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Autonomous elementary English learning in Korea using mediated structures

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AUTONOMOUS ELEMENTARY ENGLISH LEARNING IN KOREA USING MEDIATED STRUCTURES

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
Backyoung Kim
June 2004
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A Project
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Approved by:

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May 18, 2004
ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this project is to address the need for cultural awareness through mediated reading structures and dual language acquisition in the English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) situation. Culture and language cannot be separated as students learn a second language. Cultural teaching does not mean transforming an individual into a citizen of the target culture. Rather, it allows the students to communicate effectively with speakers of the target language, overcoming the limitations of traditional EFL programs.

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 consisting of six lessons, along with explanation of each lesson and accompanying assessment. The final chapter discusses the forms and methods of assessment that apply to these lessons.
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

English has achieved worldwide status due to globalization. Studies have showed that 85 percent of international organizations in the world make official use of English and 80 percent of the information stored in the world's computers is in English (Park, 2003). With the worldwide use of English, parents in Korea are becoming more interested in an English education for their children. However, English classes are mostly conducted through the Korean language, with an emphasis placed on teaching translation and grammar. This is because Korean students must take the National Entrance Examination (NEE) and achieve a high score in order to attend the college of their choice. The NEE evaluates students' grammar, reading, and listening skills mainly through multiple-choice questions. Korean English education has become text-and grammar-centered, and for this reason, students and their teachers hardly find time to develop students' communicative competence.

The goal of this project is to address these problems, and to help students to learn English
effectively and enjoyably. By developing students’ cultural awareness using mediated structures, teachers can teach English more successfully and students can boost their interest in learning English.

The Significance of English in Korea

In the year 2002, 1,801 middle-school students left Korea to go overseas in order to learn English. Most of these students leave Korea with their mothers, while their fathers stay in Korea to earn money to support their study expenses. Students usually study in America or Canada for longer than two years (Park, 2003). This is just one example of how Korean parents are obsessed and dedicated to the idea of having their children learn English.

Even though some educators indicate there are problems of studying overseas during these early years, parents do not care about the negative effects. Parents expect that their children will come back to Korea possessing fluent English skills if their children have studied overseas for several years.

The reason for sending their children overseas is that parents think the English curriculum in Korea is insufficient to develop their children’s English proficiency. For instance, in 2002, the length of English classes for elementary students was reduced from two hours
a week to one hour a week. Moreover, most English teachers in Korea teach English using the Korean language because they do not have self-confidence in speaking English. Even worse, most teachers do not try to integrate teaching English with study of the target culture or other subjects. They teach English merely by following an English curriculum and not by developing their own way of teaching.

The Social Context of English Learning

In the past, English skills were required only by foreign-invested firms, but as the globalization of local firms has accelerated, the language proficiency of an employee has become more important, regardless of their department or job position.

Currently, the majority of local firms in Korea use an applicant’s score from the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) as the criterion in measuring the English skills of the applicant, rather than using an English-language interview. However, as of 2004, a majority of companies such as Samsung and Lucky Corporation have included an English-language interview in their hiring procedures to look for talented workers who are able to work as global players. Interviewers focus on the applicants’ abilities to analyze business
opportunities and set up strategies in English, abilities that are essential to working in a global setting. Furthermore, Samsung Corporation, the general trading arm of the Samsung Group, adopted an English presentation session as one of its steps to screen job applications. Therefore, a good command of English plays a crucial role in getting a competitive job. For these reasons, English is one of the most important subjects at school and Koreans invest a lot of money in English education for their children.

Methodologies of English Education in Korea

English teaching methods in Korea vary between elementary school and high school. As in most Asian countries, English teaching methods in Korean high schools are mainly based on teacher-centered, grammar-translation methods. The method serves to obtain high scores on the college entrance examinations. Even though different students apply for different colleges, they have to take the same NEE. This exam consists of multiple-choice questions to assess students' grammar and reading comprehension. Under these circumstances, high-school students have few opportunities to listen and speak English.
On the other hand, elementary-school students have more of a chance to practice their English speaking and listening skills than do high school students because the elementary English curriculum equally emphasizes listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Teachers should therefore focus on developing students' communicative competence. However, teachers do not have adequate teaching methodology due to a lack of English teacher training.

**Target Teaching Level**

My target teaching level is the elementary school in Korea, specifically grades three through six. By the third grade, most students have developed concepts about print as they read and write in Korean. This helps in learning a second language because research suggests that English language learners who can already read and write in their first language will have a relatively easy time learning to read and write in a second language (Tompkins, 2003). In essence, students need to learn to read and write only once, because many concepts are readily transferred from one language to another. Therefore, students in the upper elementary grades will learn English more cognitively and systematically than do children of younger ages because students of this age already have some knowledge of their
first language and can apply this language to their second language.

The students’ pleasant encounters with English will help them not only to become interested in English but also will show them the existence of diverse cultures in the worlds. By learning English, they will extend their knowledge about life in different countries and prepare to be a member of world society.

Problems of Elementary English Education in Korea

Since 1997, English education in elementary schools has been implemented in the third grade. The purpose of English education in elementary schools is for the student to gain interest in English and develop basic English communication skills through understanding various cultural differences. Even though the early exposure to English has had positive effects on the present junior-high school students in such areas as students’ listening and speaking skills, there are still some problems to be solved.

Lack of Effective English Teaching Strategies. To enhance elementary school students’ English skills, teachers should understand their students’ needs, capacities, and learning-style preferences. However, most English teachers still use teacher-centered classroom
styles and do not have enough teaching strategies for the different levels of students. This is because most elementary-school English teachers are not English education majors and have only been trained for 120 hours prior to teaching English. During training, they do not have many chances to practice different teaching strategies because of time limitations. They just learn superficial teaching techniques during these training periods. Moreover, students’ English proficiency varies among students because some students began studying English at five years old by taking private English lessons and some did not. Teachers’ professional training is not sufficient to meet the advanced level of students’ needs.

Insufficient Integration with Target Culture. When someone learns a foreign language, the target culture is a guide for understanding the way people think, feel, and act. Culture determines the way an individual thinks, feels, and behaves in society. People acquire their culture through encountering enculturation and socialization (Robinson, 1985). In their research, Collier and Thomas (1988) suggested that people’s cultural identities involve identification with, and acceptance
into, groups with shared significant symbols, meanings, and rules for conduct.

Habits of teaching and learning are cultural products. Language teaching as an educational process is intimately involved with culture and its transmission (Diaz-Rico, 2004). Therefore, to understand the language of a people, one must understand the cultural background of the language. However, it is very hard to find target cultural integration in the English curricula in Korea. The curricula are composed to focus on situational contexts, such as “at the park” or “at the store” and so on. Teachers’ lack of knowledge about the target cultures makes it more difficult to integrate a cultural approach in English class.

**Previous Career Experience and Career Goals**

I had been teaching English at an elementary school for six years. I loved being with students and tried to learn new teaching methods so that I could develop the English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) students’ English fluency. However, Teaching English for Speakers of Other Language (TESOL) as a profession is still under development in Korea. So I did not have many chances to learn new teaching methods before I studied at California State University, San Bernardino. In taking a class in
crosscultural teaching, I learned a lot and was exposed to various teaching methods using cultural diversity and learning strategies.

After I finish my program, I would like to provide students with effective teaching methods to meet their needs. Learning English should be fun and not a burden. Therefore, my career goal is to provide a rich English environment where students can listen, speak, read, and write. I also want to give them many opportunities to acquire communicative competence so that they can be global leaders in the twenty-first century.

Purpose of the Project

This project is designed to address the problems stated above and improve English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) learning on the part of elementary students in Korea by promoting cultural awareness and student autonomy. By exploring the similarities and differences between Korean and American cultures, students will enhance their English skills as well as cultural awareness.

This project provides guidelines for dealing with issues in the EFL classroom as well as understanding the target culture issues that are a part of language teaching for English teachers in Korea. English teachers should be
aware of the role of cultural issues when they teach English as a foreign language. It is a teacher's responsibility to develop students' interest in English. The goal of this project is to design a curriculum that will help students acquire cultural awareness through reading and encourage their autonomy.

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 problems of EFL education in Korea and purpose of this project. Chapter Two examines five important theoretical concepts: target-culture awareness, concepts about print, teaching reading through mediated structures, dual language acquisition, and autonomy in language learning.

Chapter Three introduces a theoretical framework that integrates language-learning theories and teaching methodologies. This chapter illustrates the principles of language teaching as well as specific teaching methods based on these principles.
Chapter Four provides a curriculum unit incorporating the model introduced in Chapter Three. The lesson plans of the unit are presented in the Appendix.

Chapter Five discusses the forms and methods of assessment that have been utilized in these lessons.

Significance of the Project

English is no longer used only in English-speaking countries. In modern society, mastering English is considered a necessity for the people who live in EFL countries. The questions about how to teach English and how to make the learners fluent-English speakers are no longer the concerns only of EFL teachers. They have become national issues in Korea.

The methodologies and theoretical framework developed in this project are intended to help teachers who want to develop students' cultural awareness. Based on an understanding of human language acquisition, this project proposes instruction that facilitates language learning. This project presents specific teaching and assessment methods based on these principles.

The methods presented here have the potential to enhance students' motivation, accelerate students' acquisition of language proficiency, broaden crosscultural
knowledge, and make language-learning experiences more enjoyable and fulfilling. Moreover, students who experience the instruction are more likely to become autonomous, lifelong learners who have developed the wings they need to fly on their own.
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Students learning English in Korea at very young age face numerous challenges. First, the writing system in Korean differs greatly from that of English. Thus, students need to develop awareness of alphabetic language learning. Teachers can adopt special procedures for the students who are acquiring English in a dual-language environment.

The ideal outcome is for students to take responsibility for learning English on their own. Teachers can motivate this learning using content from Korean culture as well as from the cultures of English-speaking peoples. This chapter examines a range of research on these topics.

Concepts about Print

What Are Concepts about Print?

"Concepts about print" refers to the understanding of how letters, words, and sentences are represented in written language (Zarrillo, 2002). This concept is not the ability to read words and sentences or identify letters. Rather, it is the knowledge of the differences between letters, words, and sentences. Roberts (1992) found that
an understanding of concepts about print is an important precursor of reading development among young children. However, traditional approaches to reading acquisition do not emphasize print awareness as a prerequisite to reading (Venezsky, 1976). According to Tompkins (2003), children develop three concepts about print (book-orientation concepts, directionality concepts, and letter and word concepts) as they learn to read and write. Children refine their concepts about print through increasingly sophisticated reading and writing experiences. Tompkins also finds out that young children learn concepts about print as they observe written language in their environment, listen to parents and teachers read books aloud, and experiment with reading and writing themselves.

In English, people read across the page from left to right, and from top to bottom. Also, people start reading an English book from the front of a book and go forward to the back. These rules about how people proceed through print are called conventions (Cunningham, 2000). Other languages have other conventions for getting through print. For example, Chinese is read from right to left and from top to bottom in columns. However, as in English, Korean also has the same conventions, from left to right, and from top to bottom. Although Korean and English have
the same conventions, elementary English teachers in Korea should teach and assess the print concepts in both languages because the letter shapes and sounds are different.

In general, many children acquire all the concepts about print without direct instruction, especially if their parents or someone else has spent some time reading to them at home. However, some children acquire concepts about print by doing classroom activities such as listening to their teachers reading aloud, through shared reading experiences (Zarrillo, 2002). In this case, teachers need to know that if a student does not demonstrate the understanding of concepts about print, then these concepts must be taught explicitly (Clay, 1993). Therefore, teachers should assess their students' concepts about print, and if some students need help acquiring these concepts about print, teachers should teach these concepts in a direct and clear manner.

Which Components are Assessed by Testing Concepts About Print (CAP)?

Young children learn concepts about print as they live in their environment, listen to parents and teachers read books aloud, and experiment with reading and writing themselves (Tompkins, 2003). Children also learn basic
concepts about letters, words, writing, reading, concepts about combining letters to create words, combining words to compose sentences, and terms for positions of words and text such as "beginning," "middle," and "end" (Clay, 1993).

To assess students' understanding of concepts about print, the teacher can use the Concepts About Print test (Clay, 1979a). By using this test, the teacher can assess these three components. First, the teacher will assess the students' book-orientation concepts. For this test, students will show how to hold books and turn pages. They will learn that the text, not the illustrations, carries the message. Second, directionality concepts will be assessed. Students will demonstrate that print is written and read from left to right and from top to bottom on a page, and they will learn to match voice to print. Students will also identify punctuation marks and their names and purpose. Lastly, letter and word concepts will be assessed. Students will identify letter names, match upper, and lowercase letters. They will also show that words are composed of letters, sentences are composed of words, and space creates boundaries between words and between sentences (Clay, 1991).
How to Assess the Concepts About Print

Concepts about print are fundamental elements in reading acquisition (Snow & Susan, 1998). It is unwise to assume that children who are just entering school understand the mechanisms of print. There are many children in kindergarten and first grade who do not have concepts about print. Therefore, Clay developed the Concepts About Print (CAP) test (1979a) to assess these aspects of a child’s orientation to books and written language. This test is highly recommended for kindergarten and first-grade teachers as well as for reading centers. There are four forms of the CAP Test booklet; Sand (Clay, 1972), Stones (Clay, 1979b), No_Shoes (Clay, 2000a), and Follow Me, Moon (Clay, 2000b). Teachers administer each test for 15 minutes. While the teacher is reading a book to the child, he or she asks the child to first, point to the first page of the story; second, show the direction of the print, and third, point to letters, words, and punctuation marks.

It is important that teachers carefully observe children as they respond and mark their responses on a scoring sheet. After the test, teachers compare the students’ responses with the scoring sheet to guide decisions as to whether the child’s responses meet the
required criteria. If teachers want an informal assessment, any picture book can be used because most children's picture books display the conventional form on most pages.

**How to Develop Concepts About Print**

Most elementary students in Korea begin their English classes without having the concept of alphabetic sound-symbol relationships. This is because English alphabet symbols and sounds are entirely different from Korean characters and sounds. Korean children also do not know when they need to write capital or lower-case letters because the Korean language does not have capital or lower case letters. Therefore, teachers should teach students the concepts about print in direct as well as indirect ways.

**Direct Lessons.** The teacher needs to plan direct lessons for students who do not have print concepts. For a student having difficulty with the directionality and tracking of English print, the teacher should select a big picture book. First, the book should be read and enjoyed. Then, the teacher returns to the first page of the text and rereads it with the child, guiding the child's finger underneath each word as it is read (Holdaway, 1979). Also, for a student who has difficulty with letters and words,
the teacher should teach the name of the letters using the names of children and their favorite things. For example, teacher displays a large letter on the blackboard, like “J,” and then asks the students with names beginning with the letter “J” to stand underneath the letter “J.” The teacher can also ask the students to arrange toys or common classroom objects by the letters they begin with. Under “B,” for example, the students would have books, balls, and baby dolls (Zarrillo, 2002).

As mentioned above, most elementary students in Korea do not have the concept of upper and lower case alphabet letters. To develop this concept, the teacher provides letter activities that students enjoy, and points out upper- and lower-case letters (Crawford, Gillet, & Temple, 2000). For example, once the children begin to recognize some letters, the teacher can play letter-matching games with the students. First, the teacher makes up two sets of five different lower-case letters on cards, and then turns these cards face down on the table, and turns up a pair. If they are the same, the students have to name them, and then they can have them. All of the lower-case letters are worked in this manner, and then the upper-case letters. Singing the alphabet and reading ABC books can also be good examples of direct teaching.
Indirect Lessons. Young children begin reading by recognizing logos on fast-food restaurants, department stores, grocery stores, and household items within familiar contexts (Harste, Woodward, & Burke, 1984). For example, children recognize the golden arches of McDonald's and say "McDonald's." However, when they are shown the word "McDonald's" written on a sheet of paper without the familiar sign and the restaurant setting, they may not be able to read the word. Therefore, all classroom items should be labeled to help the students understand the words.

The morning message can be another good example of indirect teaching (Kawakami-Arakaki, Oshiro, & Farran, 1989). The teacher begins by talking about the day and the upcoming events, and students share their news with the class. Then, the teacher and the students all work together to compose the morning message on chart paper. While writing the message, the teacher demonstrates that writing is done from left to right and from top to bottom as well as how to form the letters. Then the teacher reads the morning message aloud, pointing to each word as it is read and using the message to point out spelling, capitalization, or punctuation usage.
Along with these activities, a print-rich environment plays a crucial role in developing students’ concepts about print (Reutzel, Oda, & Moore, 1989). Reutzel indicated that children learned as much about print concepts and word reading in a print-rich environment as they did with the addition of direct instruction about specific print concepts. Therefore, all classrooms should be print-rich, with plenty of examples of written language on display. When students have print concepts, they understand how language looks in print form. Also, students can understand that print tells the story, not the pictures. Therefore, they are able to point to words in left-to-right fashion, and return to the next line as they read or have someone else read to them.

Print concepts also involve understanding the differences between letters and words (Reutzel & Cooter, 1996). As children develop these concepts, they will begin to develop the voice-print match, the ability to point to each word as it is being read. Some activities can be applied at home to develop concepts about print. Parents can provide reading time at home, accept the child’s pretend reading, and encourage pointing. After finishing reading aloud, the parent can go back to the first page and count how many letters are in a word or how many words
are on a particular page. They then can tell the child they spy a three-letter word and challenge him or her to find it. The parent then asks the child to extend the pointer fingers on each hand and use them to make a frame around the letters or words (Venezsky, 1976).

**How to Develop the Speech-to-Print Match**

The speech-to-print match refers to one's ability to match spoken words with the same words as they appear in print (Crawford, Gillet, & Temple, 2000). Children gain this ability only after they have acquired the following concepts about written language: (1) words are separable units, (2) printed words have spaces on either side that separate them from other words, and (3) word and syllables are not the same things (Morris, 1982). As children learn to read, they need to be aware of parts of language that are smaller than words: syllables, and phonemes (Crawford, Gillet, & Temple, 2000). Syllables are the pulses of language. They are the beats heard in "table" (two syllables), "heart" (one syllable) and so on. In contrast, phonemes are the smallest speech sounds in language. "Dog" has three phonemes: /d/, /o/, and /g/ (Hall & Moats, 1999).

Written English words are spelled by letters and letter clusters that represent individual speech sounds.
(phonemes). As children begin to read words, they can use their awareness of the alphabetic principle to sound out words by associating letters with the sounds they spell. Therefore, teachers should nurture children’s phonemic awareness through the language-rich environments they create in the classroom (Tompkins, 2003). As they sing songs, chant rhymes, read books aloud, and play games, children have many opportunities to orally match, isolate, blend, and substitute sounds, and to segment words into sounds (Griffith & Olson, 1992).

Teachers often incorporate phonemic-awareness components into other oral language or literacy activities. However, according to Yopp and Yopp (2000), speech-to-print match instruction should meet three criteria. First, the activities should be appropriate for students’ age. Activities involving songs, nursery rhymes, riddles, and wordplay books are good choices because they are engaging and encourage children’s playful experimentation with oral language. Second, the instruction should be planned and purposeful, not just incidental. When teachers have an objective in mind as they are teaching phonemic awareness, they are more likely to be effective in focusing children’s attention on the sound structure and written language. Third,
speech-to-print match activities should be one part of a balanced literacy program and integrated with comprehension and decoding. It is important that children perceive the connection between oral and written language.

In summary, the first year of school is important for developing concepts about print. Students in first grade learn basic concepts about letters, words, and reading; concepts about combining sentences; and terms for positions in words and text such as "beginning," "middle," and "end" (Clay, 1991). The concepts about print are an understanding about how print works, and how printed words represent spoken words, have boundaries, are read from left to right, and so on (Gunning, 2003). The component concepts about print are book-orientation concepts, directionality concepts, and letter and word concepts (Clay, 1991). The convincing way to assess concepts about print is the Concepts About Print (CAP) test developed by Clay (1979a). To develop students’ concepts about print, teachers should use direct as well as indirect lessons within a print-rich environment. Also, teachers should try to incorporate phonemic awareness into other oral-language or literacy activities to boost understanding about print concepts (Yopp & Yopp, 2000).
Most elementary English teachers in Korea do not recognize the importance of the concepts about print because English and the Korean language have similar conventions. Therefore, elementary English teachers in Korea might assume that students will learn the English concepts about print automatically after they memorize all the alphabet letters. However, many studies have proven that the concepts about print are not acquired automatically for all students (Zarrillo, 2002). Some students need intensive teaching to develop their concepts about print. Therefore, if teachers are not expecting and watching for gradual changes toward control over these print concepts, then some students will continue to practice incorrect usage. A student's knowledge of concepts about print will change over the first years of school, as most students move toward a perfect performance. To accomplish this, the English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) teacher should use the CAP test and try to develop various teaching methods to encourage linguistic transfer between Korean and English.
What is Reading?

Reading is essential to success in today's world. The ability to read is highly valued and important for social and economic advancement. Adults who cannot read are hampered in their daily lives; for instance, when shopping for groceries, or filling out applications for work. Children who do not learn to read in elementary school enter secondary education as severe underachievers and are at risk for dropping out.

Walker (1996) defined reading as an active process in which readers shift between sources of information (what they know and what the text says), elaborate meaning and strategies, check their interpretation, and use the social context to focus their response. In addition, reading can be defined as a creative and constructive activity (Smith, 1994). According to Bernhardt (1986), reading is an interaction of text-based and extra-text-based components. The reader recognizes words and syntactic features, brings prior knowledge to the text, links the text elements together, and thinks about how the reading process is working. Bernhardt noted that text-based components include word recognition, phonemic/graphic decoding, and syntactic feature recognition. Extra-text-based components
are intratextual perceptions, prior knowledge, and metacognition. Interactive and multi-dimensional, these components work in a circular fashion and in different ways for individual readers' reading particular texts.

Manzo and Manzo (1993) defined reading as the act of simultaneously reading the lines, reading between the lines, and reading beyond the lines. The first part of their definition, reading the lines, refers to the act of decoding the words in order to construct the author’s basic message. The next part, reading between the lines, refers to the act of making inferences and understanding the author’s implied message. Finally, reading beyond the lines involves judging the significance of the author’s message and applying it to other areas of knowledge.

Based on the above definitions about reading, reading can be regarded as an information-gathering activity that draws heavily on factors such as textual cohesion, text structure and sentence connectivity. In addition, there is a mutual understanding between the reader and the writer. The reader can expect the writer to observe conventional structures of the text and the writer can expect readers, through these conventional structures, to understand the text without a problem.
Mediation as a Teaching Tool

Vygotsky (1978) argued that higher mental functions and human actions are mediated by tools and signs. In his approach to studying language, mediation means that one uses bridges between one’s present and potential knowledge. Therefore, mediated structures can be defined as tools that embed this potential and are used as bridges to make the knowledge visible for learners as they come know about something. The tools described by Vygotsky are not necessarily the same in every culture, but are specific to the contexts in which they are being used (Vygotsky, 1981).

Although Vygotsky was interested in human mediated activity with all psychological tools, he spent a great deal of time on analysis of semiotic mediation. Vygotsky’s concept of semiotic mediation has had an enormous impact. Vygotsky contributed theoretically to such facets of psychology as the origins of human behavior, the nature of learning, the role of intelligence in learning, and the development of consciousness (Wertsch, 1985). Vygotsky (1981) defined the term semiotic mediation as the mediation of mental activities by means of semiotic tools:

...semiotic mediation alters the entire flow and structure of mental functions. It does this by determining the structure of a new instrumental
act just as a technical tool alters the process of a natural adaptation by determining the form of labor operation. (p. 173)

The term semiotic mediation may be seen as mediation by means of semiosis, that is, by the use of sign systems that act as an abstract tool in changing the character of human mental activity. According to Vygotsky (1978):

The use of signs leads humans to a specific structure of behavior that breaks away from biological development and creates new forms of culturally based psychological processes. (p. 40)

Educational practices based on Vygotsky’s notions of human development have profound effects on the nature of teaching within the classroom environment, and are largely contrary to traditional classroom practices. His theories support social constructivism. To Vygotsky, the connection between the individual and the social is necessarily relational. In other word, higher mental functions are formed in the course of an individual’s interaction with the social environment, and tools (technical and psychological) mediate this interaction (Vygotsky, 1981).

A major issue to Vogotsky was how external mental processes are transformed to create internal mental processes (Wertsch, 1985). Vygotsky believed that lower mental behaviors are gradually transformed into higher ones through social interaction. Vygotsky’s bridge between
the external social functions and internal functions is through semiotic mediation. His argument is that human consciousness is formed in the individual only after the individual has mastered the semiotic mediation process (Vygotsky, 1981).

**Zone of Proximal Development**

Vygotsky (1978) defined the "zone of proximal development" (ZOPD) as follows:

...the distance between the actual developmental level of the learner as determined by independent problem solving and level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers. (p. 86)

If the actual developmental level of a child defines abilities that have already matured in the child, the ZOPD defines the functions that are in the process of maturation. Pedagogical methods will work within the child’s ZOPD to further the development of internalized concepts.

According to Tharp and Gallimore (1988), there is no single ZOPD for individuals because the zone varies with culture, society, and experience. Then, the expert may use multiple instructional strategies within the social interaction as well as model appropriate solutions, assist in finding solutions, and monitor the student’s progress.
Dixon-Krauss (1996) also noted, "While the teacher is interacting with the student, she continuously analyzes how the students think and what strategies they use to solve problems and construct meaning" (p. 20).

Although Vygotsky referred to the ZOPD in his discussion of child development, Wells (1981) argued that the concept is applicable to humans of all ages and developmental levels. Wells recognized the need to elaborate on the application of Vygotsky's initial ZOPD principles by excluding the need for a "teacher" or "superior peer" in the context of social interaction because by participation in joint activity all members contribute and learn from one another. Wells also noted that recognition of a conflict within a joint activity might lead to a transformation of ideas. Pedagogy that supports students' learning at their greatest potential creates a context in which the highest degree of learning can occur. However, if students are working at their highest levels, they cannot work independently but must learn through joint, mediated activity.

The Teacher as Sociocultural Mediator

It is important to recognize that schooling plays a significant role in the cognitive, social, and personal development of children. Socioeducational contexts
continue the process of development in critical and powerful ways and the teacher becomes the link between the child’s sociocultural experiences at home and school (Diaz & Flores, 1990). This means that the teacher becomes the sociocultural mediator of important formal and informal knowledge about the culture and society in which children develop.

While the child has been participating in Zone of Proximal Developments (ZOPDs) since birth, successful negotiation of ZOPDs becomes critical in school because of the links between learning and success or failure in society. The teacher, as a professional educator, is responsible for creating social systems that organize optimal ZOPDs for all students. Teaching-learning occurs as a function of the social interactions within the ZOPDs that the teacher co-constructs with students (Wertsch, 1993). For example, students enter the classroom at an actual level of development that has been a function of their everyday familial, cultural, and communal experiences. If the teacher does not respect and take into account these previous experiences as indicative of the students’ actual level of development, then the child is put “at-risk” within the socioeducational contexts and
cannot participate appropriately within the ZOPDs.

According to Wertsch (1993):

This is where children from different cultural and language backgrounds are likely to fail. The failure, however, is not of their making; it is the direct result of the social interactions set up by the teachers. If the students’ language and cultural experiences are not included in the socioeducational context, then they will have great difficulty reaching their level of potential development. (p. 18)

Therefore, the teacher’s pedagogical knowledge of language (oral and written, first and second) development and learning plays a significant role.

The teacher as the sociocultural link or sociocultural mediator must deliberately intervene in the child’s ZOPD. For Vygotsky (1978) all human activity is mediated. In fact, he considered mediation by means of tools to be the defining characteristic of the human being. Language is such a tool, as are mathematical formulae, written language, art, music, drama, dance, and so forth. These tools form vital links between the learner and the object that an individual seeks to possess, influence, or change in the sociocultural context (Diaz & Flores, 1990). Thus, in the context of educational practice, the teacher also becomes a tool, a mediating "device" who deliberately teaches students to achieve important objectives. In order to continue the positive
development of an individual, the teacher must be a sociocultural mediator, who mediates teaching-learning experiences so that students achieve their fullest potential. Freire (1970) describes teachers’ role as a sociocultural mediator:

...in helping students become literate, teachers must deliberately seek to connect students across many levels of understanding. As sociocultural mediators, teachers must understand that literacy development and its teaching-learning process is a sociocultural, sociohistorical act, especially for children who speak a language other than English. (p. 85)

In other words, teachers must deeply understand and appreciate the relationships between literacy processes and the cultural, historical, and institutional factors at play in the classroom. Also, in order for teachers to create positive ZOPDs for literacy development, they must view the learner as capable of generating knowledge, as a knowing subject who is worthy of the best education possible.

Mediated Structures for Reading

For many years, teachers have been telling students what to do without showing them how. By observing in various classrooms, Durkin (1979) found that teachers were most likely to say just enough about an assignment so that students understood the formal requirements, but they
stopped short of demonstrating how to solve the task cognitively. Much of the teachers’ responsibility when teaching reading is to make clear for the students what is implicit and explicit. Explicit reading instruction means that teacher show learners how people think when they read (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000). Therefore, teachers should explicitly teach reading comprehension using mediated structures so that students can use them to construct meaning.

Making Connections. In the 1980s, cognitive psychologists devised the term schema theory to explain how people’s previous experiences, knowledge, emotions, and understandings have a major effect on what and how they learn (Anderson & Pearson, 1984). Schemata consist of the sum total of one’s background knowledge and experience that each person brings to reading. Applied to reading, teachers can activate and use schema theory as they guide students to make connections between books and their own lives. When students have had an experience similar to that of a character in a story, they are more likely to understand the character’s motives, thoughts, and feelings.

Having students access and use their prior knowledge and experiences is often the launching point for strategy
instruction because every student has experiences, knowledge, and opinions to draw upon. Harvey and Goudvis (2000) described three kinds of connections students make to their reading. The first connections are text-to-self connections that readers make between the text and their experiences or background knowledge. The second connections are the text-to-text, including those that readers make between the text they are reading and another text, including books, poems, scripts, songs, or anything that is written. The third are the text-to-world connections that readers make between the text and the bigger issues, events, or concerns of society and the world at large.

Some connections cross these boundaries. However, it is helpful to teach them independently over time, beginning with text-to-self connections, then introducing text-to-text connections, and finally bringing in text-to-world connections. Discriminating between different types of connections encourages students to look in different directions when activating prior knowledge.

Visualizing. According to Keene and Zimmermann (1997), visualizing is a comprehension strategy that enables readers to make the words on a page real and concrete. Teachers sometimes explain visualizing as
creating a movie of the text in a student’s head. Visualizing allows readers to create mental images from words in the text and enables readers to place themselves in the story. In addition, it strengthens a reader’s relationship to the text and heightens engagement with the text. By visualizing the text, a student stimulates imaginative thinking and brings joy to reading.

Creating mental images for other genres is equally important. Photographs, diagrams, charts, and maps in nonfiction books support a student’s ability to understand what the text is attempting to convey (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000). When one struggles with a written description of photosynthesis, for example, a picture is worth a thousand words. Therefore, teachers should teach children to construct their own mental images to help them think about and visualize text.

Making Inferences. Inferring relates to the notion of reading between the lines. According to Hall (1990), inferring allows readers to make their own discoveries without the direct comment of the author. Inferences occur when text clues merge with the reader’s prior knowledge and questions to point toward a conclusion about an underlying theme or idea in the text. Proficient readers infer implicit notions from the text and create meaning
based on those notions. If readers do not infer, they will not grasp the deeper essence of texts they read.

Human beings infer in many realms. People make inferences about expressions, body language, and tone as well as text (Keene & Zimmermann, 1997). When readers infer, they draw conclusions based on clues in the text and make predictions before and during reading. Also, they use the pictures to help gain meaning. Therefore, teachers should encourage the students to use their background knowledge to create inferences that are more correct.

**Synthesizing Information.** Synthesizing information involves combining new information with existing knowledge to form an original idea, a new line of thinking, or new creation (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000). Synthesis is the opposite of analysis in the classical sense of those terms. Analysis is breaking down something whole into its parts, whereas synthesizing is putting together separate parts into a whole. The strategy of synthesizing has become increasingly important. The modern information-rich society requires students to sift increasing amounts of data to make sense of them and act. Synthesizing allows students to make sense of important information and move on. Synthesizing requires readers to sift and sort through large amounts of information to extract essential ideas.
and combine these to form an overall picture of what has been read (McKenzie, 1996). In order to synthesize what they read, readers need to stop every now and then, think about what they have read, and accumulate meaning before continuing through the text. When readers synthesize, they separate important ideas from less-important details and summarize the information by briefly identifying the main ideas.

In summary, reading encompasses both decoding and the making of meaning. In order to improve students' reading comprehension, teachers should understand how sociocultural knowledge could advance literacy development. Teachers also should be sociocultural mediators in order to develop students' potential abilities about learning. In addition, teachers should structure ZOPDs that organize optimal benefits for each student. The teacher's challenge is to figure out how to respond, deliberately mediate, and strategically structure teaching and learning to maximize the students' potential in each socioeducational context.
Dual-Language Acquisition

The Significance of Dual-Language Acquisition

Most of the world's population is bilingual or multilingual; few of the world's peoples speak a single language. Many nations have groups of individuals living within their borders who use other languages in addition to the national language to function in their everyday lives (Valdes, 2001). The term bilingual means able to function in two languages, not necessarily as well in reading and writing as in speaking and listening (Diaz-Rico, 2004).

Bilingual individuals experience cognitive and linguistic advantages when compared to monolinguals, performing better in tests of divergent thinking, pattern recognition, problem solving, and metalinguistic awareness (Cenoz & Genesee, 1998). Peal and Lambert (1962) found that bilingual ten-year-olds performed significantly better than their monolingual English-speaking peers in fifteen of eighteen activities associated with intelligence. Knowing a second language often opens doors to other cultures, leading to understanding of cultural differences and providing opportunities for intercultural communication. Proficiency in multiple languages is also a career enhancement in the modern world of international
commerce. Therefore, if teachers adapt a dual-language program, students will become fluent and literate in two languages, reach high levels of academic achievement, and develop positive attitudes toward each other's cultural group. In addition, because students interact with peers who speak the other language on a daily basis, they will come to appreciate one another and develop positive social values and behaviors.

**Immersion Education**

Immersion programs integrate students' native and second languages, providing instruction in both English and the native language (Lambert, 1984). The structure of these programs varies, but they all integrate students for most content instruction and provide this instruction in the non-English language for a significant portion of the school day. Two-way bilingual immersion programs strive to promote bilingualism and biliteracy, grade-level academic achievement, and positive crosscultural attitudes and behaviors in all students.

**What is Language Immersion?** Language immersion is an approach to second-language instruction in which the usual curricular activities are conducted in a second language (Lindholm, 1994). This means that the target language is the medium of instruction as well as the object of
instruction. Immersion students acquire the necessary language skills to understand and communicate about the subject matter set out in the program of instruction. They follow the same curricula, and in some instances, use the same materials (translated into the target language) as those used in the non-immersion schools.

What are the Goals of an Immersion Program? A language immersion program has the following four goals: (1) to achieve competency in the second language (listening, speaking, reading and writing); (2) to acquire the same English-language skills as students in English-only schools; (3) to gain a greater understanding and appreciation of other cultures; and (4) to master content areas (Christian, 1996).

Why is Immersion an Effective Second-Language Model? A great deal of research has centered on second-language acquisition in various school settings. Over the past thirty years, due in large part to the success of immersion programs, there has been a shift away from teaching language in isolation and toward integrating language and content (Christian, Montone, Lindholm, & Carranza, 1997). This shift is based on the following four principles: (1) language is acquired most effectively when it is learned in a meaningful social context. For young
learners, the school curriculum provides a natural basis for second-language learning, offering them the opportunity to communicate about what they know and what they want to know, as well as about their feelings and attitudes. (2) Important and interesting content provides a motivating context for learning the communicative functions of the new language. Young children are not interested in learning language that serves no meaningful function. (3) By integrating language and content, second-language learning becomes an integral part of a child’s social and cognitive development. (4) Formal and functional characteristics of language change from one context to another. An integrated language and content model in an elementary school setting provides a wide variety of contexts in which to use the second language.

**Dual Language Models: Compensatory versus Enrichment**

Language program models fall along a continuum. Using Ruiz’s (1984) categories to describe a range of theoretical approaches identifies two extremes: compensatory models versus enrichment models of dual-language instruction. At one extreme, monolingual/monocultural models embody the view that second-language (L2) teaching and learning is compensatory
education designed to overcome the "problem" of lack of language proficiency among language-minority students. In this model, the role of students' first language (L1) is minimal or even restricted by local school-district policies.

At the other extreme, approaches to dual-language program design that view second-language learning as enrichment provide clear advantages to students in attaining high levels of academic achievement, with eventual benefits in expanded career choices and economic opportunities. This is the view of multilingualism as a resource. Transitional bilingual education falls near the midpoint on the continuum because it is a compensatory model that addresses the linguistic and educational rights of language-minority students, while providing the incidental benefits of some development of language and literacy skills in L1 as a byproduct of dual-language instruction.

Some critics of bilingual education (Porter, 2000) acknowledge the benefits of bilingual "enrichment" programs while claiming that such programs are too costly and too complicated to offer to language-minority students.
Role of the Dual-Language Models

A model of dual-language instruction serves several functions. Dual-language models embody statements about the goals and objectives of the program, providing a guideline for program implementation and evaluation. This is based on certain philosophical assumptions and pedagogical principles that are articulated into a coherent and continuous progression of teaching and learning activities to meet the specified program goals (Irujo, 1998). In second-language education, a theoretical model makes explicit the value placed on bilingualism, biliteracy, and multiculturalism in developing children's human potential as well as in promoting their academic achievement (Rubin, 1977). Theoretical models are expanded and more clearly articulated for implementation through decisions about teacher qualifications, student groupings, and the scope and sequence of academic content.

Ruiz (1984) described three perspectives on language: (1) language as a problem, (2) language as a right, and (3) language as a resource. The language-as-a-problem perspective is reflected in models of bilingual education that view limited-English proficiency as a handicap or deficiency that must be overcome and corrected through a focus on intensive English instruction and a remedial
approach to instruction. The broad category of programs labeled “English immersion” in the United States for language-minority students falls into this category. The language-as-a-right perspective emphasizes the need for equal access to the curriculum through instruction in students’ first language in literacy and all content areas. Transitional bilingual education is often seen as a means of addressing the issue of linguistic rights. Under the rubric of language-as-a-resource models of dual-language instruction, Baker categorized three program models: (1) dual-maintenance bilingual education for language-minority students, (2) French-Canadian immersion for language-majority students learning a second language, and (3) dual- or two-way-immersion programs that serve majority- and minority-language groups together in a single program (Baker, 1993).

Lambert and Tucker identified additive versus subtractive forms of bilingual education based on whether the programs’ goals were to produce students with bilingual and biliteracy skills or whether programs were designed to only achieve proficiency in a second, and usually socially dominant, language (Lambert & Tucker, 1972). True immersion programs take an additive approach to bilingualism and are elective enrichment programs.
established by parents who wish to give their children the advantages of becoming bilingual and biliterate. With the growing awareness of linguistic human rights, dual-language immersion programs are often cited as the best way to provide minority students with equitable education, as well as developing bilingualism in language-majority students (Thomas & Collier, 1998; Christian, 1996).

**Types of Successful Dual-Language Models**

Successful dual-language programs must be guided by participants’ personal and professional experiences that build cultural-linguistic capital for using both the native language and the second language. The theoretical models of dual-language instruction affirm these values and beliefs: (1) becoming bilingual and biliterate is the path to the future; (2) dual-language programs, when implemented correctly, are far superior to English-immersion programs; and (3) failure rates in programs that do not foster full development of bilingualism and biliteracy are unacceptable (Rubin, 1977).

Language is acquired best when it is the medium of instruction, not solely as the object of instruction. Students who acquire a language while they are learning
content-area information are engaged in meaningful discussions and have a real reason to use and acquire the new language. In a bilingual-immersion setting, students communicate with their peers and teacher to make meaning, explain, describe, and solve problems in both their native and second languages. Their language acquisition has real and relevant purposes for the students (Christian, Montone, Lindholm, & Carranza, 1997). In well-implemented dual-language programs, all students acquire a second language while continuing to develop their first. All students receive instruction in their native language, providing the necessary linguistic foundation for the later acquisition of their second language (L2) and development of full proficiency in both languages (Cummins, 2000). In this way, high expectations for both language groups are maintained as they are challenged and supported in reaching full proficiency and command of content-area knowledge in both languages. A description of the characteristics of various models of dual-language instruction is presented in Table 1.
Table 1. Dual Language Models of Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Program</th>
<th>Desired Outcome</th>
<th>Students Language of the Classroom</th>
<th>Program Duration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>French-Canadian Immersion</td>
<td>Bilingualism Majority- &amp; Biliteracy Language</td>
<td>L1 and L2 used as a medium of instruction</td>
<td>K-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-Way Immersion/ Dual Language</td>
<td>Bilingualism Mixed &amp; Biliteracy Language: Minority &amp; Majority</td>
<td>L1 and L2 used as a medium of instruction</td>
<td>K-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mainstream Bilingual &amp; Biliteracy Language</td>
<td>Two majority languages</td>
<td></td>
<td>K-6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: L1 = First language; L2 = Second language

French Canadian Immersion. This program is derived from Canadian educational experiments. Some discontented English-speaking, middle-class parents persuaded a school district administrator to set up an experimental kindergarten class of 26 children. In this class, English-speaking children were instructed in French, and English was incorporated into the programs both as a subject and as a medium of instruction (Lambert, 1984). The aims of this program were for students to become bilingual and bicultural without loss of achievement. This program uses English about 50 percent of the time rather than solely delivering academic instruction through the second language (Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000).
Two-Way Immersion (TWI)/Dual-Language Program.

Two-way immersion (TWI) occurs when approximately equal numbers of majority- and minority-language students are in the same classroom. The curriculum is provided approximately at grade level in both languages. Speakers of each language develop proficiency in both their native and second languages, achieve academically through, and in, two languages, and come to appreciate one another’s languages and cultures (Lindholm, 1994).

TWI instruction attempts to keep boundaries between the languages. Switching languages within a lesson is not preferable. When such language mixing occurs, students may wait until there is delivery in their stronger language, and become uninvolved at other times. Inter-dependence may stimulate cooperation and friendship, as well as learning and achievement. This method enhances the status of both primary languages, promoting self-esteem and increased cultural pride, and leading to increased motivation.

Mainstream Bilingual Program. This program comprises the joint use of two majority languages in a school (Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000). In the Asian examples, a country (e.g. Japan, Korea, Taiwan) or region has one dominant indigenous language with a desire to introduce a second international language such as English into school.
The international language is used as a medium of instruction alongside the native language. The aim of this program is to create fully bilingual and biliterate students through an enrichment bilingual education program.

**Strategies for Effective Dual-Language Acquisition**

The effectiveness of dual-language programs can be addressed from a different perspective (Cziko, 1992). First, there is the effectiveness at the level of the individual child. Within the classroom, children may respond and perform differently. Second, there is effectiveness at the classroom level. Within the same school and type of dual-language program, classrooms may vary considerably. It is important to analyze the factors connected with varying effectiveness at the classroom level. Third, effectiveness is often analyzed at the school level. What makes some schools more effective than others even within the same type of dual-language program and with similar student characteristics? Fourth, beyond the school level there can be aggregations of schools into different types of programs (e.g. transitional compared with heritage-language programs) or into different geographical regions.
It is possible to look at effective dual-language education programs at each and all of these levels, and at the inter-relationship between these four levels. For example, at the individual level, the teacher needs to know how dual-language education can best be effective for different social classes, and for children of different levels of intelligence or ability (Cummins, 2000). At the classroom level, the teacher needs to know what teaching methods and classroom characteristics create optimally effective dual language acquisition. At the school level, the characteristics of staffing, the size of groups, and the language composition of the school all need to be taken into account to find out where and when dual-language programs are more or less successful.

The research done by Lucas, Henze, and Donato (1990) revealed five strategies for successful dual-language programs. First, teachers should display a sense of confidence in their ability to be successful with language-minority students. Second, teachers should have high expectations for their students. Third, teachers should communicate directions clearly, pacing lessons appropriately, involving students in decisions, monitoring students' progress and providing immediate feedback. Fourth, teachers should use students' native language for
instruction; alternating between languages to ensure clarity and understanding, but without translating. Lastly, teachers should integrate aspects of target culture and values into classroom activity to promote cultural diversity and cultural pluralism.

In conclusion, it has been suggested that effective dual-language programs need to consider children, teachers, the community, and the school itself. One particular factor cannot be isolated from another. Children have a wide variety of characteristics within which they work. Within the classroom, there are varieties of factors, which make for a more or less effective education. Outside the school is also the important effect of community. The social, cultural, and political environment in which a school is situated will affect the education of language-minority children at all levels.

The research evidence is overwhelmingly clear that proficient bilingual outperform monolinguals on school tests (Cummins, 2000). Crossing cultural, social class, and language boundaries, students in a dual-language class will develop multiple ways of solving human problems. These learners will acquire academic proficiency in two languages, which becomes a valuable resource in adult professional life. In addition, they will learn to value
others' knowledge and life experience, leading to a meaningful respect and collaboration that lasts a lifetime.

Autonomy in Language Learning

What is Autonomy?

In the last years of the twentieth century, there was considerable interest in learner autonomy as a necessary condition of effective learning (Dickinson, 1987; Holec, 1981; Little, 1991). Learner autonomy is often regarded as a defining characteristic of all sustained learning that attains long-term success (Little, 1991). Learner autonomy denotes students' taking greater control over the content and methods of learning (Holec, 1981).

Holec (1981) described autonomy as the ability to take charge of one's learning. This ability is not inborn but must be acquired either by natural or by formal learning. He saw autonomy as operating in five main areas: determining objectives, defining contents and progressions, selecting methods and techniques to be used, monitoring the procedure of acquisition, and evaluating what has happened.

However, in language education, according to Benson & Voller (1997), the word "autonomy" has been used in five
different ways: (1) for situations in which learners study entirely on their own; (2) for a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning; (3) for an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education; (4) for the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning; and (5) for the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning.

There are also differences in the extent to which autonomy is seen as a property of individuals or of social groups: it can be thought of in terms of withdrawal from education as a social process (self-instruction), or in terms of redistribution of power among participants in that social process (learner control). Sometimes independence is used as synonym for autonomy (Sheerin, 1991). For example, autonomy can be considered as the idea of learning alone, and independence as taking active responsibility for one's own learning. Autonomy and independence are keywords of twentieth-century liberal Western thought in the fields of philosophy, psychology, politics, and education. Since the eighteenth century, Western discourses on society have increasingly emphasized the responsibility of the individual as a social agent. In philosophy and psychology, autonomy and independence have
come to be associated with the capacity of the individual to act as a responsible member of society (Benson & Voller, 1997).

Although autonomy and independence in language learning currently tend to be conceived in individual and psychological terms, the teacher should keep in mind that the roots of these concepts are both contradictory and complex. Also, teachers should bear in mind that those who have done most to develop and popularize these notions were often inspired by radical educational ideas of Freire, Illich, Dewey and others. As Holec (1981) stated, the autonomy approach is both learner-centered and anti-authoritarian. Its implementation is therefore often characterized by ambiguities arising from two basic tensions: on the one hand, tension between responsibility and freedom from constraint; and on the other, tension between the individual and the social.

In sum, autonomy is not an absolute concept. There are degrees of autonomy, and extent to which it is feasible or desirable for learners to embrace autonomy will depend on a range of factors such as the personality of the learner, the philosophy of the institution providing the instruction, and the cultural context within which the learning takes place.
Autonomy and Related Concepts

To promote students' autonomy in language, teachers need to distinguish clearly between autonomy and related concepts. There are the three such related concepts.

Autonomy and Self-directed Learning. In education, self-directed learning defines a broad field of inquiry into the processes of non-institutional learning. Self-direction tends to refer to the learner's global capacity to carry out such learning effectively, whereas autonomy often refers to particular personal or moral qualities associated with this capacity. In the field of language learning, autonomy defines both the broad field of inquiry and the global capacity to exercise control of one's learning. Self-directed learning tends to refer simply to learning that is carried out under the learner's own direction, rather than under the direction of others (Benson, 2001).

Autonomy and Self-access. The term self-access refers to learning materials and organizational systems designed for direct access by users. Although self-access is seen as a means of facilitating self-directed learning, there is nothing inherent in self-access that necessarily leads learners towards self-direction and autonomy. Benson (2001) made a significant point as follows:
One of the important lessons of the spread of self-access over the past decade is that there is no necessary relationship between self-instruction and the development of autonomy and that, under certain conditions, self-instruction modes of learning may even inhibit autonomy. (p. 6)

**Autonomy and Individualization.** Although individualization has been closely linked with autonomy, it is also associated with programmed learning, which is the opposite of autonomy. Individualization is historically based on a behaviorist psychology and it generally leaves very little freedom of choice to the individual learner. Therefore, the majority of the relevant decisions are made for the learner not by the learner. As Riley (1986) claimed, “individualized teaching aims at the most efficient use of the teacher and at the most effective result, but in terms of what the teacher wants the learner to achieve” (p. 32).

Autonomous language learning has been associated with individualization, and the notion that learners each have their own preferred learning styles, capacities, and needs (Holec, 1981). Advocates of autonomy and independence have also drawn upon constructivist approaches to learning, which suggest that learners construct their own systems of knowledge as experience is filtered through personal construct systems (Little, 1991). Therefore, teachers
should encourage students to construct their own learning systems by becoming autonomous learners.

Why Autonomy Matters in Language Learning

The concept of autonomy in language learning is linked to the communicative approach both historically and theoretically. In an important account of the history of autonomy in language learning, Gremmo and Riley (1995) have argued that the rise of autonomy in language learning in the 1970s and 1980s was connected to a broad rejection of behaviorist assumptions about the nature of second-language acquisition.

At the theoretical level, communicative theory and autonomy are most closely linked in research on learner agendas and the effectiveness of instruction. Nunan (1995) demonstrated, for example, that in classroom situations there is often a mismatch between what teachers and learners believe is being learned. In a review of research on learner agendas in the classroom, Nunan (1995) argued that "while the teacher is busily teaching one thing, the learner is very often focusing on something else" (p. 135).

Although the evidence remains inconclusive, many second-language-acquisition researchers also doubt the effectiveness of direct instruction in language learning.
For example, Ellis (1985) argued that there is little support for the claim that classroom learners must have formal instruction in order to learn a second language. For many researchers who adopt a broadly communicative approach, effective second-language learning largely depends upon the learner's self-directed efforts, which means autonomy in processing linguistic input.

Although many definitions of autonomy in language learning make little reference to the specifics of second-language acquisition, some researchers have attempted to incorporate communicative assumptions within their descriptions of autonomy. For example, Little (1991) argued that the capacity for autonomy presupposes that "the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning" (p. 4). In other words, autonomy in language learning is not merely a matter of learning activities and resources. It is also a matter of a particular orientation toward language learning, in which "for the truly autonomous learner, each occasion of language use is an occasion of language learning, and vice versa" (Little, 1991, p. 99).

As revealed in the above study, there is a strong implication that a communicative orientation towards
target language acquisition on the part of the learner is a vital element of autonomous language learning.

How Can Be Autonomy Developed Through Language Teaching?

The most compelling argument in favor deliberately integrating autonomy into students' learning experiences does not come from specific language-learning theory but from wider educational theory (Little, 1991). As Candy (1988, p. 59) pointed out, "the development of autonomous individuals is the long-term goal of most, if not all, educational endeavors." Working within the scope of this higher-level goal, students will accept more and more responsibility for their own learning, for setting goals and objectives, for finding resources, and for evaluating the outcomes of their learning activities. In the course of this learning, students may develop subject-matter autonomy, a term used to refer to the ability to function independently within particular area of knowledge and to apply personal frames of reference to it (Candy, 1988).

Benson and Voller distinguished three kinds of autonomy which are relevant to students' learning (Benson & Voller, 1997). First, the teachers' aim is to help the students develop their ability to operate independently with the language and use it to communicate personal
meanings in real situations. Second, teachers help the
students to develop their ability to take responsibility
for their own learning and to apply active, personally
meaningful strategies to their work both inside and
outside the classroom. Lastly, teachers help students to
increase their ability to communicate and learn
independently.

In all domains, autonomy is possible only to the
extent that students possess both the willingness and the
ability to act independently. More specifically, students’
willingness to act independently depends on the level of
their motivation and confidence, and students’ ability to
act independently depends on the level of their knowledge
and skills (Nunan, 1995). Concerning language teaching,
Figure 1 presents a way to develop autonomy through
language teaching.

The center box contains the four components which
contribute to a learner’s willingness and ability to act
independently. The three outside boxes show the three
c kinds of autonomy that students can develop.
The six additional labels placed around the circle show some of the ways in which these three kinds of autonomy are expressed in language learning. They are placed next to the kind of autonomy to which they relate most closely. For example, when students use personal
learning strategies or engage in independent work, they demonstrate their autonomy as a learner.

Within the framework presented in Figure 1, teachers need to develop systematic strategies for furthering students' motivation, confidence, knowledge, and skills in each domain of autonomy. Sometime teachers may adopt a global strategy, for example, seeking to develop students' overall confidence by creating an atmosphere that supports exploration and independence.

The Role of the Teacher in Autonomous Language Learning

Factors Determining the Teacher's Role. Wright (1987) summarized language teachers' and learners' roles as part of a complex set of interacting factors, both interpersonal and task-related. The interpersonal factors are social role, status, and power, which determine the social distance between teachers and learners; and attitudes, beliefs, personality and motivation. Wright also discussed three task-related factors: the extent to which any learning task activates individuals' personal goals, how it stimulates their affective and cognitive faculties, and what is the subject matter and skills inherent to it. Based on this analysis, he defined a teacher's role as having two functions: a management
function, which is related to the social side of teaching, particularly to motivation and control of learners; and an instructional function, which is related to the task-orientated side.

The Teacher as Facilitator. The ideal of the teacher-as-a-facilitator-of-learning is perhaps the most commonly used term in discussions of self-directed learning, self-instructional, and autonomous learning. In the field of adult-directed learning, Knowles (1975) was among the earliest theorists to use and define the term facilitator. Nowadays, the term has been widely used in communicative language learning (Littlewood, 1981; Nunan, 1989).

Holec (1985) also characterized the facilitator as the provider of both psycho-social and technical support. The psycho-social features are the following: (1) the personal qualities of the facilitator (supportive, patient, tolerant, empathic, open, non-judgmental); (2) a capacity for motivating learners (encouraging commitment, dispersing uncertainty, helping learners to overcome obstacles, being prepared to enter into a dialogue with learners, avoiding manipulation); and (3) an ability to raise learner’s awareness (to help them perceive the utility of, or necessity for, independent learning).
The list of features associated with technical support includes the following: (1) helping learners to plan and carry out their independent language learning by means of needs analysis (both learning and language needs); objective setting, work planning, selecting materials, and organizing interactions; (2) helping learners evaluate themselves (assessing initial proficiency, monitoring progress, and self- and peer assessment); and (3) helping learners to acquire the skills and knowledge needed to implement the above by raising their awareness of language and learning, and by providing learner training to help them identify learning styles and appropriate learning strategies.

The Teacher as Counselor. The teacher in autonomous learning situations can be characterized as a facilitator, especially in classroom situations. In more individualized situations, the teacher’s role has been defined as counselor. This characterization of the teacher as counselor, to whom learners turn for consultation and guidance, has been suggested for situations where individualized study programs are used (Benson & Voller, 1997). Therefore, the teacher should provide suitable information to the students whenever they ask for advice. However, this informational role is also implicit in the
list of features associated with technical support given by the facilitator. Thus, it would appear that the only real difference between counseling and facilitating is in the nature of the interaction: counseling implies a one-to-one interaction. The manner in which the counselor interacts with the language learner may well be very different that of the facilitator, but at this point in time, little research has been done to determine exactly how counselors produce counseling.

The Teacher as Resource. The teacher’s role has been categorized as expert and as resource (Gremmo & Abe, 1985). The teacher as expert is more appropriate to the classroom or group learning situations, and the teacher as resource is more applicable to self-directed learning situations. The ability of the self-directed learner to use resources efficiently, skillfully, and with initiative should be one of the main proofs of autonomous language learning. Therefore, to support students’ autonomous language learning, the teacher should have a profound understanding both of the discourse community that the learner aspires to join, and of the discourse community from which learners come (Benson & Voller, 1997). This raises questions about whether or not the teacher needs to be fluent in both the target language and the learner’s
language, and about the degree to which the teacher needs to be aware of both target culture and the learner's culture. However, the nature of the teacher as resource in autonomous language learning is little explored and understood.

In summary, there are a number of ways of empowering teachers. The first and most obvious is for teachers to have a clear view of the attitudes and beliefs that strengthen the view of autonomous language learning. However, research shows that autonomy is not an all-or-nothing concept; that all learners can be trained to develop a degree of autonomy, but that often this is gradual, and the teacher may only see the benefits of autonomy at the end of the learning process (Nunan, 1995; Little, 1991). Therefore, the first step along the path towards autonomy is to make the learners aware of the goals and content of the curriculum, or learning program. The second step is to involve learners in selecting goals and content from a range of possible alternatives. Further, along the autonomy continuum, learners would be involved in modifying and adapting goals and content (Benson & Voller, 1997). To support students to become fully autonomous learners, teacher should self-monitor
their own teaching and assume the roles of facilitator, counselor, and resource provider.

Target Culture Awareness in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Learning

Culture provides the blueprint that determines the way an individual thinks, feels, and behaves in society. Humans are not born with culture but learn it through enculturation and socialization. Collier and Thomas (1988) suggest that identities are defined through interactions with others, and cultural identities involve identification with, and acceptance into, groups with shared significant symbols, meanings, and rules for conduct. Culture, therefore, exists only to the degree that it has been internalized and is shared by individuals in a particular group.

What is Culture?

The term culture is used in many ways. It can refer to activities such as art, drama, and ballet, or to aspects such as pop music, mass-media entertainment, and comic books. As a field of study, culture is conceptualized in various ways. According to Robinson (1985), culture is "a dynamic system of symbols and meaning that involves an ongoing, dialectic process where past experience influences meaning, that in turn affects
future experiences, that in turn affects subsequent meaning" (p. 68).

Klof and Cambra (1981) defined culture as "the deposit of knowledge, experiences, beliefs, values, attitudes, meanings, hierarchies, religion, timing, roles, spatial relations, concept of the universe, and material objects and possessions acquired by a large group of people in the course of generations through individual and group striving" (p. 13).

Culture is not only the filter through which people see the world but it also the raw dough from which each person fashions a life that is individual and satisfying. According to Diaz-Rico and Weed (2002), an understanding of culture aids in understanding not only peoples' daily lives but also the ways people bring meaning, joy, creativity, and enrichment to their lives. Therefore, Diaz-Rico and Weed (2002) used the term culture in other ways, as involving both observable behaviors and intangibles ones such as beliefs, values, rhythms, rules, and roles.

As can be seen in the above definitions, culture is not the sole determination of behavior; there are other motivating factors involved. What one talks about and how one talks is, for the most part, determined by the
person's culture. Because schools are acculturating agencies, teachers are responsible for helping to pass on cultural knowledge to students.

The Relationship between Culture and Language

When someone learns a foreign language, the target culture is a guide for understanding the way people think, feel, and act. Culture has many components that influence behavior at an unconscious level. Habits of teaching and learning are cultural products. Language teaching as an educational process is intimately involved with culture and its transmission (Diaz-Rico, 2004). Therefore, to understand the language of a people, one must understand the cultural background of the language. Peoples' actions and morals are expressed in their language, and in the way they interact.

Byram and Fleming (1998) suggested that learning a foreign language implies a degree of intercultural learning, and the cultures that learners bring to class are considered bridges for the learning of intercultural skills. In order to build these bridges of mutual intercultural learning, students must become more aware of their own cultural assumptions and those of others. Most language learners know that language is a part of culture, and it is not only reflects their own cultures but also
constitutes culture. This systematic way speaking which mediates language and interaction is referred as the culture of communication (Byram, 1989). Students need to learn the culture of communication in the target culture in order to communicate effectively.

The Significance of Cultural Awareness

Despite the evolving definitions of culture, theorists agree on a few central ideas (Damen, 1998). First, culture is universal. Everyone in the world belongs to one or more cultures. Second, culture simplifies living. Social behaviors and customs offer structures to daily life that keep people to avoid interpersonal difficulties and negotiation. Third, cultural patterns are so familiar that members of a culture find it difficult to accept that other ways can be right. As cultural patterns are learned or acquired through observations and languages, alternatives are seldom given. Fourth, cultures change over time, so learning about culture (one’s own or others) is a lifelong pursuit.

According to Valdes (1986), it is the teacher’s responsibility to assist students, and to bring them to the point where an understanding of culture becomes an aid to language learning and not a hindrance. However, teachers often have little training as to the key role of
culture in teaching and learning (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2002). Too often, culture is incorporated into classroom activities in superficial ways; as a group of artifacts (baskets, masks, distinctive clothing), or celebrations of holidays or stereotypical facts (Asians are quiet; Hispanics are family oriented). In other words, teachers understand that observable manifestations of culture are but one aspect of the cultural web; the intricate pattern that weaves and binds people together. Therefore, if teachers intend to enhance students' language learning through cultural aspects, teachers should look at the cultural differences between the target and native cultures. An understanding of how to use these insights can be effective in the classroom.

Strategies in Language Teaching that Develop Cultural Awareness

Even though it is not an easy process, creating cultural awareness in language teaching is valuable. In some ways, language teachers are intercultural educators. Therefore, teachers must adopt several strategies when using culture to teach language. There are six components to consider for teachers to develop cultural awareness (Diaz-Rico, 2004).
The first strategy is learning about the learners’ culture. Successful language educators meet the needs of the learners by educating themselves about the cultural bases of their students’ learning. This is because the process of learning is closely related to the learners’ cultural values (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2002). Another point for teachers to remember when considering the learners’ culture in language teaching is to stay away from stereotypes. Stereotyping makes judgments about individuals based on group membership. Teachers who want to consider their students’ cultures must avoid misleading stereotypes and overgeneralizations about the group. Instead, teachers should try to understand the source of behavior by looking into all possible factors, not just by making assumptions (Grossman, 1995).

The second strategy is aligning the culture of schooling and the learners’ culture. The culture that students bring from home is the foundation for their learning. All cultures provide an adequate pattern of living for their members. Therefore, no children are culturally deprived (Diaz-Rico, 2004). The disparity between the patterns acquired at the home culture and those demanded by the school may create behavioral conflicts (Trueba, 1989). Therefore, understanding the
cultural sources underlying the students’ educational background empowers the teachers to accommodate to culturally based learning styles and to promote students’ success. Teachers can analyze their own styles, and then monitor the students’ reactions to see if their teaching style is compatible with students’ learning styles (Diaz-Rico & Weed 2002).

The third strategy that brings culture into the language classroom is motivating the learner to achieve a bicultural identity. Motivation plays a key role in second-language development as learners assimilate into a new culture (Scarcella, 1990). Biculturalism is a process in which individuals learn to function comfortably in two distinct cultures: their primary culture, and the culture of the society they live in (Darder, 1991). Therefore, in order to increase students’ motivation, teachers should identify their students’ most important needs, and direct instruction according to those needs to stimulate progress (Lefrancois, 1994).

The fourth strategy is using cultural content to teach language. According to Byram and Fleming (1998), using varied topics involving culture is beneficial in teaching language; it not only promotes fluency, but also encourages collaboration. Although TESOL classrooms are
excellent places for integration of language instruction and intercultural learning, often there is not enough exposure to culture in the classroom. In order to improve this situation, teachers should use culturally enhanced content such as readings and discussions about the target culture, and activities such as analyzing episodes of culture-specific incidents. By following the above activities, students develop a deeper understanding of their own cultural values as well as the values presented in the content materials (Levine & Adelman, 1982).

The fifth strategy for an EFL classroom is comparing the target culture to the learner’s culture. Using similarities and differences among cultures may increase respect for diversity, reduce prejudice, and improve intercultural relations. An effective way of creating a crosscultural bridge among individuals is by showing the parallels between their group’s experience and that of other ethnic backgrounds (Grossman, 1995). Increasing cultural awareness in such experiences can help develop mutual understanding and empathy between different ethnic groups.

The sixth strategy that helps teachers is using language teaching for intercultural education. As long as language remains a powerful means of communication,
teachers should remember that it is possible to improve communication between individuals of diverse cultures by the use of a common language. Today, English has become a global language that dominates science, technology, commerce, and pop culture (Jandt, 1995). In other words, many people in the world come across English in intercultural situations. For example, members of adult schools across the country, or intensive English programs with students speaking many different languages, come together to improve their English language skills. This interaction may be beneficial for them to develop language fluency as well as intercultural skills.

One of the challenges in EFL teaching is to create programs that will enhance the educational achievement of students using cultural information. Students in EFL situations need to make connections between the traditions of their native culture and the values of the target culture. Therefore, teachers need to teach the differences between two cultures and support the learning process. Adopting a new culture can provide a strong foundation for students to learn target language.

Teaching the Target Culture in the EFL Classroom

Teaching target language means presenting information to English learners about the cultural context of the
language (Diaz-Rico, 2004). For example, if one is learning English in Australia, the target culture is that of Australian English-speaking people. It is generally believed that language learning may broaden the learners' horizon.

Target culture should be taught both explicitly and implicitly, both consciously and subconsciously like other curriculum components (Byram, 1989). Byram also pointed out that cultural teaching has two interdependent objectives; to facilitate learners' use of target language and to help learners' understand the concept of cultural differences. With keeping these objectives in mind, teachers should teach the students to learn as ethnographers do; by taking down notes of what they see, recording what they hear, and gathering all sorts of documents, which may help enlighten the target culture. In other words, teachers need to learn skills like careful listening and developing sensitive questions.

Even though the target culture plays a crucial role in learning a second language, the learners' native culture is also important in second-language acquisition (Mcleod, 1995; Nelson, 1996). Therefore, teachers should provide students with notions by sensitizing the students to cultural implications of both the first language (L1)
and the second language (L2). Therefore, teachers should make an effort to interact with students about the student’s native culture and the target (United States) cultures. By utilizing this interaction, students can learn and participate in the target culture (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990). In other words, when teaching a foreign language, the culture of the native language must be respected in the classroom. This is the first step toward developing the students’ sensitivity toward intercultural communication.

In conclusion, although a teacher cannot teach all the possible target cultural aspects in which misunderstanding might occur, it is possible to sensitize the learner based on the teacher’s experiences, and analyze some of the potentially conflicting elements. When the learner has had no experience with the structure of a particular target-language culture, communication will often fail. Therefore, the teacher should explain target cultural aspects as well as linguistic meanings that are relevant to the learning situation. Cultural teaching does not mean transforming an individual into a citizen of the target culture. Rather, it allows the students to communicate effectively with speakers of the target
language, so that both can understand one another better than before.
CHAPTER THREE
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Settings for Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Korea

The purpose of this project is to develop a framework for increasing students' English acquisition within the given cultural context. As Halliday (1978) indicated, language learning is a social process. Children therefore learn language through meaningful exchanges with other people in their environment. Even though English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) learners do not have too many chances to interact with native-English speakers, they still need to interact with members of the target culture to acquire a second language.

The rationale for this project is based on the importance of cultural awareness in teaching EFL students in Korea. It is essential for EFL students to approach the study of English with strong cultural awareness so that they have a better understanding of the similarities and differences between the Korean and the target culture. Valdes (1986) stated that it is a teacher's responsibility to assist students in understanding culture; this enables students to seek different methods and approaches to learning English more effectively. The role of the teacher
therefore needs to change from that of transmitter of knowledge to that of facilitator. In addition, this project emphasizes the fact that learning is an active process in which learners construct new ideas or concepts based upon their current and past knowledge. By adopting this active process of learning, the students will have a great knowledge of how to approach the study in English at any grade level.

The Theoretical Model in Detail

The model presented here is an attempt to introduce an effective way of adopting cultural awareness as a tool to help foster students' content knowledge and language acquisition. Based on the concepts reviewed in Chapter Two, the model includes five major components: concepts about print, teaching reading through mediated structures, dual-language acquisition, autonomy, and target-culture awareness in EFL learning. This theoretical framework is graphically represented in Figure 2.

In Figure 2, the goal is to increase content knowledge, second-language acquisition, and cultural awareness, based upon students' prior knowledge, reading model, program model, and philosophical foundation. Each of these will be discussed in turn.
Outcomes:
Increasing Content Knowledge, Second-Language Acquisition and Cultural Awareness

Philosophical Foundation:
Teacher as Facilitator
Student as Autonomous Learner

Program Model:
Dual-Language Acquisition

Reading Model:
Teaching Reading through Mediated Structures
Teacher use a variety of mediated structures, having students...
- make connection
- use prior knowledge
- visualize
- make inferences
- synthesize information
- etc

Concepts about Print
(among other metalinguistic knowledge)

Native Culture
First Language
Second Language
Target Culture

Students' Prior Knowledge

Figure 2. Theoretical Framework
Students' Prior Knowledge

Prior knowledge includes knowledge of the students' native culture, their first language, the second language, and the target culture. Students come to class equipped with certain prior knowledge that they can use to learn more knowledge. This prior knowledge varies between students. Prior knowledge acts as a lens through which they view and absorb new information (Kujawa & Huske, 1995). Thus, prior knowledge is a key part of the reading model.

Students learn more effectively when they already know something about a content area and when concepts in those areas mean something to them in the context of their particular background or culture. When teachers link new culture and new language to the student's prior knowledge, they activate the student's interest and curiosity, and infuse instruction with a sense of purpose. Teachers also need to encourage integration of the students' first language and their culture with the second language and target culture.

Reading Model

The second domain is the reading model, which includes concepts about print and other metalinguistic knowledge, as well as teaching reading through mediated
structures. Most students have concepts about print in the Korean language. However, some of them do not have concepts about print in English. Therefore, teachers need to be aware of the reading proficiency of individual students.

Concepts about Print and Other Metalinguistic Knowledge. In order for students to become fluent readers, acquiring concepts about print is fundamental (Snow & Susan, 1998). Print awareness involves understanding the differences between letters and words. As children develop these print concepts, they begin to develop the voice-print match, after which they are able to read words. As children begin to read words, they try to use their print awareness to sound out words by associating letters with the sounds they spell. To assist this process, teachers should organize a language-rich environment in the classroom to encourage children's phonemic awareness (Tompkins, 2003). In addition, teachers should try to incorporate phonemic awareness into other oral language or literacy activities to boost understanding about print concepts. Moreover, teachers who promote metalinguistic awareness can help students to transfer knowledge about language from L1 to L2, thus enhancing overall competence within the reading program.
Teaching Reading through Mediated Structures. Reading is an active process in which readers shift between sources of information and use the social context to focus their response. According to Bernhardt (1986), reading is an interaction of text-based and extra-text-based components. Therefore, reading can be regarded as information-gathering activities that heavily draw on factors such as textual cohesion, text structure, and sentence connectivity.

Teaching reading through mediated structures starts from Vygotsky’s idea about mediation. Vygotsky (1978) argued that tools and signs mediate higher mental functions and human actions. He also defined mediation as a bridge between one’s present knowledge and one’s potential. Therefore, mediated structures can be defined as tools that embed the potential and are used as means by which to make the knowledge visible for learners as they come know about something. When teachers teach reading to students, teachers become sociocultural mediators who create a link between the child’s sociocultural experiences at home and school to promote the students’ fullest potential (Diaz & Flores, 1990). The mediated structures teachers use can include helping students to make connection and inferences, visualize, and
synthesizing information. This helps students to expend their ZOPD within the reading program.

**Program Model: Dual-Language Acquisition**

The third domain is the program model, which serves to develop students' dual-language acquisition. The dual-language program integrates students' native and second languages, providing instruction in both English and the native language (Lambert, 1984). Learning English by adopting a dual-language immersion program allows students to achieve competency in the second language (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Moreover, because students interact with peers and teachers who speak English well, they come to appreciate other cultures and develop positive social values and behaviors.

Mainstream bilingual programs can be adapted in EFL classrooms in Korea. This is because this type of program comprises the joint use of two majority languages in a classroom. In other words, English as an international language can be used as a medium of instruction alongside the native language.

**Philosophical Foundation**

The fourth domain, philosophical foundation, combines two factors, which are teacher-as-facilitator and student-as-autonomous learner.
**Teacher as a Facilitator.** This view emphasizes that teachers need to provide students with a variety of contexts and task structures for successful language learning. This is because teaching a language involves not only utilizing a traditional grammar-oriented approach but also exploring the social and cognitive processes that are involved in the structure of a language and students' prior knowledge.

Thus, teachers should help students plan and carry out their independent language learning by selecting useful materials and organizing interactions. In addition, teachers should help learners evaluate themselves by assessing initial proficiency, monitoring progress, and encouraging self-and peer assessment. To support students to become fully autonomous learners, teachers should do their best to become facilitators.

**Student as Autonomous Learner.** For effective language learning, teachers should develop students' autonomy. The unit of instruction in this project includes lessons that emphasize students' autonomy by encouraging small-group discussion and various activities. Students take greater control over the content and methods of learning when they fully develop their autonomy (Holec, 1981). Throughout the
unit lessons, students apply self-directed learning and determine the direction of their own learning.

**Outcomes**

The ultimate goal of this model is to increase content knowledge, second-language acquisition, and cultural awareness.

Language is acquired through meaningful communication and cultural understanding rather than by memorizing its grammatical structure. All the lessons in the unit of instruction include cultural similarities and differences. As is presented in the literature review, the perception of other people is influenced by one’s primary culture. Within the context of cultural theme and by comparing and contrasting Korean and American cultures, students will gain more knowledge about American culture and learn English in a more authentic way.

In addition, by adapting this model in EFL classrooms, students come to appreciate the target culture as well as their native culture. Even though learning a foreign language in Korea is not an easy task, students will like learning in English more if the teachers facilitate students’ cultural awareness by organizing a language-rich classroom environment.
CHAPTER FOUR
CURRICULUM DESIGN

The curriculum unit presented in the Appendix is designed for EFL teachers who are looking for a way to lead students to effective English acquisition through cultural awareness, while developing students’ autonomy in reading. The title of this unit is Comparing Korean and American Cultural Customs. The target teaching level is Korean EFL students in grades 3-6. As most students this age do not have much knowledge about America, each lesson includes information on aspects of American culture to stimulate students’ interest in learning English.

Components and Principles of the Instructional Units

The teaching unit, Comparing Korean and American Cultural Customs (see the Appendix), applies the key topics identified in Chapter Two and the principles formulated in Chapter Three. The underlying principles in this unit are aimed to increase content knowledge, language acquisition, and cultural awareness, based upon students’ prior knowledge.

The content of the unit features six lessons designed to introduce cultural awareness, with lessons focusing on
content as well as language development. In Lesson One, *Cultural Differences in Greetings*, students learn the differences in greeting styles between Korea and America. Students are encouraged to discuss how different greeting expressions, vocabulary, and gestures are used. Lesson Two, *The Best Older Sister*, focuses on language arts. In this lesson, students develop inference and summarizing skills. Lesson Three, *Happy Wedding*, is designed to enhance students' communication skills by having them interview people about a wedding. In this lesson, students present their findings to the class after the interview.

In Lesson Four, *Halmoni and the Picnic*, they expand their own cultural awareness by speaking in complete sentences about Yunmi's picnic. In this lesson, the teacher gives directions on how to make a thank-you card in the Korean language for beginner-level students. Students expand their target cultural awareness using mediated structures in Lesson Five, *Thanksgiving Celebration*. In this lesson, students describe Thanksgiving activities in America and Korea by comparing and contrasting. In Lesson Six, *New Year Celebration*, the last lesson of this unit, students compare and contrast New Years celebrations in the target and native cultures using mediated structures. Through learning about the
different cultures from various perspectives, students will be able to show positive attitudes toward English learning and other cultures as well.

Lesson Format

Each lesson in the unit of instruction follows a clear format that provides procedures that are systematic and easy to follow. In the beginning of each lesson, the target-teaching level, the objectives, and the materials are designated. All the information that is required for each lesson is presented in focus sheets, and practiced through work sheets. Assessment materials, which are extensively explained in Chapter Five, are also included in each lesson. There are three main steps in each lesson plan to help optimize learning and language acquisition. These steps include warm-ups, work chain activities, and assessments.

The first stage is the warm-up activity that creates anticipation for the lesson. This step taps into the prior knowledge of the students and provides the foundation for the upcoming lesson. In this step, the students can gain an idea of what to expect from the lesson.

The second stage is the input-practice stage that is explained through work chains. Each work chain contains input that provides the basic knowledge for the practice.
The input is presented by means of various methods such as eliciting information from the students, demonstrations, handouts, and media presentations. The practice phase varies according to the input. Expressions and new vocabulary words require a certain amount of guided practice before students move into discussions and independent assignments. For the most part, the practice stage includes activities such as group or pair work, independent work, and discussions.

The final stage of the lessons is the assessment stage. This stage also includes various activities such as peer and self-evaluation, written tests, and individual or group presentations. Each assessment activity is evaluated with a given number of points. Before the assessment, the teacher explains to the students what they have to do to achieve a high score on the assessment.

Lesson Content

The intent of the unit of instruction is to learn about various cultures. Therefore, the lessons all have cultural as well as language-functional components.

Lesson One. The unit plan begins with a lesson in greetings, including verbal and non-verbal aspects. The objectives are designed for students to learn the expressions associated with greetings as well as to become
aware of various cultural differences. According to the theoretical framework, the students’ prior knowledge is the starting point for this lesson. Based on the students’ native culture and their first language, they learn about the target culture and the second language through the lesson activities.

Lesson Two. The second lesson focuses on the differences in birthday celebrations in Korea and America. The objectives for this lesson are to compare and contrast birthday clothes between the two countries, as well as to summarize the reading story. The tasks in this lesson address all components of the theoretical framework. The teacher explains some of activities in the Korean language for beginning English learners because the program model in this lesson mainly focuses on dual-language competence. In addition, in the reading model, the teacher uses mediated structures to help students understand the given story.

Lesson Three. Lesson Three is about weddings. The objective of this lesson includes helping students to speak about weddings in complete sentences and interview people about weddings. This lesson addresses the philosophical foundation of the theoretical framework in that throughout this lesson, the teacher promotes the
students' self-confidence and encourages them to express their opinions. Students become autonomous learners by organizing interview plans by themselves.

**Lesson Four.** The fourth lesson, *Halmoni and the Picnic*, provides students opportunities to learn about their target culture as well as their native culture. By reading the story "Halmoni and the Picnic," students learn that different countries use different utensils to eat. In addition, students learn how to show their respect to elders in Korea and America. As in Lesson One, this lesson starts from the students' prior knowledge, using a dual-language competence model. To avoid difficulties in understanding, the teacher should explain using the Korean language how to make thank-you cards.

**Lesson Five.** The title of the fifth lesson is *Thanksgiving Celebration*. The objectives of this lesson are to increase students' understanding about the differences in thanksgiving activities between Korea and America. In addition, students develop their speaking skills by describing thanksgiving activities. This lesson emphasizes development of students' autonomy. The teacher provides various types of mediation so students can learn to make their own mediated structures.
Lesson Six. The last lesson in the unit of instruction is New Year Celebration. The objective of this lesson is to expand students' knowledge about cultural similarities and differences by comparing and contrasting New Year celebrations between Korea and America. The components of the theoretical framework are all in accordance with this lesson. This is because the students start the lesson using their prior knowledge and the teacher performs the role of facilitator by providing posters and articles about New Year celebrations in the target and native cultures. The teacher can also explain in the Korean language when students have some problem understanding the articles or activities. Using mediated structures increases students' autonomy.

In summary, the six lessons use cultural differences between Korea and America to enhance the students' interest in English and promote respect for other cultures. Having this unit, students get a chance to learn crosscultural aspects as well as explore their own cultures. In addition, each lesson starts from the students' prior knowledge and allows the teacher to facilitate English learning. This allows beginner-level English learners to develop their self-confidence and autonomy.
For successful EFL language learning, diverse activities that facilitate the students use of English in reading, writing, speaking, and listening are necessary. Any of these four language skills cannot be obtained without practicing them. The unit presented here has the students practicing all four language skills through discussions, presentations, interviews, and teacher-student interactions. There is no doubt that this natural and strategic approach to English learning is the best way for the young learners to be interested in and familiarize themselves with English and eventually become competent communicators.
CHAPTER FIVE

ASSESSMENT

Assessment of the Project

Assessment and evaluation of student achievement is an integral component of the teaching and learning process. Teachers use assessment to measure what students have learned as well as the effectiveness of their own teaching. The type of assessment used in Korea is more formal and usually takes the form of standardized tests using short answers or multiple-choice. However, these tests may be inaccurate in measuring students’ real English achievement.

If effective assessment is not in place, it becomes impossible for teachers to monitor students’ language proficiency and evaluate their progress. Such failure also obstructs the teachers from improving their instruction or guiding students toward appropriate programs. This consequently may result in the failure of the students’ second-language acquisition. Therefore, teachers who want to lead students to successful English learning need efficient assessment methods that reflect the students’ learning achievements, motivations, needs, and attitudes.

According to Diaz-Rico (2004), performance-based assessments require the students to reproduce what is
learned in class. In addition, performance-based assessments capture the excitement of students' learning by keeping the focus on learning rather than on testing.

Diaz-Rico (2004) suggests two main types of performance-based assessments: standardized and less standardized. The standardized assessments include questionnaires and structured interviews. In less standardized assessments, scoring is done using journals, games, story retelling and anecdotal reports as opposed to multiple-choice tests.

The instructional unit Comparing Korean and American Cultural Customs mainly adopts performance-based assessments. This is because the instruction plans are geared to develop students' language skills and comprehension in the content area, which is understanding cultural differences.

Design of the Assessment for the Curriculum Unit

Each lesson of the curriculum unit includes content, language, and learning objectives. Content objectives usually focus on subject-area skills and comprehension. Language objectives focus on language use and vocabulary building. However, teacher will fail to identify the students' needs and track their progress if only the
content and language features are assessed. The unit also includes assessment of students’ capability in problem solving, individual behavior, group behavior, communication skills, and attitudes. These areas are assessed through some of the following channels: anecdotal records and teacher observations, performance-based assessment, interviews, and student self-assessment.

The teacher observation method is commonly used in this unit. In almost every lesson, the teacher observes students’ attention to tasks, responses to different types of assignments, or interactions with other students while working on cooperative activities. This type of assessment is particularly important with language learners because teachers need to notice students’ response to various instructional approaches.

To exert more power in assessing what students can do and build on existing areas of strength, the assessment needs to be recorded systematically over time. Therefore, the unit provides several opportunities to record regularly the teacher’s observations. For example, Lessons Two, Three, and Six include assessment sheets for the teacher to use to evaluate student’ responses and work habits. From these systematical and periodical records, teachers gain the capacity to make precise decisions about
student’ needs and progress, and plan appropriate instruction.

In the lesson plans, students are assessed based on their task performance. Performance-based assessment is very important for English learners. By measuring students’ specific performance, teachers can get explicit information about students’ learning such as concept comprehension, language use, vocabulary understanding, and problem-solving abilities. In this curriculum unit, students are asked to perform at least one task in a lesson, and the performance is assessed based on the rubrics provided. The rubric prepared for task performance is designed to assess students’ content understanding and language use.

In addition, interview techniques are used in Lesson Three of this unit. Responding to simple information questions is an extremely important task in language learning. When students are able to ask questions, they can clarify information about the topics. The interview method is also useful for students who are at the speech-emergence level. These students may have more chances to practice their language skills by interviewing others.
Self-assessment is used in Lessons Two and Four, to have students assess their own learning. Self assessment enables language learners to be more actively in control of their own progress. By providing learners with the skills needed to assess themselves and independently monitor their learning, teachers can help students to take greater responsibility for their learning and develop into autonomous learners. Furthermore, self-assessment helps both teachers and students become aware of students' attitudes, strengths, and weaknesses in learning.

Writing is another area of assessment that is difficult for EFL students. However, exposure to English writing is essential. This requires the use of various graphic organizers as well as mediated structures, which can be assessed. The use of a Venn diagram is shown in Lesson Two, and a spider web organizer is demonstrated in Lesson Three. In addition, Lessons Five and Six provide graphic organizers and mediated structures to assist students' reading and writing.

In summary, the assessment techniques used for the unit lessons are in accordance with the objectives and practices of the thematic unit. Each lesson plan includes a communicative assessment technique such as a group discussion, presentation, or interview. Because the
purpose of this unit lesson is to develop students’ content knowledge, language acquisition, and cultural awareness, performance-based assessments are commonly used.

With effective assessment, learners can identify their own personal strengths and weaknesses and improve their language acquisition. As mentioned earlier, Korean schools still tend to grade students’ learning achievements using only test scores. The most important issue, however, is how to encourage the students to become autonomous learners and to be enthusiastic about learning English. This can only be done if teachers take on the role of facilitator rather than simply being a transmitter of knowledge.

Assessment is viewed not only as a means of measuring a students’ knowledge but also as a process of allowing them to provide a reflection of their own learning through self-assessment. For successful English learning and effective instruction, appropriate assessment is necessary. The assessment methods used in this unit will make it possible for teachers to guide students toward an appropriate English learning program. It will also help teachers to monitor the students’ progress and help students become autonomous learners.
APPENDIX

LESSON PLANS
LESSON PLANS

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Lesson Plan One

Cultural Differences in Greetings

Level: Elementary EFL grades 3-6, Speech Emergence level

ESL Standard:
  Goal 1, Standard 1, 2
  Goal 2, Standard 1, 2

Objectives:
  1. Students will recognize cultural differences in greetings.
  2. Students will practice expressions, vocabulary and gestures associated with greetings.
  3. Students will compare different culture greetings.

Materials:
  Focus Sheets 1-1, 1-2, 1-3
  Work Sheets 1-1, 1-2, 1-3, 1-4

Warm up:
The teacher shows the students pictures of people greeting one another from different countries (Focus Sheet 1-1) and asks the students what is happening in the picture.

Work Chain 1: Recognize Cultural Differences in Greeting
  1. The teacher passes Focus Sheet 1-2 to students, and reads the story.
  2. The teacher displays comprehension practice questions (Work Sheet 1-1), and asks students to answer.
  3. Students form groups of four and discuss how to fill out Work Sheet 1-2. Then students share their different opinions.

Work Chain 2: Greeting Expressions, Vocabulary, and Gestures
  1. The teacher shows movie clips where similar greeting expressions are used from television (Blues Clues, Sesame Street, Bob the Builder).
  2. The teacher elicits the expressions used in greetings in the United States and writes them on the board.
3. After seeing the clips, students discuss how people use different greeting expressions, vocabulary, and gestures between people.
4. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 1-3 and students work to match the expressions to the situations.

Work Chain 3: Compare and Contrast Different Cultural Greeting
1. The teacher reads “Culture Capsule,” (Focus Sheet 1-3) then discusses cultural differences.
2. Students form groups of four and fill in the chart (Work Sheet 1-4). The teacher gives some examples such as hug, bow, kiss, handshake, and shares students’ answers with classmates.
3. After filling in the chart, students compare their own greetings and American greetings.

Assessment:
Formative:
1. During Work Chain 1, the teacher observes students’ participation.

Summative:
1. The teacher evaluates students’ comprehension skills by analyzing Work Sheet 1-1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th># of right answers</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8-7</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-5</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-3</td>
<td>Needs improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>Study harder</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. The teacher evaluates students’ compare-and-contrast skills by analyzing Work Sheet 1-3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th># of right answers</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Needs improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>Study harder</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Focus Sheet 1-1

Greetings Around the World
Focus Sheet 1-2

Hand Kissing

My name is Cristina. I was born in Mexico and came to the United States when I was three months old. Even though we lived in the United States, my parents raised my brother, my sister, and me just as they had been raised in Mexico—with very strict rules. My parents taught us we should respect grandparents, who had lived the longest. They had more knowledge about life, and no matter what they said, even if it didn’t make sense, they were right. We were taught that to hug or kiss grandparents was disrespectful and that we should greet them by kissing their hand. When you are young, you think that everyone lives and thinks just like you do. Well, I soon found out this isn’t true.

My best friend in third grade was the first close friend I had who was raised in the American way. This friend invited me to her birthday party. I was very excited because I had never been invited to a friend’s birthday party before.

The day of the party came, and I was happy but at the same time very nervous. I thought of all the people who would be there. I wanted her family to like me. Slowly, I rang the bell. My friend came running out with a big smile, telling me she was happy that I came. She let me in and introduced me to her parents. They smiled and said hello. Then she said, “Come here. I want you to meet my grandpa.”

I followed her into the living room where his grandfather was sitting. She introduced us and he reached out his hand. He was going to shake hands, but I thought he was expecting me to kiss his hand, so I did.

I noticed that he looked at me in a strange way, as if he didn’t like what I had done. Everyone else in the room looked at me, and my friend started laughing. I was very confused. I didn’t know what I had done wrong. I sat down and tried to figure out what happened. Just then, a little boy ran to my friend’s grandfather and jumped on grandfather. When I saw this, I got up and took the little boy by the hand and said, “No.” I guess I said it pretty loudly because the room became very silent and all eyes were on me.
The next day at the school my friend asked me why I acted so strange at her party. She asked why I kissed her grandfather’s hand and why I told the little boy to get away from his grandfather. I explained my customs to her and she explained hers to me. Fortunately, we stayed very good friends.

Work Sheet 1-1
Comprehension

Name of Student:

After reading Hand Kissing, show whether these sentences are true or false by putting T or F on the line.

1. Cristina had very many American friends. ____
2. Cristina's parents let their children follow whatever customs they desired. ____
3. In Cristina's culture, grandparents were highly respected because they had lived longest and knew the most. ____
4. Cristina loved to hug and kiss her grandparents.
5. At the party the grandfather was surprised when Cristina kissed his hand. ____
6. The little boy kissed the grandfather's hand too. ____

7. The party guests were very surprised by Cristina's behavior. ____
8. Cristina's friend did not talk with Cristina after the party. ____

Each /10 pts. (Total 80 pts.)
Work Sheet 1-2

Opinion

Name of Student:

After reading Hand Kissing, write down your opinions.

1. Why do you think Christina's parents continued to follow their Mexican traditions even though they lived in the United States?

2. Do you think Cristina's parents made a good decision about keeping their Mexican traditions? Why or why not?

3. Do you think it was a good idea for Cristina's girlfriend to ask her why she acted so strange at the party? Why or why not?

Each /20 pts. (Total 60 pts.)
Work Sheet 1-3

Expressions of Greeting

Name of Student:

Match the following expressions of greeting to the situations. More than one situation per expression is possible.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Situation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. &quot;Hi, how are you?&quot;</td>
<td>a. Greeting a little girl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. &quot;What's up?&quot;</td>
<td>b. Two friends greet each other on the way to work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. &quot;Hi; long time no see.&quot;</td>
<td>c. Teenage boys in high school greet each other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. &quot;Hi, sweaty.&quot;</td>
<td>d. Two friends who haven't seen each other for a long time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. &quot;Hi, cutie.&quot;</td>
<td>e. Grandparents seeing a grandchild after a long time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. &quot;You have grown since the last time I saw you.&quot;</td>
<td>f. Greeting a girl</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each /10 pts. (Total 60 pts.)
Focus Sheet 1-3
Culture Capsule

In the United States, the form of greeting depends on how well people know each other and on the situation. When people are first introduced, they usually shake hands. Handshakes are especially common in business or formal situations.

When two female friends meet, they might hug or just say hi. Although in many cultures, people kiss on both cheeks; Americans sometimes just kiss on one cheek.

Male friends would not kiss but might embrace for a moment. If people know each other but not well, they might just say hello. Friends often do this, too.

For the business meeting, people might greet with a handshake. A grandchild would probably greet his or her grandparents with hugs and kisses.

Work Sheet 1-4
Comparing Greetings

Name of Student:

Compare the way you greet people in your own country with the way Americans greet one another. Fill in the chart, for example, with handshake, pat on arm, kiss, bow, or hug; and then share your answer with your friends.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How Do People Greet...</th>
<th>Your Country</th>
<th>United States</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A friend of the same sex</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A friend of the opposite sex</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grandparents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brothers and sisters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each /10 pts. (Total 50 pts.)
## Assessment Rubric 1

### Self-Assessment

Name of Student:

Answer the questions below for self-evaluation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 1</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is one thing you have learned from this lesson that was interesting?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 2</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What have you learned about other cultures that you did not realize was different from your own cultures?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each/10 pts. (Total 20 pts.)
Lesson Plan Two

The Best Older Sister

Level: Elementary EFL grades 3-6, Speech Emergence level

ESL Standard:
Goal 1, Standard 1, 2
Goal 3, Standard 1, 3

Objectives:
1. Students will compare and contrast birthday costumes between the United States and Korea.
2. Students will comprehend the story of The Best Older Sister.
3. Students will summarize the beginning, middle, and the ending of the story using mediated structure.

Materials:
The Best Older Sister by Sook Nyul Choi
Focus Sheets 2-1, 2-2
Work Sheets 2-1, 2-2, 2-3
Assessment Sheets 2-1, 2-2

Warm up:
The teacher asks students whether they have a younger brother or sister, how they felt when the brother or sister was born, and how the family’s life changed after his/her birth. Teacher invites them to compare their answers with the story of The Best Older Sister.

Work Chain I: Compare and Contrast Birthday costumes
1. The students form groups of five.
2. The teacher shows Focus Sheet 2-1 and asks what are the differences and similarities between the two birthday costumes.
3. The teacher hands out Work Sheet 2-1.
4. The students discuss in groups and fill out Work Sheet 2-1.
Each group presents its findings to the class and group members add more to their Work Sheet 1-1.

Work Chain 2: Comprehending the Story
1. The teacher tells the story The Best Older Sister (Focus Sheet 2-1) and the students listen carefully and take notes.
2. The teacher hands out Work Sheet 2-2 and the students fill out the answers from their notes.

3. The teacher checks the students’ understanding about the story based on the students’ answers on Work Sheet 2-2.

Work Chain 3: Using Mediated Structures

1. The teacher has the students summarize the story.
2. The teacher draws Mediated Structures on the board and hands out Work Sheet 2-2.
3. The teacher invites students to describe the beginning, middle, and the ending of the story and to fill out the Mediated Structures form.

Assessment

Formative

1. During Work Chain 2-1, the teacher observes students’ participation and speaking skills.

Summative

1. The teacher assesses the students’ compare-and-contrast skills about birthday customs by analyzing Work Sheet 2-1 (Refer to Assessment Sheet 2-1).
2. The teacher assesses the students’ inference skills about The Best Older Sister story by analyzing Work Sheet 2-2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Points</th>
<th>Situation of learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Keep trying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-0</td>
<td>Needs more effort</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Focus Sheet 2-1

Birthday Costumes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Korean Baby’s Birthday Costume</th>
<th>American Baby’s Birthday Costume</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><img src="image1" alt="Korean Baby's Birthday Costume" /></td>
<td><img src="image2" alt="American Baby's Birthday Costume" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><img src="image3" alt="Korean Baby's Birthday Costume" /></td>
<td><img src="image4" alt="American Baby's Birthday Costume" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Work Sheet 2-1

Compare and Contrast

Student Name:

Write the differences and similarities between the two country's birthday costumes.

Korean Costume

Both

American Costume

Colorful

Beautiful

Like regular clothes

121
Focus Sheet 2-2

The Best Older Sister

No Time for Sunhi

Sunhi dragged her feet as she walked home from school. Her grandmother, Halmoni, had always waited for Sunhi outside the schoolyard with a delicious snack. Together they would walk home. Sunhi would tell Halmoni all about her day at school.

But everything changed for Sunhi when her little brother, Kiju, was born. Halmoni no longer had time to play with Sunhi. Now Halmoni was busy taking care of Kiju all day while Sunhi’s parents were at work. Halmoni fed him, bathed him, and changed his diapers. That little baby made such a mess and needed so much attention.

When Sunhi came home, she saw Halmoni sitting on the sofa, bouncing Kiju on her knee. Halmoni was waving Sunhi’s little brown teddy bear in front of Kiju. He smiled and drooled with delight. Mrs. Lee and Mrs. Stone, their neighbors, were visiting. They were making silly noises as they admired the baby. They hardly noticed Sunhi. “Oh, hello, Sunhi,” said Mrs. Lee looking up finally. “We just stopped by to see Kiju. How adorable your little brother is! I can hardly believe he will be a year old next week.” “Halmoni told us that it is a Korean custom to have a big party on a baby’s first birthday,” said Mrs. Stone. “You must be so excited.” Sunhi managed a polite smile. It is so wonderful to have a boy in the family,” said Mrs. Lee.

Sunhi was tired of all the fuss everyone made over this baby. She did not think he was so interesting. She wished one of these visitors would adopt him and take him away. Sunhi glared at the two presents on the coffee table. “Sunhi, please put those presents in your parents’ room,” said Halmoni. Sunhi grabbed them and ran to her parents’ room. She threw them on the bed. Then she saw three more beautifully wrapped presents lying in the corner. “Huh! More presents for that little boy,” said Sunhi. She could not stand it anymore. She marched out to the living room and over to Halmoni. “Can I have my bear back? That is still mine, isn’t it?” Sunhi snatched it and ran back to her room. Halmoni’s eye opened wide. She started after Sunhi. Sunhi knew she was being rude. She was ashamed of her behavior in front of Halmoni and their
guests. But she could not help it. Tears ran down her cheeks. She threw herself onto her bed and sobbed.

Everything was different with Kiju around. Even her room was not her own anymore. It was full of baby diapers and baby toys. It smelled like baby powder. “How happy you must be to have a little brother!” everyone said to Sunhi. “Isn’t it wonderful to be a big sister now?” they asked. But it did not seem so wonderful to Sunhi. Now her parents had even less time talk to her and play with her in the evenings. Most of all, Sunhi missed spending time with Halmoni. When Halmoni wasn’t with Kiju, she was busy doing things for him. Just yesterday, Sunhi had caught Halmoni sewing secretly in her room. Sunhi saw the beautiful blue silk. She knew that Halmoni must be making something for Kiju to wear on his birthday. “What is so special about this little baby, anyway?” Sunhi wondered. “Why is it so important to have a boy? Wasn’t I good enough?” Sunhi sobbed.

A Surprise for Sunhi

There was a gentle knock on the door. Halmoni entered. She quietly sat beside Sunhi. Halmoni wiped Sunhi’s tears and stroked her hair. Halmoni said, “I have a surprise for you. I was going to save it until next week. But I think I will give it to you now.” “What is it, Halmoni?” Sunhi said. She swallowed her tears and brushed away Halmoni’s hand. “It is in your parents’ room. Three big presents,” said Halmoni. “What? Those are Kiju’s!” said Sunhi. Halmoni carried the three big boxes into Sunhi’s room. “Come one, Sunhi. Sit up. Open this one first,” she said. In the box was a royal blue silk Korean dress. It had rainbow-colored sleeves and butterflies embroidered on the front. Sunhi loved it. “This is for you to wear on Kiju’s birthday,” said Halmoni. “I was afraid you saw it last night when you came to say good night. These other two are for your best friends, Jenny and Robin. Open them and see if you think they will like them.” Jenny’s was peach-colored with white rosebuds embroidered on the front. Robin’s was yellow with tiny blue birds embroidered on the sleeves. Sunhi knew that her friends would love these. “Halmoni, these are so pretty. It must have taken you a very long time to make them!” said Sunhi. “Well, luckily Kiju is a good baby. He sleeps a lot. I am sorry I haven’t taken you to school and picked you up. I have missed that. You are special to me.
It is just that babies are so helpless and need a lot of care. Just like you when you were a baby," said Halmoni. "Did people come and visit and make such a big fuss over me?" asked Sunhi. "Oh, even more!" said Halmoni. "What a fuss we all made! Don’t you remember the picture of your first birthday? I was in Korea, but your parents sent me a big batch of pictures of you every week. For your birthday, I made you and outfit and mailed it to your mother." "I remember those pictures," said Sunhi. Now that you are a big sister," said Halmoni, "I thought you could host Kiju’s birthday party. You, Jenny, and Robin cane decorate the birthday table and host together. Why don’t you invite them over? We can give them their presents," said Halmoni. Sunhi nodded. "Okay, I’ll ask them to come home with me tomorrow," She said. "Where is Kiju?" Halmoni smiled. "I think he is sleeping. Let’s go see."

A Bad Older Sister

Halmoni and Sunhi walked to parents’ room. They peered into Kiju’s crib. Kiju was wide-awake and playing happily with his feet. He was a peaceful, handsome baby. "Kiju is lucky to have a big sister like you," said Halmoni, "Soon he will be walking and talking. He will follow you all around. You will have to teach him to be smart and kind just like you." Sunhi’s face turned red. "Halmoni, I was stupid and mean. Sometimes I wanted to be only child again. I have been a bad older sister," said Sunhi. "Sunhi, that is all right," said Halmoni. "It is hard to get used to having a baby in the house. Sometimes we wish things had not changed. But that doesn’t mean we are bad. I know that you love Kiju very much. I know you are going to be the best older sister." Sunhi watched Kiju. She promised herself that she would give him the best first birthday party ever. "What is Kiju’s birthday outfit like?" asked Sunhi. "It is just a silk outfit much like the one you wore," said Sunhi’s mother, walking into the room. "He is not wearing an extra-special outfit? He isn’t more special and important because he is a boy?" asked Sunhi. "Of course not! You are both equally special," said Sunhi’s mother.

She hugged Sunhi. Halmoni took Sunhi’s hand in her own. She said, "Is your right eye more special and important than your left eye?" Halmoni had lots of funny sayings like this, but Sunhi understood. The next day Jenny and Robin came over. All three girls tried on their outfits. "Oooh, thank you, Halmoni," Jenny said. Robin said, "Oh, how pretty! Thank you." Halmoni beamed with
joy. Then they looked at pictures of Sunhi’s first birthday. They all laughed at the funny faces Sunhi made in the pictures. They laughed and laughed and rolled on the floor.

The Best First Birthday Party

On the morning of Kiju’s birthday, Jenny and Robin came over very early. Sunhi’s father unfolded the embroidered silk screen. Sunhi’s mother spread our beautiful silk tablecloth. Halmoni brought our rice cakes. Halmoni started placing one green rice cake on top of another. “See, you stack them just like you stack pebbles at the beach,” she said. Sunhi began stacking the white rice cakes. She mixed them with green rice cakes to make a pretty design.

Robin stacked the bright red apples. Jenny stacked brown rice cakes into a tall tower. The girls helped Halmoni dress Kiju. They put silk trousers, a silk shirt, and a green silk jacket on him. A big, pointy black hat went on his head. All their friends and relatives arrived. The girls placed Kiju in his high chair at the table. Kiju cooed and reached for the colorful goodies. Jenny, Robin, and Sunhi made funny faces at the camera. Sunhi’s father hurried to take as many pictures as he could.

“Take lots of pictures of the beautiful table the girls decorated,” said Sunhi’s mother. Then Jenny, Robin, and Sunhi saw the sign at the front of the table. “Decorated by Jenny, Robin, and Sunhi,” it said in printing. Sunhi smiled at her mother, and her mother smiled back. All three girls gazed at the table proudly. “Don’t move. I want a picture of all of you,” said Sunhi’s father. “Wait!” Sunhi dragged Jenny and Robin behind the table. The she picked Kiju and gave him a big squeeze. She held him up to pose for the camera. Sunhi’s father quickly took a picture of them. Then Kiju started to squirm and struggle to be free. Sunhi put him down.


Work Sheet 2-2

Comprehension Check

Name of Student:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. What makes Grandma finally realize that Sunhi feels left out?</th>
<th>2. What does it mean when Grandma asks “Is your right eye more special and important than your left eye?”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5. Describe how people used context to figure out the meaning of <em>host</em>.</th>
<th>6. How do you think the author feels about family traditions?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each /10 pts. (Total 60 pts.)
Using a Mediated Structure (Story Map)

Student Name:

Write a beginning, middle, and the ending of the story Best Older Sister.

Fill each box with more than two sentences.

**Best Older Sister**

- Beginning
- Middle
- End
Assessment Sheet 2-1

Teacher Assessment Rubric

Name of Student:

During Work Chain 1-1, the student

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>writes more than five differences and similarities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>writes at least three differences and similarities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>writes one difference and similarity, or none.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Evaluation Key

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Needs improvement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comments:
Assessment Sheet 2-2

Self-Assessment

Name of Student:

What have you learned from this lesson? Answer each question. Write some comments on what you felt was interesting or what you want to learn next time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>All the time</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I can clearly compare birthday costumes between Korea and America.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I can tell how Sunhi's feelings changed from the beginning to the end.</td>
<td>Very well</td>
<td>Not very well</td>
<td>Not at all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I know what a story map is.</td>
<td>Very well</td>
<td>Not very well</td>
<td>Not at all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I can describe the story using a story map.</td>
<td>Very well</td>
<td>Not very well</td>
<td>Not at all</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Comment (I think...) ____________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________
Lesson Plan Three

Happy Wedding

Level: Elementary EFL grades 3-6, Speech Emergence level

ESL Standard:
  Goal 1, Standard 1, 2
  Goal 2, Standard 1, 2

Objectives:
  1. Students will compare and contrast wedding customs between the United States and Korea.
  2. Students will speak about weddings in complete sentences using the vocabulary list.
  3. Students will interview people about weddings and present the findings to the class.

Materials:
  Video tape of a Korean wedding
  Focus Sheets 3-1, 3-2 (Aunt Jenny’s Wedding Story)
  Work Sheets 3-1, 3-2, 3-3, 3-4
  Assessments Sheet 3-1

Warm up:
The teacher plays a videotape of a Korean wedding. When the teacher plays the video for the first time, it is without sound. After the video presentation, the students brainstorm what they think is happening during the wedding. The teacher writes the comments on the board. Then the students watch the video again, with sound. Afterwards, they compare their ideas with what really happened.

Work Chain 1: Wedding Customs
  1. The students form groups of five.
  2. The teacher shows Focus Sheet 3-1 and asks what are the differences and similarities between the two pictures.
  3. The teacher hands out Work Sheet 3-1.
  4. The students discuss in groups and fill out Work Sheet 3-1.
  5. Each group presents its findings to the class and the other groups add more to their Work Sheet 3-1 (Venn Diagram) while they listen to the group presentation.
Work Chain 2: Speaking about a Wedding in Complete Sentences Using the Vocabulary List
1. The teacher tells about Aunt Jenny’s Wedding Story.
2. The students listen carefully, take notes, and summarize the story.
3. The teacher hands out Work Sheet 3-2, and students fill out the answers from their notes.
4. The teacher checks the students’ understanding about the story based on the students’ Work Sheet 3-2.
5. The teacher hands out the Aunt Jenny’s Wedding Story and asks the students to list some vocabulary words that are related to weddings.
6. The students make a vocabulary list (Work Sheet 3-3) related to weddings.
7. The students speak in complete sentences to the class using the vocabulary list.

Work Chain 3: Interview People about Weddings
1. The teacher asks the students to interview people in their neighborhoods who are from different countries about weddings in their countries.
2. The teacher hands out the Work Sheet 3-4 (interview questions) to the students.
3. The students may add their own questions when they interview their neighbors.
4. The students write the neighbors’ answers on the paper as a reference for a later presentation.
5. The students present the interview contents in the class.

Assessment:
Formative
1. During Work Chain 3-4, the teacher observes students’ participation and speaking skills.

Summative
1. The teacher assesses the students’ compare-and-contrast skills about wedding customs by analyzing Work Sheet 3-1 (Refer to Assessment Sheet 3-1).
2. The teacher assesses the students’ comprehension about Aunt Jenny’s Wedding Story by analyzing Work Sheet 3-2.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Points</th>
<th>Situation of learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>Very good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Keep trying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Needs effort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-0</td>
<td>Needs more effort</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. The teacher assesses the students' vocabulary about weddings using Work Sheet 3-3.
Focus Sheet 3-1

Wedding Pictures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Korean Wedding Costume</th>
<th>American Wedding Costume</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><img src="image1.png" alt="Korean Wedding Costume" /></td>
<td><img src="image2.png" alt="American Wedding Costume" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><img src="image3.png" alt="Korean Wedding Costume" /></td>
<td><img src="image4.png" alt="American Wedding Costume" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><img src="image5.png" alt="Korean Wedding Costume" /></td>
<td><img src="image6.png" alt="American Wedding Costume" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Work Sheet 3-1

Compare and Contrast

Name of Student:

Write the differences and similarities between the two country's wedding customs.

Korean Costume                  Both                  American Costume

Colorful                        Beautiful            Black and white
Aunt Jenny was getting married. Ginger was to be her junior bridesmaid.
“Is that like a flower girl?” Ginger asked.
“Not exactly,” Aunt Jenny said. “Instead of scattering rose petals along the path, you will carry flowers and be dressed just like my bridesmaids. You will look like a princess!”

“She’ll look like an ape in a dress,” Ginger’s brother, Ben, said with a snort.
“Oh, Ben,” Aunt Jenny said sweetly, “Your mother agreed to let you be our junior usher. You’ll be such a handsome boy in a tuxedo.”

Ginger laughed as Ben’s mouth dropped open.
Aunt Jenny turned back to her niece. “Ginger, you can choose the color of your dress: yellow or light green.”
Ginger chose green. Ben went outside to shoot hoops, but Ginger stayed to listen to Aunt Jenny talk to her mother about the wedding.

Aunt Jenny and Ginger’s mother, who was also Aunt Jenny’s sister, talked about going on a diet. They talked about choosing the flavor of the wedding cake, and whether to have the guests throw birdseed or blow bubbles.

“Oh, Michelle,” Aunt Jenny finally said to Ginger’s mother, “There are so many things to worry about. How will I ever decide what I want?”
Ginger quickly said, “I know! Get a chocolate cake, and we’ll blow bubbles!” When her mother and aunt laughed, she decided to keep quiet.

The wedding day arrived like a special holiday. The church was decorated with flowers, ribbons, and candles, and the gift table was covered with presents of all sizes. The tall, fancy cake sat like a prize in the middle of a table. Ginger admired all of the beautiful things.

“I don’t understand why I have to wear a flower!” she heard Ben say.

Their mother replied, “All the men in the wedding are wearing one. Now stand still!”
“If I had known about this, I would have stayed home,” Ben
grumbled. Aunt Jenny rushed out of the dressing room with a broken fingernail. Ginger's mother hurried off to find a nail file.
## Work Sheet 3-2

### Comprehension Check

**Name of student:**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1.</strong> Who was getting married?</td>
<td><strong>2.</strong> What color did Ginger choose for her dress?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3.</strong> How many roses did Ginger get?</td>
<td><strong>4.</strong> What were Ginger and her brother going to pass out to the wedding guests?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5.</strong> What kinds of items were used to decorate the church?</td>
<td><strong>6.</strong> What were the topics of conversation between Aunt Jenny and Ginger's mother?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each /10 pts. (Total 60 pts.)
Work Sheet 3-3

Vocabulary Lists about Wedding

Name of Student:

Each /10 pts. (Total 60 pts.)
Name of Student:

Name of Interviewee:

1. What country are you from?

2. Do you have weddings in your country?

3. How do you celebrate weddings?

4. What kind of clothes do you wear?

5. Are marriages arranged by your families or are they "love" marriages?

6. How long does a wedding last?

7. Do you have a reception or some other event after the marriage ceremony?

8. Who is invited to a wedding?
Assessment Sheet 3-1

Teacher Assessment Rubric

Name of Student:

During Work Chain 3-1, the student...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>3. writes more than five differences and similarities.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. writes at least three differences and similarities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. writes one difference and similarity, or writes none.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During Work Chain 3-4, the student...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>3. confidently presents interview results without any errors.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. presents interview results with little hesitation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. hesitates to speak out and has a hard time making complete sentences.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Evaluation Key

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Needs improvement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comments:
Lesson Plan Four

Halmoni and the Picnic

Level: Elementary EFL grades 3-6, Speech Emergence level

ESL Standard:
Goal 1, Standard 1, 2
Goal 2, Standard 1, 2

Objectives:
1. Students will acquire knowledge about Korean culture.
2. Students will speak about kimbap in complete sentences using descriptive words.
3. Students will make a "Thank-you" card.

Materials:
Work Sheets 4-1, 4-2, 4-3
Assessment Sheets 4-1

Warm up:
The teacher asks the students what their favorite place is for a picnic. The teacher also asks students what kinds of food they will prepare for the picnic. After then, the teacher invites the students to review the story "Halmoni and the Picnic" which they read last time.

Work Chain 1: Knowing the Korean Culture
1. The teacher asks several questions based on the story they read last time.
2. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 4-1 to the students and they fill out the blanks based on their understanding about cultural differences between America and Korea.
3. Students share their answers with their friends

Work Chain 2: Speaking about kimbap in Complete Sentences Using the Vocabulary List
1. The teacher passes students a sample of kimbap.
2. The teacher asks students to describe kimbap.
3. Students describe the shape of kimbap and its taste.
4. The teacher writes down students' descriptive vocabulary on the board.
5. Students write a sentence using descriptive words on Work Sheet 4-2.
6. The students speak in complete sentences to the class using descriptive words.

Work Chain 3: Making a Thank-You Card
1. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 4-3 and tells the students that they are going to pretend to be Yunmi's friends.
2. Students make a thank-you card that Helen or one of Yunmi's other classmates might send to Halmoni. If the students have a hard time understanding how to make a thank-you card, the teacher can explain the directions in Korean.
3. Students share their thank-you cards with their friends.

Assessment

Formative
1. During Work Chain 4-2, teacher observes students' participation and their understanding of vocabulary words through their presentation.

Summative
1. The teacher evaluates the students' understanding of cultural differences between America and Korea by analyzing Work Sheet 4-1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th># of right answers</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7-6</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-4</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-2</td>
<td>Needs improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-0</td>
<td>Study harder</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Teacher asks some questions using Assessment Sheet 4-1 to check the students' achievement of three objectives.
Work Sheet 4-1

Different Countries and Different Cultures

Name of Student:

Read the sentences below. If you think the sentence describes Korean culture, write K on the line. If you think the sentence describes American culture, then write A on the line.

1. You must not call out to grown-ups. _____
2. It is OK to look grown-ups in the eye when you speak to them. _____
3. It is rude to look grown-ups in the eye when you speak to them. _____
4. People use chopsticks when they eat. _____
5. It is polite to say hello to grown-ups. _____
6. People use a knife and fork when they eat. _____
7. It is not rude to call grown-ups by their names. _____

Each /10 pts. (Total 70 pts.)
Name of Student:
Let’s write three sentences that describe *kimbap*.

1.

2.

3.
Work Sheet 4-3

Thank You, Halmoni!

Name of Student:

Let’s make a “Thank-you” card for Yunmi’s Halmoni.
### Assessment Sheet 4-1

#### What I Have Learned

**Name of Student:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Well</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I can describe a cultural difference between America and Korea.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can write a sentence to describe <em>kimbap</em>.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can make a thank-you card to thank Halmoni for coming to the picnic and bringing <em>kimbap</em>.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Besides that; I know...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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146
Lesson Plan Five

Thanksgiving Celebration

Level: Elementary EFL grades 3-6, Speech Emergence level

ESL Standard:
  Goal 1, Standard 1, 2
  Goal 2, Standard 1, 2

Objectives:
1. Students will become familiar with American Thanksgiving and Korean Chusok.
2. Students will be able to describe activities during Thanksgiving and Chusok with a graphic organizer.
3. Students will compare and contrast Thanksgiving and Chusok with mediated structures.

Materials:
  Focus Sheets 5-1, 5-1, Work Sheets 5-1, 5-2, 5-3
  Assessment Sheet 5-1.

Warm up: Involving Student’s Background Knowledge
The teacher shows several Thanksgiving cards and asks who knows Thanksgiving customs of other countries. Let students share what they know for a while.

Work Chain 1: Becoming Familiar with Thanksgiving and Chusok
1. The students form groups of five.
2. The teacher invites them to read an American Thanksgiving story (Focus Sheet 5-1).
3. After reading Focus Sheet 5-1, each group discusses what they learn from the Focus Sheet 5-1.
4. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 5-2, which is a Korean Chusok celebration story.
5. After reading Focus Sheet 5-2, each group shares their findings with friends.

Work Chain 2: Describing Activities of Thanksgiving and Chusok
1. The teacher distributes Work Sheets 5-1 and 5-2.
2. Each group notes activities of Thanksgiving and Chusok based on their reading of Focus Sheet 5-1 and 5-2.
3. Each group writes them down in a spider map (Work Sheets 5-1 and 5-2).
4. Each group describes their findings to other groups.

Work Chain 3: Comparing and Contrasting Thanksgiving and Chusok with Mediated Structures.
1. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 5-3.
2. Each group notes similarities and differences between the two countries.
3. Each group writes them down in mediated structures (Work Sheet 5-3).
4. Each group presents their finds to other groups.

Assessment:
1. Using Assessment Sheet 5-1, students check their cultural awareness of American Thanksgiving and Korean Chusok.
2. The teacher assesses the students compare-and-contrast skills by analyzing Work Sheet 5-3.
Focus Sheet 5-1

Knowing about American Thanksgiving

The First Thanksgiving
The Pilgrims were thankful for their harvest at the first Thanksgiving and to the Indians for teaching them to grow crops.

The first Thanksgiving was a big three-day party. It was held outside because the Pilgrims did not have a building large enough for 140 people to eat in. They ate many different kinds of foods at the first Thanksgiving. Some of the things they ate were deer, turkey, fish, squash, corn, and other vegetables.

The Pilgrims and Indians played games, read stories, went to church and ate for three days. Our Thanksgiving is held for one day and we usually spend time with our family and friends. It is a time when people are thankful for the many blessings they have.

Thanksgiving Day Today
The date for Thanksgiving Day has been changed several times, but it is now celebrated as a national holiday all over the United States on the fourth Thursday of November.

Thanksgiving Day is a happy occasion when members of a family like to get together and share a big meal. The theme is thankfulness for peace and plenty, and the happiness of family life during the past year.

The Thanksgiving Day is filled with an abundance of food, including roast turkey with cranberry sauce and pumpkin pie. Some families prepare for the celebration days in advance, others attend Thanksgiving services at church, and often sporting events are arranged. Football games are either attended, or watched in television, and have become a major part of Thanksgiving in America.

Thanksgiving Symbols
Of all the Thanksgiving symbols the turkey has become the most well known. The turkey has brown features with buff-colored feathers on the tips of the wing and on the tail. The male turkey is called a tom, and as with most birds, is bigger and has brighter and more colorful plumage. The female is called a hen and is generally smaller and drab in color. The tom turkey has a long wattle (a fleshy, wrinkled, brightly colored fold of skin hanging from the neck or throat) at the base of its bill.
and additional wattles on the neck, as well as a prominent tuft of bristles resembling a beard projecting downward from its chest.

The turkey was originally domesticated in Mexico, and was brought into Europe early in the 16th century. Since that time, turkeys have been widely raised because of the excellent quality of their meat and eggs. Some of the common breeds of turkey in the United States are the Bronze, Narragansett, White Holland, and Bourbon Red. Though there is no real evidence that turkey was served at the Pilgrim’s first thanksgiving, in a book written by the Pilgrim’s Governor Bradford he does make mention of wild turkeys. In a letter sent to England, another Pilgrim describes how the governor sent “four men out fowling” returning with turkeys, ducks and geese.

Knowing about Korean Chusok

Chusok, also known as the Korean Thanksgiving, is held on the 15th day of the 8th lunar month. Chusok means a great day in the middle of August. It occurs during the harvest season. Thus, Korean families take this time to thank their ancestors for providing them with rice and fruits.

The celebration starts on the night before Chusok and ends on the day after the holiday. Thus, many Korean families take three days off from work to get together with family and friends.

The celebration starts with a family get-together at which rice cakes called "Songphyun" are served. These special rice cakes are made of rice, beans, sesame seeds, and chestnuts. Then the family pays respect to ancestors by visiting their tombs and offering them rice and fruits. In the evening, children wear their favorite hanbok (traditional Korean clothing) and dance under the bright moon in a large circle. They play games and sing songs. Like the American Thanksgiving, Chusok is the time to celebrate the family and give thanks for their blessings.

Work Sheet 5-1

Describing Activities of American Thanksgiving

Name of Student:

Write the activities of American Thanksgiving using the graphic organizer.
Work Sheet 5-2

Describing Activities of Chusok

Name of Student:

Write the activities of Chusok using the graphic organizer.
Work Sheet 5-3

Compare and Contrast Thanksgiving and Chusok

Name of Student:

American Thanksgiving and Korean Chusok

American

Korean

What is similar?

1.

2.

3.

What is different?

Activities

Food
Assessment Sheet 5-1

Name of Student:

Describe the similarities and differences between Thanksgiving celebrations in America and Chusok in Korea. Write down at least five things.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Similarities</th>
<th>Differences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each /10 pts. (Total 50 pts.)
Lesson Plan Six

New Year Celebration

Level: Elementary EFL grades 3-6, Speech Emergence ELD level

ESL Standard:
- Goal 1, Standard 1, 2
- Goal 2, Standard 1, 2

Objectives:
1. Students will become familiar with the American New Year and Korean New Year celebrations.
2. Students will be able to describe activities of American New Year and Korean New Year celebration with graphic organizer.
3. Students will compare and contrast American New Year and Korean New Year celebrations with mediated structures.

Materials:
- Focus Sheets 6-1, 6-1,
- Work Sheets 6-1, 6-2, 6-3
- Assessment Sheet 6-1

Warm up: Involving Student’s Background Knowledge
The teacher shows American New Year celebration posters and asks who knows about New Year celebrations in other countries. If there are some students who know about it, let them share the story for a while.

Work Chain 1: Becoming Familiar with American and Korean New Year Celebrations
1. The students form groups of five.
2. The teacher invites them to read about the American New Year Celebration (Focus Sheet 6-1).
3. After reading Focus Sheet 6-1, each group discusses what they learned from Focus Sheet 6-1.
4. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 6-2, which is a story about the Korean New Year celebration.
5. After reading Focus Sheet 6-2, each group shares their findings with friends.

Work Chain 2: Describing Activities of American New Year celebration and Korean New Year celebration
1. The teacher distributes Work Sheets 6-1 and 6-2.
2. Each group notes activities of American and Korean New Year celebrations based on their reading of Focus Sheets 6-1 and 6-2.
3. Each group writes them down in a spider map (Work Sheets 6-1 and 6-2).
4. Each group describes their finding to other groups.

Work Chain 3: Comparing and Contrasting American and Korean New Year Celebration with a Mediated Structure.
1. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 6-3.
2. Each group notes similarities and differences between the two countries.
3. Each group writes them down in a mediated structure (Work Sheet 6-3).
4. Each group presents their finding to other groups.

Assessment:
1. Using Assessment Sheet 6-1, students check their cultural awareness of American and Korean New Year celebration.
2. The teacher assesses the students compare-and-contrast skills by analyzing Work Sheet 6-3.
Knowing about American New Year Celebration

□ New Year’s Eve
On New Year’s Eve, many people hold parties, which last until late into the night. It is traditional to greet the New Year at midnight and celebrate the first minutes of the year in the company of friends and family. People may dance, sing, and drink a toast to the year ahead. After the celebrations, it is time to make New Year resolutions, and these are a list of decisions about how to live in the coming year. Horns are blown at midnight, and people hug and kiss to begin the New Year with much love and happiness.

□ Activities
Typical activities for New Year’s Day are parades, parties, dances, and of course watching parades and football games.

□ Traditional New Year Foods
Traditionally, it was thought that one could affect the luck they would have throughout the coming year by what they did or ate on the first day of the year. For that
reason, it has become common for folks to celebrate the first few minutes of a brand new year in the company of family and friends. Parties often last into the middle of the night after the ringing in of a new year. It was once believed that the first visitor on New Year’s Day would bring either good luck or bad luck the rest of the year. It was particularly lucky if that visitor happened to be a tall dark-haired man.

Traditional New Year foods are also thought to bring luck. Many cultures believe that anything in the shape of a ring is good luck, because it symbolizes “coming full circle,” completing a year’s cycle. For that reason, the Dutch believe that eating donuts on New Year’s Day will bring good fortune.

Many parts of the U.S. celebrate the New Year by consuming black-eyed peas. These legumes are typically accompanied by either hog jowls or ham. Black-eyed peas and other legumes have been considered good luck in many cultures. The hog, and thus its meat, is considered lucky because it symbolizes prosperity. Cabbage is another “good luck” vegetable that is consumed on New Year’s Day by many. Cabbage leaves are also considered a sign of prosperity, being representative of paper currency. In some regions, rice is a lucky food that is eaten on New Year’s Day.

Knowing about Korean New Year Celebration

□ Seolral
New year’s day is called “seol” or “seol ral.” It is a very important holiday. “Seol” means “to be careful,” and some says that it means sadness. Others say that “seol” derives from “nat seol da,” which means to be unfamiliar. New Year’s day can be called “Won Dan,” “Won Il,” “Shin Won,” which are words of Chinese origin. It’s also called “jung wol cho harut nal.” “Jung wol” means “January.” “Cho,” “the first,” “harut nal,” “first day.” These are solely Korean words.

□ What do people do in the Lunar New Year’s Day?
What are the common factors in Korean holidays? “Chesa” or the offering to ancestors: These offerings in holidays are called “chare” because it is served with liquors and teas. New Year’s Day is no exception. Women get busy preparing the food from the previous day. They make “ttok,” “garettok,” (fried meats). They buy fruits, clean fish and so on. They spend almost the entire day in the preparations. Nowadays even the dumplings are made at home. The food prepared the day before is placed on the altar. The difference is that instead of rice, as in any other “chesa,” on “seolnal,” “ttokuk” is on the offering table.
□ New Year’s Day costumes
Let’s see what they do in the morning of “seolnal.” Very early in the morning they take a bath and put on the “solbim.” Solbim are new clothes, prepared to wear on seolnal. Usually it is the traditional costume, hanbok.

Family members drink a glass of “gui balki sool,” which is a liquor that is believed to clarify the hearing. They say these liquors enable one to hear clearly all year long.

Then they comes the rite of offering to ancestors. The room must be spotlessly cleaned first, then a screen and a table altar are placed in the room. On that table, several foods are presented. The placement of the food has a certain order.


□ What do People do in Seolnal for Fun?
Kite flying, the yut game, top-spinning, snow sliding, etc. are the usual entertainment. However, the yut game is probably the most popular among them. Yut is one of the traditional Korean games that can be played anywhere. It’s especially popular on New Year’s Day. It is customary to play this game from New Year’s day until January 15. The yut game has four sticks. It looks like this.
What to Eat on Seolnal?
There is a lot to eat on Korean holidays. If you are on a diet, it will be very difficult to avoid the temptation to all the delicious dishes: ttok, meat fritters, dried persimmons, a variety of walnut, dates, vegetables, traditional cookies, etc. The most representative dish for New Year’s Day is ttokkuk.
Work Sheet 6-1

Describing Activities of American New Year

Name of Student:

Write the activities of American New Year in the graphic organizer.
Work Sheet 6-2

Describing Activities of Korean New Year

Name of Student:

Write the activities of Korean New Year in the graphic organizer.
Compare and Contrast American and Korean New Year Celebration

Name of Student:

American and Korean New Year

What is similar?

1. 
2. 
3. 

What is different?

Activities

Food
Assessment Sheet 6-1

Name of the Student:

Describe the similarities and differences between American and Korean New Year's celebrations. Write down at least five things.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Similarities</th>
<th>Differences</th>
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</thead>
</table>

Each/10 pts. (Total 50 pts.)
### Assessment Sheet 6-2

**Teacher Assessment Rubric**

**Name of Student:**

During Work Chain 6-3, the student

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>3. writes more than three differences and similarities.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. writes at least two differences and similarities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. writes one difference and similarity or writes none.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During Work Chain 6-1 and 6-2, the student

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>3. confidently presents his/her findings without any errors.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. presents his/her findings with little hesitation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. hesitates to speak out and has a hard time making complete sentences.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Evaluation Key**

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<th>Number</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Needs improvement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comments:**
REFERENCES


