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Staff development for whole-language teacher in Taiwan English as a foreign language

Chung-ju Lai

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STAFF DEVELOPMENT FOR WHOLE-LANGUAGE TEACHER IN TAIWAN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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

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

by
Chung-ju Lai
March 2004
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Approved by:

Lynne Diaz-Rico, First Reader

Barbara M. Flores, Second Reader

Date

March 12, 2004
ABSTRACT

Whole-language teaching and learning has been a trend in Taiwan after the Taiwan government implemented an overall education reform in the year 2000. Therefore, this project explores the philosophy of Whole Language as a method by which to develop students’ language proficiency in both Chinese and English.

Chapter One of this curriculum design project addresses the prospects and current practice of English teaching and learning in kindergarten and primary-level instruction. Chapter Two represents the concepts of transfer, whole-language philosophy and its related teaching methods, learner-centered literacy, crosscultural teaching and learning, and school administration. In Chapter Three, a theoretical framework for training whole-language teachers is provided. Chapter Four presents the overall design of the instructional unit. Next, whole-language practices of assessment are introduced in Chapter Five. Finally, one unit of lessons based on the theoretical framework is included in Appendix B.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

English is important to the Taiwanese people. From an economic perspective, English is the bridge for Taiwanese people to communicate with people from foreign countries. Furthermore, English is an international language and is used in most enterprises when people do business with foreign companies. Therefore, people who have strong English abilities in Taiwan can find well-paying jobs. From an educational perspective, advanced training abroad usually takes place in English-speaking countries. Schools in these countries also determine the required proficiency levels for English in assessing students' English abilities, norms that are widely accepted in Taiwan.

Additionally, educational policy in Taiwan reflects the importance of the English language. For the past five decades, English has been a required course in junior high school, senior high school, and at the university level. Students' English proficiency is tested in a National Entrance Exam. Moreover, the Taiwan government made an overall education reform of grade level in the year 2000. Before the year 2000, the education system was divided into five basic sections, elementary school (grades 1-6),
junior high school (grades 7-9), senior high school (grades 10-12), university, and graduate school. Students had English instruction when they entered junior high school.

However, recent education reforms have put elementary school and junior high school together under a new curriculum. In the new Grade-1-to-9 curriculum, English has become a compulsory course from the third grade. For some counties and cities in Taiwan, the local government even starts English instruction from the first grade. These important reforms in English learning have created a trend for parents to send their children to private English-learning institutions called “cram” schools.

Because of the above reasons for students to learn English, most students find English uninteresting and boring. English is not a language for communication but a subject to be tested in school. In class, the grammar-translation method is the most common teaching technique. Traditionally, teachers ask students to recite grammatical rules and vocabulary words. The English content of textbooks is translated into Chinese as teachers explain it. Moreover, the whole focus in the competence of English learning is on reading and writing skills. Students do not acquire speaking and listening skills. Thus, when students learn English
as a foreign language (EFL) in Taiwan, they are required to remember grammatical rules and vocabulary words rather than being immersed in an English-speaking environment. Therefore, even when most students have taken at least six year of English instruction, they find their mouths shut tight when they need to talk to English speakers.

The Current State of Teaching English in Kindergarten

Educators, teachers, parents, and students have recognized the disadvantages of, and imperfection in, the old curriculum after observing the actual situation when adults and students communicate with English speakers. Therefore, the new Grade-1-to-9 curriculum not only implements English as a subject from the third grade but also changes the focus from reading and writing skills to speaking and listening skills. However, this different perspective is like a newborn baby. Educators, teachers, and students now need to incorporate new kinds of teaching methods. The issue of what best suits an English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) learner is currently controversial.

Lately, after implementing the new Grade-1-to-9 curriculum, teachers have experienced a new issue that needs to be discussed. Because students spend time on learning English, the time for them to develop their Chinese proficiency has been reduced. Some
teachers claim that it is easy to tell that students' Chinese proficiency has been neglected.

**Target Teaching Level: Kindergarten to Second Grade**

I plan to teach kindergarteners to second graders in Taiwan. I believe it is important for students to recognize English as a communicative tool and to be immersed in the English-speaking environment before they are forced to face the pressure of the Academic Attainment Testing (which was previously called the National Entrance Exam). A special concern of mine is to develop students’ English proficiency through their prior knowledge of their first language (Chinese) and through a natural, pressure-free learning environment.

Although I have not had any English teaching experience, it is really an interesting and challenging prospect for me. From observing the strategies students use to learn English and its conventional usages in the United States, I am inspired to believe that learning a second language offers me a chance to know more about other cultures and the world. Learning itself should be joyful and interesting, and not rote and boring.

**Purpose of the Project**

The purpose of this project is to explore the philosophy of Whole Language and its related teaching methods to develop
student's language proficiency in both Chinese and English. By the use of certain strategies compatible with whole-language philosophy, teachers can help students learn a new language as they continue to achieve proficiency in their native language. In the project, the concept of "transfer" is explained. Whole-language teachers are able to apply students' background knowledge of their first language when teaching the target language. Also, through crosscultural learning, students are able to reconcile their native culture with the target culture. Learning a second language is no longer simply learning grammar and doing drill and practice. It uses authentic materials drawn from the culture of the target language (English).

One special concern in this project is school administration. Among different aspects of school administration, staff development is one of the most important parts in human resource management. Therefore, this project provides curriculum as an example for teachers to apply concepts such as metacognition, critical thinking, and self-regulation into daily teaching lesson plans.

The goal of this project is to provide educators and teachers deeper explanations of Whole Language and the relationship between learners' first language (Chinese) and second language
(English). By learning how languages are acquired, teachers are able to use students' existing knowledge in Chinese to teach English as a foreign language. Thus, students can learn for themselves and enjoy the beauty of both languages.

Content of the Project

Chapter One introduces the background of the project, explaining the importance of learning English as a foreign language in Taiwan. Through explanation of the social and political aspects of English teaching, this chapter represents the need to seek clarification of the concept of transfer, whole-language philosophy and its related teaching methods, learner-centered literacy, crosscultural teaching and learning, and school administration. Chapter Two reviews relevant literature about the five themes addressed above. Chapter Three provides reasons and strategies for teachers to apply the findings of Chapter Two into English instruction in Taiwan. Chapter Four presents the curriculum as an example to demonstrate how teachers can apply new knowledge learned from staff development programs into their lesson plans. The assessment of this sample curriculum is outlined in Chapter Five.
Significance of the Project

In a globally conscious country like Taiwan, teachers, educators, and parents are devoted to seeking professional English instruction for students. Therefore, the purpose of the curriculum design project is to improve EFL teachers' knowledge of whole-language philosophy and its related teaching strategies and methods. Also, from the aspect of school administration, this project presents a curriculum that is designed to incorporate whole-language instruction and concepts such as metacognition, critical thinking, and self-regulation in staff development and training programs.
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Transfer/Cross-linguistic Influence

In the second-language acquisition (SLA) field, various researchers have sought to delineate the rules or methods learners use in second-language learning. The role of the native language has become important in SLA research. Therefore, one of the subfields of SLA is the study of language transfer, examining the relationship between first language (L1) and second language (L2). Language transfer is the term used to describe the process of language learners applying their background knowledge from their L1 when learning L2. In order to recognize what transfer is and how transfer occurs, the following subsections will focus on the background and definition of transfer, the occurrence of transfer, and the classification of transfer outcomes.

The Background and Definition of Transfer

The concept of transfer is derived from literature on the psychology of learning. Behaviorism, one of the most celebrated theories in psychology, supported the original concept of transfer. Gass and Selinker (2001) explain transfer as "... the psychological process whereby prior learning is carried over into
a new situation” (p. 66). In behaviorism, the term “transfer” described the transfer of behaviors and habits from one situation to another. For example, people who know how to ride bicycles will tend to use their experiences and habits when they first learn how to ride motor scooters. They pick up new skills by applying their prior habits and behavior when riding bicycles.

Some observations about what transfer is not are appropriate before any observations are made about what transfer is. Odlin (1989) consolidated four points of what transfer is not in his book *Language Transfer: Cross-linguistic Influence in Language Learning*. First, he pointed out that “Transfer is not simply a consequence of habit formation” (p. 25).

In the discussion of language learning, the meaning of transfer has been extended to refer not only to the transfer of behaviors and habits but also the usages and production of language itself. Odlin pointed out, “...the behaviorist notion of transfer often implies the extinction of earlier habits, whereas the acquisition of a second language need not (and normally does not) lead to any replacement of the learners’ primary language” (p. 25). Second, he stated, “Transfer is not simply interference” (p. 26). The results of the transfer process are classified into interference (also known as negative transfer) and facilitation
(also known as positive transfer). (There will be more discussion about the results of transfer in the following paragraphs.) Next, "Transfer is not simply a falling back on the native language" (Odlin, 1989, p. 26). Krashen (as cited by Odlin) claimed the following:

Transfer... can still be regarded as padding, or the result of falling back on old knowledge, the L1 rule, when new knowledge... is lacking. Its cause may simply be having to talk before "ready," before the necessary rule has been acquired. (Odlin, 1989, p. 26)

Finally, Odlin stated, "Transfer is not always native language influence" (p. 27). Most probably, when learners have knowledge of three or more languages, these languages can lead to three or more different kinds of language influences. Finally, Odlin gives a working definition of transfer: "Transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired" (p. 27).

Although there were many controversial issues about using the term "transfer" to explain the L2 learning process, it is now generally accepted that transfer does occur. However, in the current thinking about transfer, it is understood that transfer
encompasses complex phenomenon and reasons, and is not the only reason for errors.

Occurrence of Transfer

Transfer occurs consciously and unconsciously. Benson (2002) explained that learners use transfer "... consciously, as a deliberate communication strategy, where there is a gap in the learner's knowledge" (p. 69). Then, at the unconscious level, transfer occurs when the correct form is not known by learners or it has been learned but has not been completely automatized (Benson, 2002).

Also, transfer may occur at all levels, such as phonology, syntax, lexis, pragmatics, and morphology (Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000). In phonology, learners may have a "foreign accent" when they transfer pronunciation from their native language. Word-for-word translation happens easily when learners do not know the correct word order in the sentence. For example, Chinese learners of English may deliver a sentence like, "I very much like your articles."

Benson offered an example of false cognates in the lesicon. She explained that false cognates happen when "... the learners incorrectly assume that an L2 word has the same meaning as a similar L1 word" (p. 69). For instance, a Spanish speaker may
use the word "embarrassed" to mean "pregnant" since "embarrassed" is much like the word "embarazada" in Spanish.

Lessow-Hurley (2000) also pointed out that "Reading is an illustration of an area where there is significant transfer of behaviors, skills, knowledge, and attitudes from one language to another" (p. 62). Through reading activities, teachers can observe students having the transferring process consciously and unconsciously.

A Classification of Transfer Outcomes

The outcomes of transfer can be divided into different sections: 1) positive transfer, 2) negative transfer, 3) different learning rate, 4) different learning path, and 5) avoidance. First, Gass and Selinker (2001) stated the definition of positive language transfer:

The use of the first language (or other languages known) in a second language context when the resulting second language form is correct. (p. 457)

In other words, positive transfer is indicated by the result of the transfer process. When the transfer result is correct or conventional, it is a positive transfer.

Negative language transfer, on the other hand, refers to whether transfer results in something incorrect. For example,
in Chinese, people construct interrogative sentences by adding a particle/expletive character at the end of the sentences:

"Ni shih shyue sheng ma?"
You are student (question particle)
"Are you a student?"

Therefore, when native Chinese speakers learn English as a second or foreign language, they would not expect to change the sentence order as English does to form an interrogative sentence. The result of the transfer may be an error, and is thus a negative language transfer.

Another perspective on transfer is differential learning rate. Learning is either delayed or accelerated in L2 learning. First, in the delayed situation, Benson (2002) stated that "...learners whose L1 contains a particular form spend longer at that stage of development than L1 learners or learners whose L1 does not contain that form" (p. 68). For example, Chinese learners of English spend much time in the stage of practicing the use of the third person inflectional morpheme "s." What causes the learners to spend a long amount of time in this stage is that there are no alterations of verbs to meet the subject-verb agreement in Chinese sentences. On the contrary, Spanish learners of English spend a shorter amount of time picking up the
grammatical rule of adding the inflectional morpheme "s" after the third person verb because the Spanish language has a similar grammatical structure. In another example, one of the most common usage errors on the part of Chinese speakers of English is the use of demonstrative pronouns in place of using articles before nouns. In order not to make mistakes in producing the target language, learners often try to stick with the usage about which they feel sure. In situations like this, however, their native language experiences lead them down different, and perhaps incorrect, paths.

Avoidance is another aspect of transfer. In the process of transfer, language learners may employ a learning strategy of avoidance instead of using significantly different sentence structure in L2 where the structure does not exist in their L1. In other words, the differences between L1 and L2 are the major reason for avoidance. Benson (2002) gave an example of avoidance from Chinese and Japanese English learners. In Chinese and Japanese, the relative clause does not exist as a sentence structure, so many Chinese and Japanese learners of English use fewer relative clauses then do learners whose languages do have relative clauses. On the other hand, if two languages are too similar, learners may still have avoidance in production. In this
case, learners avoid certain language usages because they may doubt the similarities are real.

By examining the background and definition of transfer, the occurrence of transfer, and the classification of transfer outcomes, teachers and educators can further understand transfer. Transfer encompasses complex phenomena and reasons and it is not the only reason for errors. Teachers who recognize transfer in language learning process can get a better understanding of students' utterances and errors.

Whole Language

For the past few decades, grammar translation was the most common teaching method used for English instruction in Taiwan. Traditionally, teachers asked students to recite grammatical rules and vocabulary words. The English content of textbooks was translated into Chinese as teachers went through line by line and explained it. Moreover, the whole focus in the competence of English learning was based on reading and writing skills. Students did not acquire enough training in speaking and listening skills. However, after the whole-language revolution of education in the United States in the 1980's, the philosophy of whole language began to grow in popularity across Taiwan. Simultaneously, an education reformation started spreading
through Taiwan as early as 1997. The concept of student-centered/learner-centered curricula has become widely accepted by teachers and educators.

The philosophy of whole language and its practical teaching principles offered teachers in Taiwan a new direction to view education. For those reasons, it is important to examine the philosophy of whole language and its academic support. Readers can find the philosophy of whole language, the definition of whole language, the practices of whole language in school and in developing literacy, and the role of assessment/evaluation in a whole-language program in the following sections.

Language and Language Learning

In order to identify what whole language is, the first step is to examine language itself. Ken Goodman (1986), considered the father of whole language, described the usage of language in his book, *What's Whole in Whole Language*:

Language begins as a means of communication between members of the group. Through it, however, each developing child acquires the life view, the cultural perspective, the ways of meaning particular to its own culture. As children master a specific language, they also come to share a specific culture and its value.
Language makes it possible to link minds in an incredibly subtle and complex manner. (p. 11)

Besides the function of sharing culture, language is also personal and interpersonal. Everyone owns language and, in the process of developing language, adjusts usage of language to fit into the family, school, and society. Also, language consists of a set of systematic symbols. Humans attach meaning to these symbols and use these meanings to communicate with each other. If people want language to function, they have to agree with the meaning that is derived from the symbols. Thus, the meanings from the symbols can be adjusted, modified, and changed. Goodman (1986) stated that people also need systems of organizing symbols. He stated, "...so that they (the systems) represent not just things, feelings, and ideas but also dynamic links: how events happen, why they happen, how they affect us, and so on. Language must have system as well as symbols, orders and rules for producing it, so the same rules can be used for comprehending it" (p. 13).

As to the process of language learning, Newman (1985) stated the following:

Language development, then, seems to have the following characteristics. Language learning begins with immersion in an environment in which language is
being used in purposeful ways. The environment is rich with examples of language in action. What aspect of the task will be experienced with, at what pace, and for how long is determined largely by the child. (pp. 58-59)

Goodman (1986) also brought up two basic concepts. First, the function of language comes before the form of language. Children learn to talk comprehensibly before they understand and control the sounds of the language. And they produce sentences long before they control the rules of sentence making. Second, language learning is from whole to part. When children utter sentences or a collection of words, they use these to represent meanings. Children do not take sentences apart to analyze the structures or to distinguish the word classes in the sentence before they produce sentences.

Goodman (1986) presented the following description:

Language is actually learned from whole to part. We first use whole utterances in familiar situations. Then later we see and develop parts, and begin to experiment with their relationship to each other and to the meaning of the whole. The whole is always more than the sum of the parts and the value of any part
can only be learned within the whole utterance in a real speech event. (p. 19)

Many parents may wonder why their children can use language well in the authentic world but have problems in academic study. Researchers in whole-language philosophy have found that the study of language in school has been broken down into pieces, and students are required to manage the parts of language, such as phonics and syntax, before they can gain control of the whole. This finding reinforces the basic belief that whole language should be used to put authentic speech and literacy events back into school. In other words, the elements for language development inside and outside the school should remain the same.

The Definition and Philosophy of Whole Language

What is whole language? Is whole language a teaching method of reading? Whole language seems to be a familiar concept with teachers, educators, and even parents, but the problem is whether or not they understand what whole language really is. Freeman and Freeman (1992) explicated whole language by explaining misconceptions about whole language. For example, some teachers may think of whole language as big books or process writing. Indeed, whole language teachers often use big books to introduce reading rather than use basal reading programs.
However, Freeman and Freeman (1992) claimed, "... whole language is not only language arts. Whole language teachers do whole language in all areas of the curriculum" (p. 2). Whole-language teachers integrate language learning across different subjects. Others think whole-language teachers organize their lessons around themes or units. Yet there are still some whole-language teachers who do not organize their lessons around themes. Organizing lessons around themes or not should not be considered a borderline between whole language and conventional instruction.

Another misconception about whole language is that whole-language teachers do not agree with using certain practices and materials. It is true that whole-language teachers tend to use real literature rather than basal reading programs, but it is not the defining character of whole-language teaching. Teachers who believe in whole language but work in a school where teachers are requested to use these basal reading materials and worksheets can still find a way to integrate these materials into a whole-language program.

Finally, some believe that whole-language teachers do not teach the sub-skills of reading such as phonics, syntax, and punctuation. Nevertheless, whole-language teachers choose to
teach these sub-skills through reading and writing activities. They expect students to learn or to recognize these skills naturally and spontaneously. Also, whole-language teachers believe that instruction should be student-centered/learner-centered. Students are active learners in the whole-language classroom, and they should be able to take responsibilities for their acquisition of the target language.

Whole language is not just another teaching method. It is a philosophy of language teaching and learning (Edelsky, Altwerger, Flores, 1991). In the whole-language classroom, there are no specific rules or teaching methods for teachers to follow. There are only principles providing directions in language teaching and learning. Cummins, Lapkin, and Swain (1989) address this topic:

The whole-language approach... is a developmental language model based on the premise that youngsters acquire language (speaking, reading, and writing) as naturally as they learn to walk and talk, when they are invited to engage in self-motivating activities that are stimulating, interesting, social, meaning-based, purposeful, interactive, and most of all enjoyable. (p. 1)
What are the principles of whole language? Goodman (1986) listed two parts: principles for reading and writing and principles for teaching and learning. First, for reading and writing, the principles are as follows:

- Readers construct meaning during reading. They use their prior learning and experience to make sense of the texts.
- Readers predict, select, confirm, and self-correct as they seek to make sense of print.
- Writers include enough information and details so what they write will be comprehensible to their readers.
- Three language systems interact in written language: the graphophonic (sound and letter patterns), the syntactic (sentence patterns), and the semantic (meanings).
- Comprehension of meaning is always the goal of readers.
- Expression of meaning is always what writers are trying to achieve.
- Writers and readers are strongly limited by what they already know, writers in composing, readers in comprehending.

Second, for teaching and learning, the principles are as follows:
• School literacy programs must build on existing learning and utilize intrinsic motivation. Literacy is an extension of natural whole-language learning: it is functional, real, and relevant.

• Literacy develops from whole to part, from vague to precise, from gross to fine, from highly concrete and contextualized to more abstract, from familiar contexts to unfamiliar.

• Expression (writing) and comprehension (reading) strategies are built during functional, meaningful, relevant language use.

• Development of the ability to control the form of reading and writing follows, and is motivated by, the development of the functions for reading and writing.

• There is no hierarchy of sub-skills, and no necessary universal sequence.

• Literacy develops in response to personal/social needs.

• There is no one-to-one correspondence between teaching and learning.

• As teachers monitor and support the development of reading and writing strategies, learners focus on the communication of meaning.
• Risk-taking is essential.
• Motivation is always intrinsic.
• The most important question a teacher can ask a reader or writer is, "Does that make sense?" Learners need to be encouraged to ask the same question of themselves as they read and write.
• Materials for instruction must be whole texts that are meaningful and relevant.
• Away with exercises that chop language into bits and pieces to be practiced in isolation from a whole text!
• Predictability is the real measure of how hard a text is for a particular reader. The more predictable, the easier.
• No materials are acceptable if they divert the attention of writers from expression and readers from comprehension.

The Whole-Language Environment

In a whole-language classroom, students have access to a variety of reading materials such as books, magazines, newspapers, signs, packages, label, and posters. The classroom is a place full of words and information. Immersed in a literate environment, students acquire language naturally and spontaneously. In
addition, teachers also prepare the classroom for writing activities. There are pens, papers, and numerous types of stationery for students to use (Goodman, 1986).

In order to create a whole-language classroom, Wortman and Hauesler (1989) believed that the basic consideration is physical arrangement of the classroom. From the example Wortman and Hauesler (1989) provided, there are five aspects of formative evaluation used to create the naturalistic learning environment. Teachers need to be aware of 1) the use of alternative grouping strategies, 2) optimal use of available space, 3) facilitation of children’s access to a wide range of literacy materials, 4) the use of existing facilities, and 5) teacher selection of literacy materials (Wortman & Hauesler, 1989).

A learning center is another difference from the traditional classroom. The setting (tables and chairs) also varies in whole-language classrooms. Noden and Vacca (1994) provided three examples of classroom settings. The design in Figure 2.1 is an adaptation of a typical classroom. The desks are grouped for different activities in class and the central location of the blackboard allows students to concentrate on mini-lessons or whole-group lessons. The design in Figure 2.2 contains fifteen small tables and three big tables. It allows students to have
group discussions in the big-table area and to work individually in the small-table area. Also, the added couch area provides a comfortable reading place. In Figure 2.3, the advantages from Figure 2.1 and Figure 2.2 are combined.

In these centers, students acquire language by listening, speaking, reading, and writing at the same time. The whole-language activities require students to interact and to work collaboratively. "In a whole-language classroom, learning begins with a student's interactions—interactions with teachers, other students, text, multimedia resources, and other environmental stimuli" (Noden & Vacca, 1994, p. 22).

Whole-language programs emphasize learning via authentic reading and writing; therefore, materials like recreational books are needed. Some "real world" resources like advertisements from the newspaper, TV guides, or phone books are suitable. Goodman (1986) recommended, "Basal readers, sequenced skill programs, or the usual types of instructional materials are really not needed" (p. 33). Teachers can also provide a classroom library including all levels of reading books, short-term collections from the school library, or even student-authored books.
The Practices of Whole Language in Developing Literacy

The literacy development of this project focuses on beginning literacy; the initial program that teachers design to develop learners' proficiency in reading and writing. From the reading aspect, teachers choose predictable books to help students build confidence and self-motivation. Cummins, Lapkin, and Swain (1989) further suggested several whole-language strategies. One of them is "dictated stories." A dictated story is "an oral account of a real or imagined experience composed collaboratively by a group or individual. In the presence of the children, the story is handwritten by the teacher onto a chart, acetate, or into a personal dictation booklet" (Cummins et al., 1989, p. 9). By applying this strategy, teachers are able to help students identify the concept of print and to recognize that words/sentences carry meanings and messages. Also, Suid and Lincoln (1992) described the strategy known as "choral reading." By reading along with a teacher and peers, students feel less stressed about accomplishing reading tasks. Most important of all, whole-language teachers and educators are intent on teaching students that no one is perfect. The key point in reading is on comprehending the content and the meaning, not on perfect reading performance.
Figure 2.1. Rearrangement of a Conventional Classroom for Whole Language Activities (Noden & Vacca, 1994, p. 23)
Figure 2.2. Tables Arranged for Whole Language Activities (Noden & Vacca, 1994, p. 24)
Figure 2.3. A Classroom Designed Exclusively for Process Learning (Noden & Vacca, 1994, p. 25)
From the writing aspect, whole-language teachers believe that learners do not first learn how to write correctly, and then start to use that knowledge. Instruction in writing is also immersed into real literacy events. Whole-language teachers encourage students to get involved in writing events such as writing letters to friends or parents, writing journals, creating a story, writing a reflection on their favorite books, and so on. By doing these activities, students learn conventional spelling, punctuation, forms of writing, or sentence structure little by little. Whole-language teachers then provide space for students to self-correct.

The Assessment/Evaluation in a Whole Language Program

Mickelson (1992) explained, “The basis of our evaluation programs is documented observation as we develop a profile of students’ progress and achievement” (p. 107). From her point of view, the assessment/evaluation of students can be divided into three steps. First, teachers observe the process of students’ actions day by day. How do students interact with peers? Are they developing any reading or writing habits? What sort of progress are the students making now? Second, teachers look at what students actually accomplish. Over a period of time, students may produce their own personal journals or writings.
Teachers assess these works to understand what students have learned. Third, teachers use measurement, both contextualized and decontextualized, to complete students' profiles. Mickelson (1992) stated the following:

Contextualized measures involve assessments that are developed by the teachers and relate directly to what has been specifically taught in the classroom. Unit tests, for example, are included here.

Decontextualized measures are those which have been developed outside the classroom and do not necessarily relate to the school's specific curriculum. Basal reader tests fall into this category. (p. 109)

Among all of these assessment steps, whole-language teachers have to be aware that the results of the assessment are used to examine teachers' teaching. Teachers self-evaluate their teaching according to students' assessment. Moreover, whole-language teachers should never judge and define students' performance by the measurements.

By examining the philosophy of whole language and its practices in classroom and literacy development, it can be said that the whole-language approach is based on making the learning environment full of language and encouraging students to learn
language naturally—as they do outside the classroom. Whole-language teachers, as facilitators, help students to learn and act as masters of that learning.

Learner-centered Literacy

One of the beliefs in whole language is that instruction should be student-centered/learner-centered. This approach is very different from the traditional instruction popular in Taiwan for many years. Traditionally, students in Taiwan played passive roles in the classroom. They were required to accept what teachers taught them and to follow the instruction without questioning. However, with the influence of Western educational philosophy as well as educational reforms across Taiwan, teachers have slowly but surely changed over time. Today's instructors are eager to discover new teaching methods which will benefit their students.

When whole language became a trend in Taiwan in the 1990's, there were increasing questions about learner-centered literacy and how to implement it in the traditional classroom. Because this played such an important role in Taiwanese education, the following paragraphs will address the definition of the learner-centered approach and its psychological background, the design of the learner-centered literature environment, and the
learner-centered curriculum and associated pedagogical techniques.

The Definition of, and Psychological Support for, the Learner-Centered Approach

Many people may equate learner centered with child or student centered. However, McCombs and Whisler (1997) explained the differences between these terms. Child or student centered refers to school or learning practices that apply to learners in school. Their ages may range from two years old to twenty-one or twenty-five. On the other hand, the use of learner-centered instruction or practices can be applied lifelong, without any age or space limitations. McCombs and Whisler (1997) further clarified their definition of a learner-centered approach:

The perspective that couples a focus on individual learners (their heredity, experiences, perspectives, backgrounds, talents, interests, capacities, and needs) with a focus on learning (the best available knowledge about learning and how it occurs, and about teaching practices that are most effective in promoting the highest level of motivation, learning, and achievement for all learners). (p. 9)
In addition to this definition of a learner-centered approach, it is also important to examine the psychological support for it. McCombs and Whisler (1997) listed five factors including twelve principles to describe the psychological substrate of a learner-centered approach. The first kind includes metacognitive and cognitive factors. In the learning process, learners use both metacognition and cognition. They acquire content through different paths, such as reflection from their past experience and the stimulation from new information. Also, learners would think about their own learning and what/how they can do to manage, plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning process. Four principles are addressed under this factor. They are 1) the nature of the learning process, 2) goals of the learning process, 3) the construction of knowledge, and 4) higher-order thinking.

The nature of the learning process is active and volitional and directed toward personal goals. Learners seek to find meaningful goals to motivate them in learning. They use or activate their prior knowledge in constructing new information. Moreover, learners gain knowledge about their own thinking processes. They are aware of their learning preferences and know how to control their learning.
The second sort are affective factors. McCombs and Whisler (1997) explain that these factors are to "describe how beliefs, emotions, and motivation influence the way in which people perceive learning situations, how much people learn, and the effort they are willing to invest in learning" (p. 7). Teachers may need to think about how to stimulate students' learning when the content or the subjects are not relevant and meaningful for learners. Key principles about the affective factors are 1) motivational influence on learning, 2) intrinsic motivation to learn, and 3) characteristics of motivation-enhancing learning tasks. About the first principle, McCombs and Whisler (1997) stated:

The depth and breadth of information processed, and what and how much is learned and remembered, are influenced by (a) self-awareness and beliefs about personal control, competence, and ability; (b) clarity and saliency of personal values, interests, and goals; (c) personal expectations for success or failure; (d) affect, emotion, and general states of mind; and (e) the resulting motivation to learn. (p. 5)
Intrinsic motivation is defined as the belief that learners naturally enjoy learning. However, when learners think about failure or feel shy, the motivation inside the learners may be reduced. Also, in order to sustain learners' motivation to learn, it is important for teachers to create authentic tasks or lessons by using creativity and imagination.

Developmental factors are the third kind. Human beings keep growing and changing over time; therefore, they have different needs for learning in different situations. The developmental factors explain that learners learn best when material is appropriate to their developmental level (McCombs & Whisler, 1997). The principle here is "developmental constraints and opportunities." In the learner-centered classroom or environment, instruction or lessons should be prepared by paying attention to the learner's developmental stage. In this way, learners are able to benefit from the instruction and to reach their optimum performance.

The next aspect is based on personal and social factors. People live in society and receive numerous values from others. Often, what other learners think influences the learners' learning process. Learning how to participate in teamwork and maintaining caring relationships between individuals can help
learners enhance their self-esteem and confidence. Besides the relationships with each learner, McCombs and Whisler (1997) also claimed, "Positive student-teacher relationships define the cornerstone of an effective learning environment—one that promotes both learning and positive self-development" (p. 8).

Two principles within the category of personal and social factors are social and cultural diversity and social acceptance, self-esteem, and learning. Both learners and teachers have to be aware of the diversity of society and culture. Learners will learn more easily when they are flexible and adaptive about being with others of different ages, cultures, and family backgrounds. Moreover, it is believed that respectful and caring attitudes among learners and their teachers can help learners accept the diversity of society and culture.

Finally, as far as individual differences go, individuals’ backgrounds and capabilities influence learning. In addition, individual differences can help to explain the reasons individuals learn things at different times and by different paths. Teachers should also notice two principles about individual differences in learning and cognitive filters. Individual differences make every learner unique and special. Also, learners’ learning processes are influenced by their
internal differences. McCombs and Whisler (1997) explained, "Personal belief, thoughts, and understanding resulting from prior learning and interpretations become the individual's basis for constructing reality and interpreting life experience" (p. 6). According to McCombs and Whisler, these beliefs and understandings form the individual's cognitive filter.

**Designing a Learner-Centered Literature Environment**

Language learning is a natural process. Children utter sentences by observing and imitating adults' conversations. Therefore, in the learner-centered classroom, the teacher's responsibility is to create a similar environment and conditions for learners to acquire language the way they did when they were young. Brain Cambourne (1988) (as cited by Lipton & Hubble, 1997) described seven conditions for teachers to take into account when creating a learner-centered classroom. These conditions are 1) immersion, 2) demonstration, 3) expectation, 4) responsibility, 5) practice, 6) approximation, and 7) feedback.

Looking back to the whole-language approach, it is important for learners to be immersed in an environment full of language. Materials like books, magazines, posters, or displays on the wall should be placed in a learner-centered classroom. Also, in learner-centered instruction, teachers should not overcorrect
learners' utterances. Teachers should demonstrate the conventional usages of language and allow learners to experience the self-correction process (Lipton & Hubble, 1997).

In the explanations of personal and social factors which are addressed in the previous paragraphs, it is believed that learners have complicated relationships with those around them. The expectation from teachers, peers, or schoolmates may enhance or limit learners' learning process. Next, in regards to responsibility, learners also need to take responsibility for their own learning. They decide when, what, and how to learn. In a learner-centered classroom, teachers pay attention to allow for the incorporation of many choices that learners can decide. Learner-centered instruction also provides learners opportunities to practice what they have learned. Lipton and Hubble (1997) explained "approximation":

Error reduction, not error avoidance, is the goal of instruction... Approximation, or process of trial and error as students strive for excellence, allows students to take risks and work confidently in struggling to meet learner challenges. (p. 7)

Finally, learners are encouraged when the feedback is specific and meaningful. Clear feedback gives learners direction
that they can use to maintain their strengths and improve their weaknesses in learning.

Lipton and Hubble (1997) provided some techniques for teachers to build a learner-centered classroom. For the first step, it is clear that immersion in print and modeling the conventions of language use are two important conditions in language learning. Therefore, a teacher can begin creating a learner-centered classroom by labeling everything in the classroom. Through labels, learners can make strong connections between words and objects.

After learners get to know each other better, teachers can set up class mailboxes. In this way, teachers can have learners/students communicate in writing. Still another technique is to encourage learners to collect personal word banks. Teachers can help learners punch holes in index cards that contain the learners’ new vocabulary words and hook them together with a binder ring.

Next, it is a necessity that learners are immersed in a print-rich environment. Students need to be able to access materials or books that they will be able to connect with prior experience and knowledge. For example, Lipton and Hubble (1997) suggested that teachers have learners create a “mainly menus.”
In the mainly menus activity, the whole class can choose and illustrate a meal from the menus collected by teacher or create balanced menus for a week.

Finally, establishing learning centers is an important step for learner-centered classrooms. Learner-centered teachers provide learners opportunities to make decisions on their own. Lipton and Hubble (1997) illustrate how learners make decisions. “Choices include which centers to visit, length of visit, and which activities to complete” (p. 44). Besides the free choices, learners also need to comply with the rules of usage and housekeeping of learning centers. This not only gives learners rights to use the learning centers but also an obligation to keep them in good condition.

Learner-Centered Curriculum

Nunan (1988) stated, “Proponents of learner-centered curricula are less interested in learners acquiring the totality of the language than in assisting them gain the communicative and linguistic skills they need to carry out real-world tasks” (p. 22).

Simply described, a learner-centered curriculum focuses on the instruction of authentic practices and usages of the language. Responding to the whole-language philosophy, a learner-centered
curriculum put efforts on the authentic tasks of instruction. Furthermore, Nunan (1988) pointed out that the development of learner-centered language teaching actually comes with the advent of communicative language teaching. He explained, "... a basic principle underlying all communicative approaches is that learners must learn not only to make grammatically correct, prepositional statements about the experiential world, but must also develop the ability to use language to get things done (p. 25)." A learner-centered curriculum helps learners find the connection between what they are learning and what is important to them as well as the connection between curriculum and life.

There are several instructional techniques for the learner-centered classroom in language learning. First, from the listening and speaking aspect, learners develop speech patterns and conventional language usage by having conversations and listening to their peers, teachers, and adults. In school, the easiest way to enhance learners' listening and speaking proficiency is to have learners learn and work in pairs or in small groups. Lipton and Hubble (1997) suggested some activities such as summary pairs and paired verbal fluency. In summary pairs, learners summarize paragraphs to each other. In the paired verbal fluency, teachers ask learners to choose partners and have each
pair decide who will be person #1 and person #2. During the discussion, partners must listen carefully to each other while taking notes of what they hear. When it is time to switch, the other partner starts addressing his/her points without copying the ideas from partners. Teachers may have several rounds of the discussion and shorten the time limit each time. In this way, learners are required to listen and to speak accurately in the time limit. Papalia (1976) also proposed that conversation should be based on topics of individual interest. Activities like interviewing, role-playing, advertising, and making speeches of “twenty things I like to do” are useful.

For reading comprehension, teachers may elect predictable books for learners to facilitate their learning in the beginning and to build up their confidence. Teachers can also encourage ESL/EFL learners to find out the definition of words in L1. It can help learners to transfer the concept from their prior knowledge in their first language to the target language.

Some lessons based on read-aloud and shared reading can motivate learners to read with pleasure. In order to implement writing in language learning, teachers may create purposeful tasks that allow learners to make reading and writing meaningful. Detailed activities may include writing letters to pen pals,
characters in a book, or friends, and writing books for class publication.

Assessment in the Learner-Centered Classroom

The topic of assessment is very broad and complex. From instructional needs to administrative and accountability needs, assessment is designed to evaluate a learner’s learning and a teachers’ teaching. However, the assessment addressed in this section will focus on the assessment audit, learning assessment plan, and assessment strategies in the classroom.

The Assessment Audit. Trussell-Cullen (1998) explained that teachers need to do an assessment audit to clarify three viewpoints. Teachers have to be able to answer for whom they are doing the assessment. Assessment is made for students, parents, school administrators, district officials, and also for teachers themselves. Teachers need to know why these people need the information. Parents may need the assessment to understand the learning process, and to gauge the level of their children’s proficiency.

School administrators may need the assessment to evaluate the learning program and teachers’ teaching proficiency. Finally, teachers have to recognize what kind of information these people need. Trussell-Cullen (1998) stated, “When we have a clear idea
of what kind of assessment information we are going to be expected to provide, we can start thinking about how we are going to get that information" (p. 33).

The Learning Assessment Plan. After preparing an assessment audit, teachers continue to prepare a learning assessment plan. Four principles were addressed by Trussell-Cullen (1998). First, teachers are dealing with both learning and assessment at the same time. Assessment is part of the learning process and is derived from learning tasks. Second, it is necessary for teachers to plan for a grade range rather than grade by grade. Individuals learn in different paths, at different rates, and even in different orders; therefore, teachers limit their teaching and thinking when they try to limit what learners should learn grade by grade rather than within a grade range.

Next, teachers should plan to go on planning. Although teaching needs to be planned to reach ultimate efficiency, teaching and learning are also unpredictable. Therefore, a flexible and alterable learning assessment plan is essential. Trussell-Cullen (1998) brought up a fourth principle, which indicates that "Planning is only a means to an end, not an end in itself" (p. 42). The value of a good assessment plan is to
help learners and teachers to examine their learning and teaching process.

The first part of preparing a learning assessment plan is for the teacher to list the main subjects that provide the framework for the curriculum. Traditionally, the subjects can be divided into six major categories: language arts, mathematics, science, social science, the arts, and physical education. The next step is to decide the outcome of the learning process. What are the things that teachers want their learners to learn? Answering this question helps teachers to decide what they should teach and assess. Figure 2.4 presents how teachers can follow these steps and sketch a learning assessment plan.

Assessment Strategies. There are six assessment strategies presented by Trussell-Cullen (1998). They are 1) observation, 2) interaction, 3) re-creation, 4) reflection, 5) simulation, and 6) artifact collection. Observation, also known as kid-watching, is the most common strategy in the classroom (Owocki & Goodman, 2002). Teachers observe what learners do in class and they may also record it for future reference. Another strategy is for teachers to have interaction with their students when learning happens.
Teachers can ask students questions, model, encourage, or give feedback during the interaction. Re-creation indicates that teachers help learners get involved in activities such as retelling what happened or changing the tasks to learners' interests. Moreover, the reflection from learners helps them to analyze and measure their learning. Finally, simulation is the strategy teachers use when they create or use an artificial test to assess learners. In all, collecting learners' work over time offer a progressive presentation of learners' learning.

The last part of preparing a learning assessment plan involves teachers needing to decide what assessment tools will be used. There are too many different assessment tools that are available for teachers to take them all into account. Thus, detailed accounting will be omitted in this review.

In this section of the literature review, different components of learner-centered literacy have been scrutinized. By surveying up the psychological background of, and design for, the learner-centered literature environment, and examining the learner-centered curriculum and associated pedagogical techniques, teachers are able to identify what learner-center literacy is and how to implement it in their instruction.
Learning Assessment Plan for the following Grade Range: __________ to __________

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<th>Learning Outcomes</th>
<th>Assessment Strategies</th>
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Figure 2.4. Format for the Learning Assessment Plan (Trussell-Cullen, 1998, p. 45)
Crosscultural Teaching and Learning

One of the major problems for English instruction in Taiwan is that students are not able to communicate with foreigners when they need to. Although most of students have taken English classes in school, they still find themselves tongue-tied when it comes to speaking. They do not really understand the cultures in which English is used. For these students, English is not a language to communicate and share knowledge, but a subject to be tested in school. When students learn English as a foreign language in Taiwan, they are required to remember all the grammatical rules and vocabulary words rather than being immersed in an English-speaking environment. Therefore, students only learn English through grammatical rules and vocabulary words instead of through culture.

In this situation, students in Taiwan generally have difficulties in communicating and in understanding the cultural context of the English communication. In order to solve this problem, it is important for teachers and educators to implement crosscultural teaching into the curriculum. Also, students need to know what culture is and what kinds of cultural qualities characterize their own culture in order to learn the target language and culture.
The Definition of Culture

The term culture can indicate many things. It can refer to different kinds of activities and to distinctive groups in society. Díaz-Rico and Weed (1995) addressed one important idea among different definitions of culture; that is, "... culture involves both observable behaviors and intangibles such as beliefs and values, rhythms, rules, and roles. Culture is the filter through which people see the world" (p. 193).

One of the characteristics of culture is its diversity. Cultural diversity can be reflected in many ways, such as different usages of languages, clothing, food, living styles, and even philosophies. For example, the way people organize space and time may differ across cultures. In English, when native speakers try to write down an address, they tend to write from the smallest units and go toward the larger units. First comes the apartment number, followed by the name of the road, the state, and the country. However, in Chinese culture, the order is just the opposite. Chinese people would start from the country name, then go to the name of the state, the road, and the apartment number. Also, in the organization of time, the same rule is applicable. In English, for example, people would write 10 A.M., March 15 (or 15 March), 2004. On the other hand, Chinese people
arrange the organization of time as 2004, March 15, 10 A.M. (Robinett, 1978). These common examples illustrate the diversity of cultures.

**Relationships Between Culture and Language**

In addition to the linguistic aspects of language, the purpose of language is to communicate with people. Robinett (1978) stated, "... language is a tool of the society that employs it, and the ways in which language is used reflects the culture of that society" (p. 143). It is easy to recognize how closely language reflects culture. In Korean and Japanese, when people talk to elders and to others older than themselves, they use a special form of sentence structure or use a set of respectful vocabulary words to show their deference. In observing this situation, people can easily understand that the elders are very appreciated and respected in the Korean and Japanese societies.

Another relationship between language and culture is that language represents viewpoints about the world of culture. Ervin-Tripp (1964) (as cited by Robinett, 1978) provided a hypothesis, which is, "as language shifts, content will shift." In her study, one Japanese-English bilingual woman provided significantly distinct answers to prove the hypothesis. When the woman was required to complete statement that she heard and read
in both languages, she produced the following sentences:

1. When my wishes conflict with my family...
   (Japanese) it is a time of great unhappiness.
   (English) I do what I want.

2. I will probably become...
   (Japanese) a housewife.
   (English) a teacher.

3. Real friends should...
   (Japanese) help each other.
   (English) be very frank.

(Ervin-Tripp, 1964; as cited by Robinett, 1978, p. 148)

From the example, it seems that by using different languages the subject changes her viewpoint toward the world. Two languages (Japanese and English) bring out different cultural influences and values from the subject.

Learning a Second Language is Learning a Second Culture

Because language has a profound relationship with culture, the best way for learners to understand and to use a second language is to learn the language through its culture. For most international students in the United States, the study-abroad experience is a good opportunity to observe first-hand cultural events in which language is being used. Learners are immersed
in the culture and are able to experience the cultural differences by themselves. On the other hand, if there is no chance for students to have direct cultural experiences to acquire a language (e.g., English as a foreign language teaching in Taiwan), teachers need to provide specific cultural information for students. Materials like magazines, literature, videotapes, and pictures can be used in explaining culture.

In order to interpret culture to speakers of other languages, teachers need to be aware of different cultural behaviors and intangibles. There is one model for teachers to examine themselves before they start teaching. The developmental model of intercultural sensitivity (DMIS) is used to describe stages through which people move in their acquisition of intercultural competence (Bennett & Bennett, 1996). In order to acquire intercultural competence, it is necessary to define intercultural competence. Intercultural competence is "the identification and appreciation of cultural differences, and the development of general strategies for adapting to cultural difference" (Díaz-Rico, 2003).

There are two sets of stages that form DMIS, ethnocentrism and ethnorelativism. In the first set, ethnocentrism is divided into three stages: Denial, Defense, and Minimization. The denial
stage indicates, "people have no construed category of 'cultural difference'" (Díaz-Rico, 2003). They are not only lacking the sense of the cultural difference, but also not aware of their own culture. Second, the Defense stage, "people have become more adept at perceiving cultural difference" (Díaz-Rico, 2003). Other cultures may show their existing reality to people in this stage. However, these people still experience their culture as the only true reality, they tend to hold a defensive position to ward other culture. In the third stage, Minimization, "the threat of Defense has been resolved by assuming a basic identity among all human beings" (Díaz-Rico, 2003).

In second set, ethnorelativism, there are three more stages: Acceptance, Adaptation, and Integration. Acceptance in this article indicates that, "people have discovered their own culture context, and therefore they can accept the existence of different cultural contents" (Díaz-Rico, 2003). People in this stage are more curious about other cultures, and they are willing to seek out more information about the cultural difference between their own culture and other cultures. When it comes to the Adaptation stage, people "...are able to look at the world 'through different eyes' and intentionally change their behavior to communicate more effectively in another culture" (Díaz-Rico, 2003). In the
Integration stage, people are able to extend their experience in culture context and use it to integrate it in their daily life and reality.

Beside the DMIS model, Quintanar-Sarellana (1997) also addressed stages of teachers' cultural awareness. The stages are 1) culturally unaware teachers, 2) transition-stage teachers, and 3) culturally aware teachers. In the first stage, teachers may or may not be aware of differences between the culture of students and the school. Moreover, they generally reject students' language and culture. For those teachers, teaching language is nothing more than a subject in school. Next, transition-stage teachers are those who share their students' language and cultural background and they would try to enrich the curriculum by implementing students' culture (Quintanar-Sarellana, 1997). Finally, in the last stage, culturally aware teachers share and understand students' culture capital. Quintanar-Sarellana (1997) gave a further explanation of these teachers:

These teachers can be characterized as being conscious of the differences between the cultural capital of the students and the school; able to incorporate the students' language and culture in the educational
process; and able to try different teaching techniques and methods that are more appropriate for linguistic minority students. (p. 45)

Once teachers are aware of cultural differences and are trained to incorporate these differences into the curriculum, they can help students to learn the target language through cultural content rather than through grammar and drill practices.

**The Cultural Concepts for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Teachers to Teach**

Before students are placed in crosscultural situations, there are some concepts that teachers should teach to assist students. Gebhard (1996) suggested four concepts: 1) crosscultural communication includes adapting behavior, 2) crosscultural communication involves problem solving, 3) To understand a culture, get to know individuals, and 4) To understand another culture, study your own.

First, when students learn how to communicate with people from other cultures, it is important for them to adjust their behaviors from their native culture. Those behaviors consist of nonverbal and verbal behaviors. In the nonverbal behaviors, Gebhard (1996) stated, "Nonverbal behavior includes kinesics (facial expressions, gaze, and eye management, gesture, touch, and posture, and movement) and proxemics (the use of space, such
as the distance people sit or stand from each other)” (p. 119). For instance, a hug is one kind of kinesics behavior. American people like to hug each other when they meet and leave. However, for most people from Chinese or Japanese culture, the touch of body stops after shaking hands. Teachers may encourage students to share their personal experience and to find out more differences between students’ background culture and the target culture (English/American culture). By immersing themselves in the artificial environment created by teachers, students can practice actual communicative interaction. In comparison to nonverbal aspects of culture, verbal behaviors are easier to control and learn by EFL students. It is important that they learn to follow the rules of speaking. Gebhard (1996) offered categories for rules of speaking:

These include the appropriate ways people interact in social setting, such as how to greet, make promises, approve, disapprove, show regret, apologize, request, complain, give gifts, compliment, invite, refuse an invitation, offer, and thank. (p. 122)

EFL teachers may also provide several types of response sentences in the same communicative setting which allows students to reply.
Next, when the goal of EFL/ESL teaching is to teach students how to interact with nonnative and native speakers in a variety of cultural contexts, teachers can introduce culture through problem-solving activities. Gebhard (1996) stated, “It is through problem solving that our students can go beyond simply collecting interesting knowledge about cultures” (p. 123). By becoming involved in problem-solving activities, students are able to identify and assess the strategies they use in the communicating process.

It is possible for students to learn how to generalize about the cultural values and behaviors of other cultures. However, teachers have to be aware of stereotyping. Even in the same cultural group, individuals can have diversity in values and behavior. The best way for students to learn about another culture is have them understand the generalized concepts of the given culture, and than ask students to observe people they meet. By observing individuals of different cultures, students will learn to induce their personal generalization of culture and to apply different communicative skills and strategies when necessary.

Finally, both teachers and students have to know that it is important to understand the characteristics of their native culture before they examine another culture. People seldom notice
the everyday behaviors and activities that happen around them. In the case of cultural learning, students are most likely not aware of many aspects of their own culture. However, Gebhard (1996) suggested, "By providing students with opportunities to consider how people interact in their own culture, as well as their own individual values and ways of behaving, they can gain the kind of insight useful to them when encountering people from other culture" (p. 127). To teach students about their own cultures, teachers can design cultural lesson plans which allow students to discover the beauty of their culture. Also, teachers may invite professionals to explain unique value or behavior from student' culture.

By presenting these conception of crosscultural teaching and learning, the purpose here is to help students understand their native culture and the target culture. Teaching the target language through its culture help teachers to facilitate students' learning.

School Administration

One particular aspect in this project concerns the administration of a school. Running a school is like running a business. The director of a school has the responsibility of taking care of tasks similar to those of a company manager. In
the beginning of this literature review, the first thing that needs to be clarified is the definition of leadership, management, and administration. Then, as far as business administration, the topic will be divided into five kinds of management, which includes: human resource management, production and operation management, finance management, marketing management, and information management. Therefore, this framework will be used to separate the aspects of which a director/principal should take special note in school administration. More details will be presented on each kind of management.

**Defining Leadership, Management, and Administration**

Many people get confused with the terms *leadership, management, and administration*. There are many different definitions of these terms. However, Kowalski and Reitzug (1993) offered the most differentiation among the three concepts. They stated, "Leadership involves a social influence process in which a person steers members of a group or organization toward a specific goal" (p. 5). Furthermore, as leadership determines the direction for the organization, Kowalski and Reitzug (1993) suggested the following:

Thus, leadership is defined here as a process that:

1. results in the determination of organizational
objectives and strategies, (2) entails building consensus for meeting those objectives, and (3) involves influencing others to work toward those objectives. (p. 5)

Next, management is typically defined as worker supervision, supervision of resources, and conflict resolution (Kowalski & Reitzug, 1993). It is the process of decision-making and resource control. A manager may not have leadership relationship with his/her co-workers, and vice versa: a leader is not always a manager. When these two qualities are combined, it creates the definition of administration. Kowalski and Reitzug (1993, p. 6) cited a paragraph from Guthrie and Reed (1986):

School administration must be made of both managers and leaders. As managers they must ensure that fiscal and human resources are used effectively in accomplishing organization goals. As leaders they must display the vision and skills necessary to create and maintain a suitable teaching and learning environment, to develop goals, and to inspire others to achieve these goals. (Guthrie & Reed, 1986, p. 199)

Therefore, administrators of a school have not only to demonstrate their leadership ability but also to acquire
professional knowledge about management. They are expected to play roles as leaders, manager, and administrators at the same time.

**Human Resource Management of Schools**

Besides the customers (students) and the administrators, the staff play an important role in schools. The staff is an important asset of schools and needs to be well taken care of. Before a school starts to operate, the first step is to recruit staff. In order to recruit suitable staff for a school, administrators have to define the qualifications of the desired staff, usually by using job description.

White, Martin, Stimson, and Hodge (1991) suggested that a job description should include the following features: 1) title of job, 2) location of job, 3) principal objectives of the job, 4) main duty and skills employed, 5) resources managed, 6) working environment, 7) training requirement, 8) career opportunities, and 9) any special terms and conditions of service. Also, from this aspect of personal qualities, administrators need to determine desirable characteristics in the following areas: 1) physical condition, such as age and health; 2) attainments, like education level and experience; 3) aptitudes, such as writing skills and mechanical skills; and 4) personality, like patience,
cheerfulness, or calmness (White, Martin, Stimson, & Hodge, 1991; Click, 1995).

After the staff qualifications are decided upon, administrators begin the recruitment procedures. Advertisements for recruitment may be posted in the newspaper or on the Internet. A committee may be appointed to select suitable staff members. In the selection process, the first step is to screen all of the applications and eliminate unqualified candidates. Then, interviewing is perhaps the most common and frequently used method to really get to know the candidates. Finally, the committee or administrators would meet to evaluate every candidate and decide on final results.

Staff development and training is the next concern for administrators. Society and the environment are changing all the time, as is the business of schooling. In order to keep up with changes in society and in peoples' thinking, administrators must arrange professional development programs in order for staff to improve themselves. White et al. (1991) also pointed out, "Staff development is a way of ensuring that people learn and develop and that the organization can grow and respond to a changing environment" (p. 61).
official memos, letters, notice boards, booklets and manuals, or electronic resources like e-mail (White et al., 1991). Administrators should also strive to become proficient in other characteristics of communication; for example, listening skills and proficiency at providing feedback.

Production and Operation Management of Schools

In the initial stage of building a school (or private cram school), the first thing that must be decided upon is location. Where is the school going to be located? Administrators may answer this question by doing a survey in the community that the school intends to serve. Click (1995) suggested, “This (the survey) involves collecting information on the number of families with children, income level of parents, number of working parents, transportation available to families, and number of similar organizations already in the neighborhood” (pp. 45-46).

Then, in business, production and operation management begins to incorporate things like products, a productive ability plan, factory design, producing processes, and so on. In the case of a school, administrators need to focus on curriculum development, materials purchases, the environment/classroom design, and so on. The first step in curriculum development is to formulate a philosophy statement for the new school. The
philosophy statement should neither be too vague nor too detailed to follow. Click (1995) explained that there are three areas to be reflected in a philosophy statement. They are assumptions about how children learn, values held by program planners and parents of the children involved, and ideas about education and the function of school. When administrators are going to formulate a philosophy statement, it is helpful for them to think in regards to those three areas.

Once the school’s philosophy has been set forth, administrators can start making decisions about goals and objectives of the school. School administrators also need to concern themselves with related issues such as who sets these goals and objectives, how to write goals and objectives, and how to implement these goals and objectives into the curriculum. White et al. (1991) delineated four elements in a curriculum: objectives, content, methods, and evaluation. In the curriculum-development process, it is necessary for administrators to decide which objectives are going to be achieved, what kind of content should be taught, what methods could be used by teachers, and how to assess and evaluate students’ learning and teachers’ teaching. In Figure 2.5, White et al. (1991) provides a curriculum-development model for
administrators to follow the steps and develop the curriculum of schools.

In materials purchase, materials can be divided into two parts. One part basically covers hardware, such as desks and chairs, computers, blackboards, stationery, or any other necessary equipment. The other part covers software, like textbooks, magazines, children's books, or even computer software. School administrators may set up a committee that can gather different opinions and thoughts about materials purchasing. The committee needs to think over the budget, the fitness, and the effectiveness of the materials to make a final decision.

In this project, the topic of environmental management is limited to that of creating a suitable environment for school-aged children. First, children of school age grow rapidly in their physical skills. They are eager to challenge themselves to reach higher developmental levels. This eagerness may put these children in danger when the environment that is designed unsafe for children. On the other hand, the environment also has to provide children motivation to face challenges.
Figure 2.5. Flow Chart of Means-ends Curriculum Development Model (White et al., 1991, p. 170)
Therefore, what administrators must do is create a safe but challenging environment (Click, 1995). Also, flexibility here means to leave some space for children to change or modify the environment. An alterable classroom setting may stimulate students' learning and interests. Next, school administrators should pay attention to the size of the furniture and equipment. Custom-made chairs and tables could provide convenience for children. Finally, Click (1995) suggested that a colorful and pleasing environment also allows children to develop their creativity and imagination.

Besides the management of location, curriculum, materials, and environment, good administrators also need to manage time well. In everyday business, administrators can set priorities and keep a time record. By doing this, school administrators are able to take an overview of what they should do and how much time they have before things are due. Also, it is very important to prepare for emergencies. Being familiar with emergency management procedure can help administrators to deal with unexpected things.

Another aspect here is the use of computers. In this modern society, computers help people to store, send, receive, and exchange information. In order to save time, administrators can
think about implementing computers in management. Moreover, by the use of Internet, the administrator can access to the information wherever they are.

Financial Management of Schools

In most cases, a private “cram” school is a for-profit organization. Making money is the goal of the business. In finance management, the focuses are on how to attain a balance between expenditure and revenue, and how to use revenues to invest and make more money. School administrators need to deal with various start-up and ongoing costs. In order to manage costs, it is important for school administrators to develop a budget for the current year. In the budget developmental process, the first step is to list all expenses, including personnel, controllable, and fixed expenses.

The largest portion of personnel costs is staff salaries. Click (1995) explained that the personnel expenses include three categories. There are administrative personnel (directors and assistant directors), teaching staff (teachers, assistants, substitutes), and nonteaching staff (secretaries, cooks, bus drivers and so on). Personnel expenses may take more than 65 percent of the total budget.
Under the category of controllable expenses, administrators basically should include equipment, supplies, transportation, and consultant or contract services. Finally, the fixed expenses are costs, like space costs (rent), utilities, insurance, and taxes. Balancing expenses is income. For a private "cram" school, the main income is from students' tuition. How to decide the level of tuition can be a vital question. Click (1995) suggested that school administrators have to do some research on current practice to set the level of tuition. After all the expenses and income are determined, school administrators can start using different financial strategies to achieve the goal of making money for the coming year.

Professional school administrators are required to have basic knowledge of different types of financial records and statement. Tracking all the transactions by electronic files is a good way for administrators to manage financial tasks. Moreover, administrators have to recognize and employ accounting practices, such as the accounting equation, inflows and outflows, transactions, recording transactions (debits and credits), and use of diverse accounts.
Marketing Management of Schools

A common misunderstanding on the part of public is that marketing is the same as selling. In fact, they are quite different. A sales-oriented company would hold a point of view like “These are the products we produce, and we need to persuade others to buy them.” On the other hand, in a marketing-oriented company, the administrators and employees would consider the demand from the market and then produce what people want. Therefore, in a school setting, administrators need to evaluate the demand from different perspectives. What are the expectations from the government, the public, parents, teachers (staff), or even students? How can the school fit these expectations? By answering these questions, school administrators are able to identify some objectives for marketing.

In marketing theory, there is one basic marketing strategies matrix which is called “4P.” This matrix includes strategies about 1) product, 2) pricing, 3) place, and 4) promotion. First, as addressed above, the task of marketing is to find out what the needs are and if the needs can be satisfied. For example, if school administrators notice that there is a trend for students to learn phonics, they may need to consider if the phonics teaching should be incorporated into the curriculum. Second, the
price of the product can be indicated to the tuition. Administrators need to pay attention to the common level of tuition in the market so that they can set an acceptable and competitive price. Place has another different definition in business. It means the ways/methods for administrators to sell their product. Is it suitable to sell the product in the department stores? Does the company need the retail sales? The issue related to the best location of the cram school, for example, includes the considerations such as the number of families with children, income level of parents, transportation available to families, and so on (Click, 1995). Students need to come to school to learn. Last, promotion is about the activities which are able to stimulate sales. School administrators may design different promotion plans to attract various types of customers (parents).

Information Management in School Administration

Information management describes the process and the methods for workers (staff) of different departments and administrators to exchange information. Nowadays, a lot of companies use computers to set up an inner network system. The system can help staff to trace different transactions and the working process of every department. In schools, the network system can provide a space for teachers to exchange teaching
experience or for administrators to ask staff for opinions. Most important of all, a computer-based system for information processing can save time for administrators.

The framework of this literature review about school administration has used five kinds of management to describe different aspects of which administrators need to be aware. In human resource management of schools, administrators need to focus on staff selection, staff recruitment, staff development and training, and the importance and means of communication. When it comes the management and operation, administrators need to take into account location, curriculum development, time management, materials purchase, and environment management. In finance management, the focuses are on how to seek the balance between expenditure and revenue, and how to use the revenue to invest and make more money. Moreover, it is necessary for school administrators to define marketing and recognize different marketing strategies. By applying these strategies, administrators can create more opportunities to make a profit. Finally, using computers to manage information is not only timesaving but also cost efficient. After all this, there are still lots of details that school administrators will encounter. School administrators will need time to learn about leadership,
management, and administration as they go about the business of schooling.
CHAPTER THREE
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A Model of Whole-Language-Based Staff Training

By reviewing literature of transfer, whole language, learner-centered literacy, crosscultural teaching and learning, and school administration, I provide a theoretical framework of training whole-language teacher in Appendix A. Each part of the model will be discussed in the sections that follow.

School Administration

In Appendix A, the whole ambit of the framework is under the notion of school administration. Also, from literature review, one important part of production and operation management of schools is curriculum development. Administrators need to develop the curriculum based on the teaching and learning philosophy in which they believe. Once administrators have clarified their beliefs in language teaching and learning, they can begin mediating concepts into curriculum. The purpose of this project is to provide a theoretical framework for training whole-language teachers. By examining whole-language teaching and learning in L1 and L2 context, administrators are able to follow this framework to guide teachers, understanding of whole-language philosophy and its related teaching practices.
Whole Language Teaching/Learning in First Language (L1) Context

Whole-language teaching/learning in L1 context can be divided into three major aspects. First aspect is the concepts about language learning. Goodman (1986) believed that the function of language comes before the form of language. Children’s receptive control of language (understanding) emerges before they control the sounds of the language. Also, language is learned based on need, purpose, and function across social contexts. Children learn a language through authentic uses. Next, whole-language learners “come to know” how all the “parts” function within the “whole” through language use and language study. Children do not take sentences apart to analyze the structure or to distinguish the word classes in the sentences before they produce sentences (Goodman, 1986 & Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991).

The second aspect is concept about the definition and philosophy of whole language. Because of the concepts in whole language about language learning, whole-language teachers integrate language learning across different subjects and social contexts. Also, whole-language teachers choose to teach language sub-skills through authentic reading and writing. Then, distinct from traditional teaching perspectives, whole-language teachers
believe that literacy teaching and learning should be learner-centered.

Learner-centered Literacy. In regards to learner-centered literacy, McCombs and Whisler (1997) listed five factors to describe the psychological substrate of a learner-centered approach. These factors are metacognitive and cognitive, affective, developmental, personal and social, and individual. By understanding the psychological substrate of learner-centered literacy, teachers are able to recognize the need to implement learner-centered teaching and learning under whole-language philosophy. Moreover, children utter sentences by observing and imitating adults’ conversations. Therefore, in the learner-centered classroom, the teacher’s responsibility is to create similar environment and conditions for learners to acquire language the way they did when they were young. Cambourne (1988) (as cited by Lipton & Hubble, 1997) described seven conditions for teachers to take into account when creating a learner-centered classroom. These conditions are as follows: 1) immersion, 2) demonstration, 3) expectation, 4) responsibility, 5) practice, 6) approximation, and 7) feedback.

Besides the definition and philosophy of whole language, teachers should also be aware that whole language is not a
teaching method; it is a philosophy of language teaching and learning. As teachers try to implement whole-language beliefs about teaching and learning, they also need to know that there are no specific rules or teaching methods for teachers to follow; there are only principles providing direction in language teaching and learning. As long as teachers recognize the basic beliefs and principles of whole language, they can depend on their imagination and experiences to create a whole-language learning environment.

Finally, the third aspect of whole-language teaching and learning in L1 context is the practices of whole-language teaching. Whole-language teachers have to make sure that language is everywhere. There are no starting and ending points in learning a language. When language is everywhere, it is learned everywhere. Owing to these concepts about language learning, whole-language teachers also create lesson plans with authentic language usages. Next, a whole-language classroom features a variety of learning centers for students to accomplish their works. Teachers need to make these learning centers easily accessible by students. Lastly, for purpose of assessment, teachers create learner profiles by recording students' progress.
Whole Language Teaching/Learning in Second Language (L2) Context

In order to implement whole-language philosophy in EFL teaching, teachers also need to have knowledge of two supplementary concepts.

Transfer. The notion of transfer is about the positive and negative influence based on similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously acquired. Gass and Selinker (2001) also stated transfer as “the use of first language (or other language known) in a second language context” (p. 456). Therefore, whole-language teachers are required to recognize first-language influences in EFL teaching and learning contexts.

Crosscultural Teaching and Learning. Because language has an intimate relationship with culture, the best way for learners to understand and to use a second language is to learn the language through its culture. In order to interpret culture to speakers of other languages, teachers need to be familiar with different cultural behaviors and values. Gebhard (1996) suggested four concepts that teachers should teach to assist students in language learning: 1) crosscultural communication includes adapting behavior; 2) crosscultural communication involves problem solving; 3) To understand a culture, get to know
individuals; and 4) To understand another culture, study one's own. Therefore, in this project, one instructional unit will be provided as a sample for teachers to teach English through native (Chinese) culture in Appendix B.

Application of the Model to the Curriculum Design

When school administrators have insured their teaching philosophy, they start implementing the philosophy into curriculum design. This project examines the philosophy of whole language and its related teaching methods. Therefore, the central inspiration of the curriculum design in this project is to create a whole-language based design.

Besides the concepts of whole-language teaching and learning in L1 context, EFL teachers in Taiwan also need to notice two supplemental notions in L2 context which are transfer and crosscultural teaching and learning. The concept of transfer is used to remind EFL teachers the importance of a student's first language. Also, the notion from crosscultural teaching and learning is expected to help teachers using a student's cultural background and knowledge to facilitate their learning.

In Chapter Four, detailed information about how to incorporate the addressed concepts into one unit plan will be introduced. Also, there will be clear introduction of learning
strategies. Therefore, by the use of the concepts from the theoretical framework and learning strategies, school administrators will be able to use the sample unit lesson plan from this project to explain and present how to implement these concepts into daily lesson plans.
CHAPTER FOUR
CURRICULUM DESIGN

Learning Strategies in the Second Language Acquisition Context

Among different aspects of school administration, staff development is one important part in human resource management. Therefore, the goal of curriculum design in this project is to provide a sample unit lesson plan for teachers to use as a reference. This curriculum design is expected to incorporate the teaching principles that are presented in the previous chapter and the knowledge of learning strategies in a staff development program.

In the SLA context, learning strategies can be divided into second-language use strategies and second-language learning strategies (Cohen, 1996). In the first part, second-language use strategies are employed mostly when learners speak. However, in this curriculum design, the focus is on second-language learning strategies. Díaz-Rico (2004) stated, "...second-language learning strategies (are) those that assist learners to improve their knowledge in a target language" (p. 102). In this part of learning strategies, strategies are divided into 1) cognitive, 2) metacognitive, 3) social-affective, and 4) academic survival and
study skills. In cognitive strategies, teachers can teach strategies such as schema building, scaffolding, using alternative information representation and graphic organizers, critical thinking, and creative thinking and risk taking.

Next, Blakey and Spence (1990) stated, "Metacognition is thinking about thinking, knowing 'what we know' and 'what we don't know'.” Metacognitive strategy is one of the learning strategies presented by Chamot and O’Malley (1994). This is the strategy that helps students to plan, monitor, and evaluate their own learning. Díaz-Rico (2004) also explained:

Metacognition development involves direct teaching of strategies that help students plan what and how they want to learn; monitor, manage, and motivate while they are learning; and evaluate what they have learned and how they did so. (p. 124)

There are two strategies categorized in the social-affective strategies. Teachers can give students opportunities to cooperate with others and maintain students' first language as an affective strategy (Díaz-Rico, 2004). Díaz-Rico (2004) provided the following explanation of giving students opportunities to cooperate:
In planning for the development of a positive emotional climate in the classroom, many teachers include opportunities for students to talk about key concepts, using their primary language to clarify the concepts. Teachers ensure that students have numerous conversational partners and opportunities to interact within the context of lessons. (p. 126)

Teachers can also use several strategies to support students’ first language in the classroom. For example, as in the whole-language classroom, the whole environment is full of language. Labels and aids in both target and first language can help students in understanding and memorizing the content. Finally, Table 4.1 gives readers an overview of the concepts of academic survival and study skills (Díaz-Rico, 2004).

Description of the Teaching Unit

Table 4.2.a and Table 4.2.b introduce an overview of theoretical principles that apply to the teaching unit. This unit includes the concepts from the literature review and from second-language learning strategies.

From the concept of transfer, teachers activate students’ background knowledge of topics in the beginning of each lesson. Also, the teaching unit incorporates the principles from
whole-language teaching. The notion of learner-centered instruction requires teachers to focus on learners' abilities to manage their own learning. Next, all the contents of this teaching unit are culture-based. Students can learn English through their native culture rather than irrelevant content knowledge. Finally, this unit incorporates second-language learning strategies to assist students' learning.

Second-language learning strategies are cognitive, metacognitive, social-affective, and academic survival and study skills. Therefore, an instructional unit will be provided as a sample for teachers to teach English with the use of these concepts.
Table 4.1. Academic Survival and Study Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACADEMIC SURVIVAL AND STUDY SKILLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic Survival Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly followed unwritten cultural rules and practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native-Language Cultural Skills and Experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using prior knowledge of native-language cultural skills to achieve academically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target-Language Cultural Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using the target-language cultural skills to achieve academically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge about the Culture of Academia in the Target Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Use of clarifying strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Behavioral expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Proper forms of address</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The environment of a classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. A print syllabus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Culture in Public and private school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The law of the state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Professional boundaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Different standards of athlete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Information in Handbooks or other school publications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Track keeping of assignment and notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The ability to take tests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Assistance from organizations and volunteers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text Processing and Time Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Different requirements from the variety type of assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Pacing the reading load</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Effective time management</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2.a. Overview of Theoretical Principles Applied to the Teaching Unit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson</th>
<th>Warm-up activity</th>
<th>Activating Students’ Background Knowledge of Topics</th>
<th>Applying Whole-language Teaching Methods</th>
<th>Learner-centered instruction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Overview of Theoretical Principles Applied to the Teaching Unit</td>
<td>Readers predict, select, confirm, and self-correct as they seek to make sense of print</td>
<td>Experiences sharing Group work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>Activating Students’ Background Knowledge of Topics</td>
<td>Readers construct meaning during reading.</td>
<td>Experiences sharing Group work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Activating Students’ Background Knowledge of Topics</td>
<td>Literacy develops in response to personal/social needs</td>
<td>Experiences sharing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>Activating Students’ Background Knowledge of Topics</td>
<td>Writers and readers are strongly limited by what they already know</td>
<td>Experiences sharing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>Activating Students’ Background Knowledge of Topics</td>
<td>Materials for instruction must be whole texts that are meaningful and relevant</td>
<td>Experiences sharing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>Activating Students’ Background Knowledge of Topics</td>
<td>Readers construct meaning during reading.</td>
<td>Experiences sharing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.2.b. Overview of Theoretical Principles Applied to the Teaching Unit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson</th>
<th>Intercultural/crosscultural awareness</th>
<th>Second-language learning strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Chinese New Year</td>
<td>Use of metacognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The Lantern Festival</td>
<td>Use of graphic organizers as a cognitive learning strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The Tomb Sweeping Day</td>
<td>Use of graphic organizers as a cognitive learning strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The Dragon Boat Festival</td>
<td>Use of critical thinking as a cognitive learning strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The Ghost Festival</td>
<td>Use of creative thinking as a cognitive learning strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The Moon Festival and the Harvest Festival</td>
<td>Use of graphic organizers as a cognitive learning strategies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER FIVE

PLAN FOR ASSESSMENT

The Evaluation Process

From the perspective of whole-language teaching and learning, whole-language teachers create learner profiles to assess and record students' learning progress. Mickelson (1992) provided a three-step evaluation process for teachers to follow. First, teachers observe the process of student's actions day by day. Then, teachers look at what students actually accomplish. Finally, teachers use measurement to complete students' profiles. These three aspects will be discussed in turn.

Observation

In whole-language teaching, observation of students is the basis for teachers to assess students' learning. During the instruction, teachers not only teach students but also observe their learning situation. One common strategy is to ask students questions about the content which is taught. Therefore, in the curriculum unit attached in Appendix B, teachers would check students' understanding of the content by asking them questions. By doing this, teachers are able to assess if students can follow the lesson and recognize the concept or not. Yet another part of observation is to watch students when they are doing work.
When teachers circulate the classroom, they are required to examine students' doing and accomplishment.

**Formative Assessment**

Formative assessment in the attached teaching unit includes the second step of assessment which looks at what students actually accomplished. All the work sheets in the unit are used to activate students' background knowledge and to record what has been learned. For example, in Work Sheet 5-4, students are required to use their imagination to draw a picture of a ghost face and write down the description of the ghost in three complete sentences. In this way, teachers are able to examine what students learned and what they need to work on. Yet another example is the use of assessment sheets in oral performances. Depending on different criteria, teachers can customize different formats to fit each lesson. In lesson two, Assessment Sheet 2-3 is designed to assess students' performances in group work and oral presentation.

**Testing for Achievement (Summative Assessment)**

The achievement tests are simply periodic classroom tests or quizzes that indicate to the teachers whether or not students are keeping up with instruction. The content of the test is limited to the content taught in class. In the teaching unit,
I used one simple assessment sheet in each lesson to assess students' understanding of the content.

All the different types of assessment will be put into student profiles and it will allow teachers to track each student's learning process. After all, whole-language teachers have to keep in mind that the result of the assessment should also be used to examine teachers' teaching. Teachers should self-evaluate their teaching according to students' assessment.

The Role of Assessment in the Instructional Unit

Whole-language teachers have to be aware that the results of the assessment are used to examine teachers' teaching. Teachers self-evaluate their teaching according to students' assessment. Moreover, whole-language teachers should never judge and define students' performance by these measurements.

Therefore, the role of assessment in the instructional unit will be a reflective evidence that informs teachers about the efficiency and effectiveness of their instruction. It is the guide for teachers to adjust their teaching to fit students' needs. Also, the assessment itself can be presented in different ways. Teachers should not limit themselves to one or two assessment methods.
In conclusion, whole-language teachers value the important message brought out by assessment, but they should not overly rely on the results of assessment. Assessment is one of the many tools for teachers to examine their instruction and to examine students' learning.
APPENDIX A

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR TRAINING WHOLE LANGUAGE TEACHERS
Whole Language Teaching/Learning in L2 Context
- "Transfer": the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously acquired
- Crosscultural teaching and learning

Whole Language Teaching/Learning in L1 Context
- Concepts about language learning:
  1. The function of language comes before the form of language.
  2. Language is learned based on need, purpose and function across social contexts.
  3. Whole Language learners "come to know" how all the "parts" function within the "whole" through language use and language study.
  4. Receptive control (understanding) precedes productive control.
- The definition and philosophy of whole language:
  1. Whole-language teachers integrate language learning across different subjects/social contexts.
  2. Whole-language teachers choose to teach language sub-skills through authentic reading and writing activities.
  3. Whole-language teachers believe that literacy teaching/learning should be learner-centered.
  4. Whole language is not a teaching method; it is a philosophy of language teaching and learning.
  5. There are no specific rules or teaching methods for teachers to follow; there are only principles providing directions in language teaching and learning.
- Practices of whole-language teaching
  1. Language is everywhere.
  2. Language is used authentically.
  3. Students easily access classroom learning centers
  4. Teachers create learner profiles by recording students' progress.

Learner-centered Literacy
- Psychological support
  1. Metacognitive and cognitive factors
  2. Affective factors
  3. Developmental factors
  4. Personal and social factors
  5. Individual factors
- Seven conditions of creating a learner-centered classroom
  1. Immersion
  2. Demonstration
  3. Expectation
  4. Responsibility
  5. Practice
  6. Approximation
  7. Feedback

Figure A.1. Theoretical Framework for Training Whole Language Teachers
UNIT OVERVIEW

Chinese Festival

Goal

This unit is created as a sample unit for whole-language administrators to demonstrate how to incorporate different whole-language teaching and learning concepts and some new notions from staff development and training programs into curriculum.

Content

Lesson one: Go Away, Year-Monster!

Lesson Two: Do You Carry a Lantern Tonight?

Lesson Three: Let Us Learn About Tomb-Sweeping Day!

Lesson Four: The Story Behind the Dragon Boat Festival

Lesson Five: Where Are the Ghosts?

Lesson Six: The Moon Festival and the Harvest Festival
Lesson One
Go Away, Year-Monster!

Level: Elementary EFL grades 1-2, intermediate fluency SLA level

Name of unit: The Chinese Festivals

Background: This lesson is the first lesson in a six-lesson unit on Chinese festivals.

Time Frame: 50 minutes

Content Objectives
Students will listen to and comprehend a Chinese legend narrating the origin of Chinese New Year. Students will practice the paired problem-solving activity and make plans for New Year’s Eve.

Language Objectives
Students will organize and tell their thoughts in oral language.

Learning Objectives
Students will practice and recognize the self-evaluating process.

Materials
Poster 1-1: The K-W-L Chart
Poster 1-2: The Origin of Chinese New Year
Work Sheet 1-3: The Year-Monster Is Coming!
Work Sheet 1-4: Helping the Family!
Assessment Sheet 1-5: The Origin of Chinese New Year
Warm-up activity

The instructor starts this lesson by asking students what they do during the Chinese New Year, to recall/activate their prior knowledge. The instructor may ask questions like "What do you hear during the New Year’s Eve?" "Do you set off firecrackers with your relatives?" and "What is the most common color in decoration?"

Task Chain 1: Practicing self-evaluating process by making a K-W-L chart

1. The instructor hangs the Poster 1-1 on the board. Then the instructor models how to ask questions to himself/herself.
2. The instructor can ask questions like "What do I know about Chinese New Year?" "Do I see anything special during Chinese New Year?"
3. The instructor encourages students to answer these questions, and he/she writes down the answers on the K column of the Poster 1-1.
4. The instructor asks students what they want to know about Chinese New Year. The instructor may model that he/she wants to know why people set off firecrackers on New Year’s Eve or why people decorate their houses with red paper. Then the instructor writes down his/her and students’ sentences or phrases on the W column.

Task Chain 2: Listening to and comprehending the legend of Chinese New Year

1. The instructor gathers the class to sit on the rug. The instructor and students take a quick “picture walk” to see what happens in the story on Poster 1-2. The instructor may encourage students to voice their opinions.
2. The instructor starts to read the story to the whole class
and shows students the illustration along with the text.

3. After reading two or three paragraphs, the instructor stops and asks questions to stimulate students' thinking. Students are required to answer questions to show their recognition and participation.

4. When the whole story is read, the instructor may orally check students' understanding by asking some questions and then directs students to go back to their seats.

Task Chain 3: Practicing paired problem-solving activity
1. The instructor groups students in pairs and hands out Work Sheet 1-3.
2. Students discuss what they should prepare on New Year's Eve with their partners and fill out the work sheet.
3. The instructor may circulate to check students' progress and understanding.
4. After all the students are done with their work sheets, the instructor checks the answer with students and asks them to keep their papers, and then moves on to the next activity.

Task Chain 4: Making plans for New Year's Eve and giving oral presentation
1. The instructor delivers Work Sheet 1-4 to students and asks them to make plans about when and how to help their families on New Year's Eve (the whole day) to keep the Year-Monster away.
2. Students may use Work Sheet 1-3 to help them organize their plans.
3. The instructor may do the first section with students as an example to ease students' anxieties. Then, the instructor may circulate to check students' progress and understanding.
4. After all the students are done with their plans, the
instructor takes turn asking students to briefly explain their plans to the class.

Task Chain 5: Finishing the K-W-L chart

1. The instructor moves students' attention back to the Poster 1-1 and asks questions like “What did I learn?”
2. The instructor may answer for the first time like “I learned the story about the Year-Monster.”
3. When students give their answers, the instructor writes down the sentences or phrases on the L column. Then the instructor informs students that using the K-W-L chart is a way to check what a person knows about something. And students can use the same method in learning other subjects.

Assessment:

Formative assessment
By checking the answers from students while they are working, the instructor will be able to assess if students can follow the lesson and recognize the concept or not.

Summative assessment

4. After finishing Poster 1-1, the instructor briefly addresses the story of Chinese New Year again by asking students questions such as, “Did people like the Year-Monster?” “What did it do that makes people scared?” “When the monster came out to eat people again, what were the things that it was afraid of?”
5. Then the instructor hands out Assessment Sheet 1-5 and reads each question with students. However, students are required to answer each question by themselves. Students are assessed for comprehension of the story.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Representative</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
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<td>40</td>
<td>Good Job</td>
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<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Needs Improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-30</td>
<td>Study Harder</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Poster 1-1**

**The K-W-L Chart**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>K</th>
<th>W</th>
<th>L</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What We Know</td>
<td>What We Want to Learn</td>
<td>What We Learned</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The origin of the Chinese New Year is too old to trace; but the tales about it are quite interesting. Legend has it that there was a beast called Nian (which means "year" in Chinese) that would come to China the night before the new year began (according to the Chinese Calendar) and prey upon the people. One of the legends has it that Nian had a very big mouth and that he would swallow a great many people with every bite.

One day an old man came to rescue the people, he said to Nian, "I hear that you are a very capable beast, but do you think that you could swallow the other beasts of prey instead of people, who are not worthy opponents?" So Nian started to swallow the other beasts, which were harassing the people anyway. After that the man disappeared riding Nian, it turns out that the man was really an immortal god.

One year at the New Year's Eve, Nian came out and planned to eat people again. When it went approach to a village, it was scared by the whipping sounds from a cowhand. Then, Nian went to another village and again it was frightened by the red clothes hanging outside a house. Finally, the light revealing from windows even terrified Nian. It went back to the mountain and didn't eat anyone that year.

Later on, people knew how to keep Nian away. They are: whipping sounds, red color, and light.
People started using these three things to scare Nian away every year and they also used firecrackers to substitute for the whipping sounds.

From then on...

The tradition of observing the conquest of Nian is carried on from generation to generation. The term "Guo Nian," which may mean "Survive the Nian" becomes today "Celebrate the (New) Year" as the word "guo" in Chinese having both the meaning of "pass-over" and "observe". The custom of putting up red paper and firing fire-crackers to scare away Nian, should it have a chance to run loose, is still around. However, people today have long forgotten why they are doing all this, except that they feel the color and the sound add to the excitement of the celebration.
The Year-Monster is coining to my house this year. What can I do to scare him away? What do I need to prepare?

1. When I go the supermarket, what should I buy to scare away the Year-Monster?
   (Make a check mark above the pictures that you think you should buy)

2. What color should I use to decorate my home?
Work Sheet 1-4
Helping the Family!

Name: ___________________ Date: __________________

What can I do to help my family scare away the Year-Monster?
(Write your answers in the blanks and draw pictures.)

In the morning, I will...
(1) _______________ (2) _______________ (3) _______________

In the afternoon, I will...
(1) _______________ (2) _______________ (3) _______________

At night, I will...
(1) _______________ (2) _______________ (3) _______________
The Origin of Chinese New Year

Read the questions and circle the correct answers according to the story.

1. Did people like the Year-Monster? (10 points)
   
   Yes  No

2. What did the Year-Monster do that made people scared? (10 points)
   
   Destroying houses  Eating people

3. When the Year-Monster came out again, what were the three things it was afraid of? (Circle the pictures) (30 points)
Lesson Two
Do You Carry a Lantern Tonight?

Level: Elementary EFL 1-2, intermediate fluency SLA level

Name of the unit: The Chinese Festivals

Background: This lesson is the second lesson in a six-lesson unit on Chinese festivals

Time Frame: 50 minutes

Content Objectives
Students will be able to identify and explain the reasons as to why people carry lanterns at the Lantern Festival (a Chinese legend).

Language Objectives
Students will discuss the plot and practice using narrative tone to retell the Chinese legend of the Lantern Festival.

Learning Objectives
Students will be able to use a graphic organizer, the problem-solving chart, to practice the problem-solving process.

Materials
One lantern
Poster 2-1: The Legend of the Lantern Festival
Work Sheet 2-2: Retelling the Story
Assessment Sheet 2-3: Retelling the Story
Focus Sheet 2-4: Problem-solving Activity
Work Sheet 2-5: Problem-solving Activity
Assessment Sheet 2-6: The Lantern Festival
Warm-up Activity

The instructor shows a lantern to students and asks them if they have seen it before. Then, the instructor explains that people carry lanterns at the Lantern Festival. The instructor may also invite students to share their experience of carrying lanterns at the Lantern Festival.

Task Chain 1: Talking about the legend of the Lantern Festival
1. The instructor hangs Poster 2-1 on the board and asks students to take a picture walk of the poster. Then, the instructor encourages students to share their thoughts and experiences.
2. The instructor starts to introduce a legend of the Lantern Festival to the whole class. The legend will explain why people carry lanterns at the Lantern Festival. After two or three paragraphs of the legend are told, the instructor may stop and check students' understanding.
3. When the whole story is told, the instructor reminds students about the plot of the legend, and separates the story into beginning, middle, and end.

Task Chain 2: Discussing the plot and practicing using narrative tone to retell the legend
1. The instructor hands out Work Sheet 2-2 and groups students into pairs. The instructor first models how to tell a story by using a narrative tone. Then, the instructor explains to students that they are going to use the work sheet to recall the content of the legend and retell it to the whole class.
2. Students are required to work with their partners. The instructor checks students' performance of group work and assesses them by using Assessment Sheet 2-3.
3. The instructor gives students about 10 minutes to prepare and asks them to retell the legend in pairs. Meanwhile,
the instructor uses Assessment Sheet 2-3 to assess students' oral performance.

Task Chain 3: Using the problem-solving chart to practice the problem-solving process

1. The instructor reminds students that there is a problem in the legend. People try to think of a solution to solve the problem. In people's daily lives, they will always meet different kinds of problems. These problems sometimes need to be fixed; otherwise they will be there forever. Therefore, knowing the importance and the process of solving problems is very useful.

2. The instructor hands out Focus Sheet 2-4 and models how to use the problem-solving chart to clarify the problem-solving process. The instructor may give a sample problem and model how to solve it.

3. The instructor hands out Work Sheet 2-5 to students. There are several problems on the sheet which allow students to pick the one they want to discuss. Then, students start to work on their own.

4. After students are done with their papers, the instructor collects them as formative assessment sheets to check students' answers.

Assessment

Formative assessment

By checking the responses from students while they answer the questions, the instructor will be able to assess if students can follow the lesson and recognize the concept or not.

Assessment Sheet 2-3 is used to assess students' performance of group work and oral story-telling skills.

Work Sheet 2-5 is used to check students' understanding
of the problem-solving process and their answers for the provided problems.

Summative assessment
At the end of the lesson, the instructor gives students Assessment Sheet E-4 to assess students' comprehension of the content. The instructor reads each question aloud; however, students are required to answer questions on their own.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Representative</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
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<td>40</td>
<td>Good Job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Needs Improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-30</td>
<td>Study Harder</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Legend of the Lantern Festival

It is said that there is a hunter who shoots a bird from the heaven accidentally. The Emperor of Heaven is very angry after he hears the news. So he decides to kill all the people on the earth. He tells his soldiers to set fire to everything on earth at the first full-moon night after Chinese New Year. One of Emperor's daughters does not want to see all the good people are going to be killed by her father. So she goes down to the earth to warn people about the bad news.

When people hear this bad news, they don't know what to do. They are so desperate and helpless. Fortunately, one wise old man suggests that people can prepare lots of lanterns and light them at the first full-moon night. In this way, the soldiers will think there is fire on earth already, so they won't set it on fire again.

Finally, it is the night of the first full moon after Chinese New Year. People follow the old man's words, and they prepare lots of lanterns and firecrackers. When all the lanterns and firecrackers are lighted, the light from the lanterns and the sounds from the firecrackers make the soldiers of Heaven believe that there is fire on earth already. So, the soldiers go to report the situation to the Emperor of Heaven. The Emperor of Heaven also believes that there is no need to set a fire again.
At the end, people save their lives by hanging lanterns everywhere and by setting off firecrackers. In order to celebrate surviving, people start to carry lanterns at the first full-moon night after Chinese New Year, which it is called the Lantern Festival now.
Let us practice recalling the plot and separate the story into sections of beginning, middle, and end. Draw a picture of each section.

Beginning

Middle

End
Assessment Sheet 2-3
Retelling the Story

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students' names</th>
<th>Communicative skills</th>
<th>Using listening skills</th>
<th>General group-work performance</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>perfect</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>fair</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### Assessment Sheet 2-3 (Cont’)

#### Retelling the Story

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students' names</th>
<th>Sticks to the topic</th>
<th>Clarity</th>
<th>Correctness of the information</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>perfect</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Focus Sheet 2-4
Problem-solving Activity

Problem:
My classmates always like to make fun of my clothes and my hair in front of others. I don't like to go to school anymore. I wish I could solve this problem.

The Problem-solving Chart
Work Sheet 2-5
Problem-solving Activity

Name:_______________________  Date:_____________________

Pick one problem for you to think of the solution.
1. I don't understand what my teacher says in class all the time; what can I do?
2. I want to go out with my friends this weekend, but I also have to work on my assignment. What can I do?
3. I broke one of my mothers' favorite vases; no one caught me doing that. What should I do to solve the problem?

The Problem-solving Chart

---

Problem box

Solution box

End-result box
Assessment Sheet 2-6
The Lantern Festival

Name: ___________________ Date: ___________________

After you hear about the legend of the Lantern Festival, there are several questions for you to answer. Try to recall the content and do your best! (10 points/question)

1. Is Lantern Festival the day people eat moon-cakes? (Circle)
   Yes    No

2. What do people do at the Lantern Festival?
   _____ People decorate the streets and houses with lots of lanterns.
   _____ People worship ancestors in this day.

3. When is the Lantern Festival?
   _____ It is at the fifth day of the fifth month in lunar calendar.
   _____ It is at the first full-moon night after Chinese New Year.

4. What is the problem in the legend of the Lantern Festival?
   _____ The God of Heaven is going to punish human beings by giving them poison to eat.
   _____ The God of Heaven is going to punish human beings by setting the earth on fire.

5. Who gave the solution of the problem?
   _____ The daughter of the God of Heaven
   _____ A wise old man
3. Then the instructor informs students that they may use the same graphic organizer when they read something difficult for the test.

Task Chain 3: Content and grammar activity

1. The instructor explains the definition of a noun. A noun is the name of a place, a thing, or a person. Also, in order to distinguish a noun from other word classes, students can use the "the" test or the plural test to figure out where and what a noun is in a sentence.

2. Then, the instructor delivers Work Sheet 3-3 to students. Students are required to fill out blank spaces with nouns (names of food) to explain what they eat on Tomb-Sweeping Day.

3. On the second part of the work sheet, the instructor practices the plural test with students to reinforce students' concept of nouns.

Assessment

Formative assessment

By checking the responses from students while they answer the questions, the instructor will be able to assess if students can follow the lesson and recognize the concept or not.

Summative assessment

At the end of the lesson, the instructor gives students Assessment Sheet 3-4 to assess students' comprehension of the content. The instructor reads each question to students; however, students are required to answer questions on their own.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Representative</th>
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<tr>
<td>30</td>
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<td>Good Job</td>
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<td>Needs Improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-9</td>
<td>Study Harder</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Poster 3-1
Tomb-Sweeping Activities

What are the people doing?
Do you share the same experiences?
What day is this day?

Related vocabulary:
Tomb-Sweeping Day   worship   ancestor   incense
Cemetery           grave cake   jun ping
Let us talk about Tomb-Sweeping Day!
What do you know about this day and what have you learned?
Fill out each question and discuss with your teacher and the class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>W-Questions</th>
<th>Answers</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When is Tomb-Sweeping Day?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Where do people go on Tomb-Sweeping Day?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What do people do on Tomb-Sweeping Day?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whom do people worship?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why do people demonstrate respectful behaviors to ancestors?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What do I eat on Tomb-Sweeping Day? Answer the question by giving the name of the food you eat.

On Tomb-Sweeping Day,

1. I eat ___________________.
2. I eat ___________________.
3. I eat ___________________.

Which one is the noun? Let us do the plural test to find out the noun!

* I always eat the grave-cake.

☐ Is always eat the grave cake.
   Is the word “I” a noun? Yes ☐ No

☐ I alwaysss eat the grave cake.
   Is the word “always” a noun? Yes ☐ No

☐ I always eats the grave cake.
   Is the word “eat” a noun? Yes ☐ No

☐ I always eat thes grave cake.
   Is the word “the” a noun? Yes ☐ No

☐ I always eat the grave cakes.
   Is the word “grave cake” a noun? Yes ☐ No
Assessment Sheet 3-4
Tomb-Sweeping Day

Name: ___________________________ Date: ___________________________

Read the questions and circle the correct answer according to the content you learned.

1. What day is Tomb-Sweeping Day? (5 points)
   - April 5th  
   - October 10th  

2. Where do we go to on Tomb-Sweeping Day? (5 points)
   - the cemetery  
   - the park  

3. What do we do on Tomb-Sweeping Day? (5 points)
   - play with friends  
   - worship ancestors  

4. What do we eat on Tomb-Sweeping Day? (15 points)
   - candy  
   - fa cake  
   - hung kuei cake  
   - jun ping  
   - hamburger  
   - chocolate chips  
   - cookies
Lesson Four
The Story Behind the Dragon Boat Festival

Level: Elementary EFL grades 1-2, intermediate fluency SLA level

Name of unit: The Chinese Festivals

Background: This lesson is the fourth lesson in a six-lesson unit on Chinese festivals.

Time Frame: 50 minutes

Content Objectives
Students will comprehend the reasons for people to row dragon boats, to eat rice dumplings, and to wear fragrant sachets on Dragon Boat Festival.

Language Objectives
Students will practice present tense sentences describing what people do at the Dragon Boat Festival.

Learning Objectives
Students will distinguish relevant from irrelevant facts.

Materials
Videotape about dragon-boat race (about five minutes long)
Poster 4-1: Dragon Boat Festival
Work Sheet 4-2: What Do People Do at Dragon Boat Festival?
Assessment Sheet 4-3: My Favorite Activity at the Dragon Boat Festival
Poster 4-4: What Are the Relevant things?
Work Sheet 4-5: Finding the Path for the Foreigners
Assessment Sheet 4-6: Dragon Boat Festival
Warm-up activity

The instructor plays the videotape about dragon-boat races. Then the instructor asks students if they have seen the same activity before. If they have, the instructor encourages students to share their feelings and experiences.

Task Chain 1: Introducing Dragon Boat Festival and its customs
1. After the warm-up activity, the instructor tells students that the Dragon Boat Festival is the day when people race dragon boats. The festival is on May Fifth of the lunar calendar.
2. The instructor uses Poster 4-1 to show the picture of a dragon boat, and asks students to guess what are the other three things people do at the festival (eating rice dumplings, wearing fragrant sachets, and hanging Chinese mugwort on the door).
3. The instructor announces the answers after students’ discussions. Then, the instructor hands out Work Sheet 4-2 to students, and completes the sheet with students. Students will practice to write present tense sentences on the work sheet.

Task Chain 2: Story telling activity
1. The instructor starts this task chain by asking students if they know the reasons why people do all these activities at the Dragon Boat Festival.
2. Then, the instructor begins to narrate the story of the famous patriotic statesman, Chu Yuan. When Chu Yuan took his life by jumping into the Miluo River after he was disappointed by the king and other officers at that time, people prepared rice dumpling for fish to eat, and used boats to search Chu Yuan’s body in the river.
3. The instructor explains that the second story is about the origin of hanging Chinese mugwort and wearing the
fragrant sachets. People do the two things in order to expel evils from the hot weather. Ancestors chose this day to worship the gods and they used herbs to eliminate poisons.

4. After explaining the customs of Dragon Boat Festival, the instructors hands out Assessment Sheet 4-3 and asks students to write down two complete sentences describing what they like to do at the Dragon Boat Festival. Students are required to write the sentences in present tense.

5. Students may consult the sentences on Work Sheet 4-2. Also, students are required to draw what they express in their sentences.

Task Chain 3: Distinguishing relevant from irrelevant facts

1. The instructor explains the meanings of “relevant” and “irrelevant.” The word “relevant” indicates that things are related or have connections. Then, the instructor gives few examples from students' daily lives, such as: What is relevant to the word “bathroom”? The answers are taking a shower, brushing teeth, washing our faces, things like the toilet, soaps, and so on.

2. The instructor hangs Poster 4-4 on the board and checks each item with students to find out the relevant things of the topics.

3. The instructor hands out Work Sheet 4-5 to students. Students need to find the correct path on the work sheet to demonstrate the relevant activities people would do at the Dragon Boat Festival.

4. The instructor may give students a hint that is looking for the relevant facts about the Dragon Boat Festival in order to find the correct direction.

5. When students complete the sheet, the instructor shows students the correct path on the map.
Assessment

Formative assessment

By checking the answers from students when they answer the questions and do the work sheets, the instructor will be able to assess if students can follow the lesson and recognize the concept or not. Each student are required to write two sentences about what they like to do on Dragon Boat Festival on Assessment Sheet 4-3. Teacher circulates to check their writing, looking for three aspects:

1. The completeness of the sentences
2. The tense of the sentences (present tense)
3. The content of the sentences

Summative assessment

The instructor hands out the Assessment Sheet 4-6 and reads each question with students. However, students are required to answer each question by themselves. Students are assessed by the comprehension of the content.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores</th>
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<td>40-49</td>
<td>Good Job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>Need Improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-30</td>
<td>Study Harder</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Poster 4-1
Dragon Boat Festival

□ dragon boat

dragon boat race

Other things about Dragon Boat Festival

eat rice dumplings

wear fragrant sachets

hang Chinese mugwort on the door
Work Sheet 4-2
What Do People Do at the Dragon Boat Festival?

Name: ______________________  Date: __________________

I. Draw a line to the picture that matches with the activity.

- People eat rice dumplings.
- People wear fragrant sachets.
- People row dragon boats.
- People hang the mugwort on the door.

II. Complete the sentences.
What do people do at the Dragon Boat Festival?

People row _________ ________

_________ ________ fragrant sachets.

People ____________________________________

__________________________________________
Assessment Sheet 4-3
My Favorite Activity at the Dragon Boat Festival

Name: ___________________ Date: ___________________

What are the things that you like to do at the Dragon Boat Festival? Write down two sentences in present tense to describe what you like to do and draw a picture.
Poster 4-4

What Are the Relevant things?

Think of the things that are relevant to "kitchen."
What are they? Circle the right pictures.

What is the other thing you can think of? __________

Think of the things that are relevant to "studying."
What are they? Circle the right pictures.

What is the other thing you can think of? __________
Work Sheet 4-5
Finding the Path for the Foreigners

Name: ___________________ Date: __________________

There are some foreigners coming to Taiwan to experience the activities at the Dragon Boat Festival. Please help them to find the correct path on the map! (Try to think the relevant activities people do at the Dragon Boat Festival)

Start

- hang the mugwort
- eat cookies

row dragon boats

- eat rice dumplings

wear costumes

wear a fragrant sachets

End

- eat turkey
Assessment Sheet 4-6
Dragon Boat Festival

Name:_______________________ Date:______________________

Answer the following questions. (5 points/question)

1. What is the date of the Dragon Boat Festival? __________

2. What do people do at the Dragon Boat Festival? (Give one example in a complete sentence)

Draw a line to the picture that matches with the activity. (10 points/question)

- People wear fragrant sachets.
- People eat rice dumplings.
- People row dragon boats.
- People hang mugwort on the door.
Lesson Five
Where Are the Ghosts?

Level: Elementary EFL grades 1-2, intermediate fluency SLA level

Name of unit: The Chinese Festivals

Background: This lesson is the fifth lesson in a six-lesson unit on Chinese festivals.

Time Frame: 50 minutes

Content Objectives
Students will listen to and comprehend a Chinese legend narrating the origin of the Ghost Festival in Buddhism.

Learning Objectives
Students will identify the elements of plot, setting, and characters in the story.

Language Objectives
Students will use their imagination to create ghost masks to scare the ghosts who are not willing to go back to Hades when they should be, and write three sentences to describe the mask.

Materials
Focus Sheet 5-1: Ullambana (Deliverance from Suffering)
Work Sheet 5-2: Identifying the Story Elements
Poster 5-3: The Scary Ghost Mask
Work Sheet 5-4: My Scary Ghost Mask
Assessment Sheet 5-5: The Ghost Festival
Warm-up activity
The instructor brainstorms with students about the ghosts. Students are encouraged to share their thoughts. The instructor may ask questions such as, “Do you know what a ghost is?” “Have you seen ghosts before?” “Why do people worship ghosts?” “What are the common foods in the worshiping ceremonies?”

Task Chain 1: Story-telling activity
5. The instructor gathers the class to sit on the rug. Then, the instructor informs students that they are going to listen to a story about the Ghost Festival in Buddhism. The story explains the reasons why people worship the dead at the Ghost Festival.
6. The instructor starts to tell the story to the whole class. (Focus Sheet 5-1 is a Chinese legend narrating the origin of the Ghost Festival in Buddhism and the instructor may use this sheet as his/her reference.) By using different tones of voice, the instructor may create a nervous and scary atmosphere.
7. When the whole story is told, the instructor may orally check students’ understanding by asking some questions and direct students to go back to their seats.

Task Chain 2: Identifying the elements of plot, setting, and character(s) in the story
1. The instructor hands out Work Sheet 5-2 to students. Students are required to identify the elements of plot, setting and character(s) in the story.
2. The instructor does the work sheet with students and reminds students about the story if needed.
3. For further critical thinking, the instructor may ask students what their feelings are after having heard the story.
Task Chain 3: Creating your mask to scare the ghosts away

1. The instructor informs students that some ghosts who are not willing to go back to the Hades when the gates of the Hades are going to close would try to stay on our world. In order to make them go back to their world, people have different activities to scare them.

2. The instructor tells students that they can help this time by creating a scary mask to frighten the ghosts. Then, the instructor display Poster 5-3 to show one of the ugly mask people can draw and explains what kind of ghost is on the poster and what punishment the ghost is suffering.

3. The instructor hands out the Work Sheet 5-4 to students. Each student is required to draw a picture of his/her imaginary ghost face. Also, students need to write down three sentences describing what kind of ghosts they are to draw and what punishment the ghosts are suffering.

4. After students finish their drawing, the instructor invites some students to share their paintings with the class, and the instructor may compliment students' imagination.

Assessment

Formative assessment

By checking the responses from students while they answer the questions, the instructor will be able to assess if students can follow the lesson and recognize the concept or not.

Summative assessment

At the end of the lesson, the instructor gives students Assessment Sheet 5-4 to assess students' comprehension of the content. The instructor reads each question to students; however, students are required to answer questions on their own.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<td>Needs Improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-30</td>
<td>Study Harder</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Focus Sheet 5-1

Ullambana (Deliverance from Suffering)

Ullambana is a transliteration of the Sanskrit word meaning "deliverance from suffering," and specifically refers to the salvation of anguished souls in Hell. This concept originates from the story of "Mulien Saves His Mother from Hades."

Mulien is a young man who learns that his mother's ghost is being tortured in Hades by starvation and hanging. He embarks on a grueling journey to the underworld to bring food to ease her hunger. On the way to the underworld, Buddha changes his appearance to a young beautiful woman to seduce Mulien. However, Mulien is an honest man, and he is not attracted by the young woman.

Suddenly, a huge river stops Mulien. He cannot do anything about it. Mulien prays to Buddha to help him. Buddha is touched by his piety. He gives Mulien a lotus and helps him across the river. When Mulien arrives in the underworld, he sees the dead suffering due to their past sins. When he finally succeeds in finding his mother, Mulien offers the lotus to her but it erupts into flames before she is able to swallow. Despairing, he begs Sakymuni to show him a way to bring salvation to his mother, and is answered by Buddha, who tells him, "The past sins of your mother are too great for you alone to save her. You must thus find ten monks and pray together on the 15th day of the seventh moon."
Heeding Sakymuni's instructions, Mulien begins a ritual Buddhist fast and chants the sutras until finally he succeeds in releasing his mother from hell. Then, Mulien continues to ask if all the followers could do the same thing when they practice their virtues of filial piety in the future. Buddha answers, "Once the followers do the same thing to their parents in this life, their parents in the past seven lives would also get salvation." Thus, the 15th day of the seventh moon has become an occasion for teaching the virtues of filial piety.

Moreover, in China, Chinese people combine the rituals with the ones from Taoism. People hold ceremonies to deliver their deceased parents and relatives from suffering and to help the outcast and famished ghosts cross over to salvation.
Work Sheet 5-2
Identifying the Story Elements

Name: __________________ Date: __________________

Answer each question to identify the elements of plot, setting and character(s).

1. Who is the main character in this story? ______________

2. What is the problem in the story?

   ____________________________________________

3. Where does Mulien go to save his mother? ______________

4. Does Mulien save his mother at the end? If yes, how?

   ____________________________________________

Arrange the plot in order.

1. __________________________

   2. __________________________

   3. __________________________

   4. __________________________
Some ghosts would try to stay in our world when the gates of the Hades are closing. In order to force them go back to the Hades, you can create a scary ghost mask to threaten these ghosts. Then write three sentences to describe the mask. For example:

I am the liar-ghost. I lied too much when I was alive. I am punished to cut my tongue everyday to suffer the pain from cutting.
Name: ____________________ Date: ____________________

Now it is your turn to create your scary ghost mask. Use your imagination to draw the picture and write down the description of the ghost in three complete sentences.
Assessment Sheet 5-5
The Ghost Festival

Name: ________________ Date: ________________

Read the questions and circle the correct answer according to the content you learned. (10 points/question)

1. What do people do at the Ghost Festival?
   - go tomb sweeping
   - worship the dead

2. Where does the story of Mulien come from?
   - from Buddhism
   - from Aesop fables

3. Where does Mulien go to save his mother?
   - the Hades
   - the heaven

4. What does Mulien see when he is in the underworld?
   - The dead are working or studying.
   - The dead are suffering due to their past sins.

5. Does Mulien save his mother all by himself?
   - Yes, he saves his mother by himself.
   - No, he saves his mother by the help from other monks.
Lesson Six
The Moon Festival and the Harvest Festival

Level: Elementary EFL grades 1-2, intermediate fluency SLA level

Name of unit: The Chinese Festivals

Background: This lesson is the sixth lesson in a six-lesson unit on Chinese festivals.

Time Frame: 60 minutes

Content Objectives
Students will identify the original meaning of the Moon Festival to the Han people and the Harvest Festival to the Amis tribe and the food contracts in culture between the two races.

Learning Objectives
Students will practice using the graphic organizer to review the contracts of diet and culture between the Han and Amis peoples.

Language Objectives
Students will retell the central ideas of the food and diet culture between Han and Amis by applying their notes from the graphic organizer.

Materials
Poster 6-1: The Race/Tribe Distribution in Taiwan
Poster 6-2: Moon Festival (Mid-Autumn Festival)
Focus Sheet 6-3: Food and Diet in Han Culture
Poster 6-4: Harvest Festival (Ilisin)
Focus Sheet 6-5: Food and Diet in Amis Culture
Work Sheet 6-6: Review and Compare the Instruction
Assessment Sheet 6-7: Retelling the Central Ideas
Assessment Sheet 6-8: The Moon Festival and the Harvest Festival

Warm-up activity
The instructor starts this lesson by telling students that there are many races in this world. The instructor uses the Poster 6-1 to display the race distribution in Taiwan. In Taiwan, the biggest race is the Han people. All of national holidays and festivals come from the Han culture. However, there are also several aboriginal tribes in Taiwan.

Task Chain 1: Identifying the origin of the Moon Festival and the Harvest Festival and the diet of the Han and Amis cultures
1. The instructor encourages students to share their experiences about the Moon Festival. The instructor uses Poster 6-2 to show students what activities people do at the Moon Festival. At the Moon Festival, people eat moon cakes and get together to celebrate.

2. After students have shared their experiences, the instructor teaches students that the origin of the Moon Festival is to worship God and to thank Him for giving people food. The instructor explains that in Han culture people value their food a lot. There were many characteristics of the Han food and culture in the past. Then, the instructor uses Focus Sheet 6-3 to demonstrate the characters.

3. The instructor tells students that the biggest aboriginal tribe population-wise in Taiwan is called Amis. In the Amis culture, there is a festival close to the Moon Festival. It is called the Harvest Festival or the Annual Ritual (also called “Ilisin” in Amis Language). The instructor uses Poster 6-4 to introduce
the festival. Amis people also worship the earth spirits to show their appreciation for the harvest.

4. The instructor explains that in the Amis culture, people also value food a lot. There were many characteristics of diet and culture in Amis in the past. Then, the instructor uses Focus Sheet 6-5 to demonstrate these characteristics.

Task Chain 2: Using a graphic organizer to review/compare the differences and the similarities in diet and culture between the Han and Amis people

1. The instructor hands out the Work Sheet F-6 to students. Students are required to use Focus Sheet 6-3 and F-5 to review and compare the characters of the diet and culture between the Han and Amis people.

2. The instructor may model how to apply the information from the focus sheet to the work sheet. By finishing the work sheet, students naturally review the instruction they have learned.

3. When students are doing their work, the instructor circulates through the class and helps students when needed. After all the students are done with their work sheets, the instructor checks the answers with students and asks them to keep their papers and moves on to the next task chain.

Task Chain 3: Retelling the central ideas of the diet and culture between Han and Amis by applying notes from the graphic organizer

1. The instructor models how to use Work Sheet 6-5 to retell the central idea of the diet and culture between Han and Amis.

2. The instructor calls out students individually to have oral presentations by using the work sheet to help them.

3. The instructor uses Assessment Sheet 6-7 to assess and
record students' understanding in different aspects.

Assessment

Formative assessment
The instructor uses Assessment Sheet 6-7 to record students' abilities to review/compare the given instruction and to retell the central idea.

Summative assessment
The instructor does the final review of the content with students. Then, the instructor hands out Assessment Sheet 6-8 and reads each question with students. However, students are required to answer each question by themselves. Students are assessed by their comprehension of the content.

<table>
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<tr>
<td>0-30</td>
<td>Study Harder</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are several aboriginal tribes in Taiwan. Look where they are!
Moon Festival is one of the most important holidays in Chinese culture. In China, the full moon has always represented the gatherings of friends and family. Thus, Moon Festival is a time for family reunions. On this night, families will go together to scenic spots and parks for moon appreciation parties, eating moon-cakes and pomelos in the cool night air and praying for a safe year.

However, when people trace the original meaning of the Moon Festival, they learn that the Moon Festival was a day for ancestors to worship God. Ancestors believed that God blessed his people to have good harvest. Therefore, by the end of the growing season, ancestors got together to thank him.

The Celebratory Food at the Moon Festival

- moon-cakes
- pomelo
Focus Sheet 6-3
Food and Diet in Han Culture

Social status
- Eat meat more than vegetables
  - High social status
- Eat vegetables more than meat
  - Low social status

Han

Food distribution
- Self-sufficiency - People grow and eat their own food.

Main food source
- Farming
  - Rice is the major food.
  - Farmers grow vegetables.

Attitude towards food
- Respectful and thankful
  - People worship God at the Moon Festival.
Harvest Festival is the New Year for the Amis people. The original meaning of the Harvest Festival is to express their appreciation to gods and spirits.
For the Amis of Taitung, the Harvest Festival is held in the middle of July. Northwards to such places as Chi-an Village of Hualien, the festival will be held at the end of August or the beginning of September. At this festival, Amis people get together to celebrate. Drinking wine and dancing are two famous and traditional activities in celebration.
According to the traditional customs, the Harvest Festival must be held at night. At the first night, no women are allowed to join the ritual. However, on the last night, the whole celebration will be ended by women. They dance to send the gods and spirits away.
Food and Diet in Amis Culture

There is no different social status in eating different food in Amis culture because the elders of the tribe will distribute all the food.

Sharing—All the foods will be distributed by the elders of the tribe.

Main food source
- Farming
- Gathering

Rice is the major food.
Most vegetables are gathered from the mountain.

Attitude towards food
- Respectful and thankful

People worship gods and spirits at the Harvest Festival.
Name: ___________________  Date: ___________________

How much do you know about the food and culture of the Han and Amis people? Let us review and compare the information we have learned. Please fill out the blanks in the spaces below.

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<th>Amis</th>
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<td>attitude towards food</td>
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<td>main food source</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Social status in eating different food</td>
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</table>
Assessment Sheet 6-7
Retelling the Central Ideas

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Students' names</th>
<th>Sticks to the topic</th>
<th>Clarity</th>
<th>Correctness of the information</th>
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<td>perfect</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>fair</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Date: ____________________________
Assessment Sheet 6-8
The Moon Festival and the Harvest Festival

Name: ___________________ Date: ___________________

Try to recall the content and answer each question.
(10 points/question)

1. What is the festival for Han people to worship the God for harvest?
   _____ the Moon Festival   _____ the Harvest Festival

2. What is the value behind the Moon Festival in Han culture?
   _____ People like to eat a lot of moon-cakes at the Moon Festival.
   _____ People value food a lot and appreciate the giving from God.

3. What is the main characteristic in the food distribution in the Amis culture?
   _____ sharing food   _____ self-sufficiency

4. How do Amis people get their vegetables?
   _____ from gathering   _____ from farming

5. What do Amies people do at the Harvest Festival?
   _____ They go hiking and have picnics in the mountain.
   _____ They worship the gods and spirits who bless them to have good harvest, and they drink wine and dance for celebration.
REFERENCES


State University San Bernardino.


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