the year, Ali told me that she was moving to another school. I was sad again because my best friend was leaving. On the last day of school, we hugged and said good-bye.

In the second grade, my English improved a lot. I still had some problems with the language, but I made many new friends.

This year, I am in the third grade, and my English is perfect! I have many friends now, and I'm very happy. But I'll always remember Ali, my first American friend.

Cooper, J. D., Pikulski, J. J., & Ackerman, P. A. (and others). (2001). Houghton Mifflin Reading: A legacy of literacy. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Green	Yellow	Red
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Task Sheet 6-1

Sequencing

Directions: Number these sentences from 1 to 8 to show the correct order of the story.

_____ I was born in China.

_____ Ali was moving to another school.

_____ No one played with me.

_____ In second grade, my English improved a lot.

_____ Ali and I always played together at school.

_____ I am in the third grade, and my English is perfect.

_____ My parents went to America to study.

_____ When I was six, my mom, dad and I had a reunion.

Focus Sheet 6-2

Cinquain

A cinquain is a five-line poem. The cinquain challenges students to choose more precise words that evoke the exact images they wish to present.

Pattern: 1st line: one word, giving the title

2nd line: two words, describing the title

3rd line: three words, expressing action

4th line: four words, expressing a feeling

5th line: another word for the title

Example: Cloud

Earth's roof

Moving grey mists

Gentle drops of rain

Overcast

Green	Yellow	Red
-------	--------	-----

Task Sheet 6-2
Create Your Poem

Who Am I?

Focus Sheet 6-3

"So Many Voices Sing America's Song"

We come from everywhere: we're called Americans.

From every distant shore, but what matters more is we're Americans.

United by the promise etched beneath the flame that says "Beyond this golden door you enter, everyone's the same."

So many voices sing America's song: so many dreamers come from different shores to proudly sing along.

So many colors in our rainbow choir.

So many hearts from many homelands, all with one desire:

To raise their voices in a country that's free.

To blend their music with America's from sea to shining sea.

So many voices from so many lands make one great song, when we join voices, hearts, and hands.

Green	Yellow	Red
-------	--------	-----

Self-Assessment Sheet 6-1

My Learning Journal 6

The single most important thing I learned was

Something that confused me or that I did not understand was

What surprised me the most was

I would like to know more about

Sources I can use to find answers to my questions

The part that made the greatest impact on me was

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