

California State University, San Bernardino

**CSUSB ScholarWorks**

---

Theses Digitization Project

John M. Pfau Library

---

2005

## The role of the program administrator in instructed English as a foreign language

Yei Lun Hung

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.lib.csusb.edu/etd-project>



Part of the [Bilingual, Multilingual, and Multicultural Education Commons](#)

---

### Recommended Citation

Hung, Yei Lun, "The role of the program administrator in instructed English as a foreign language" (2005). *Theses Digitization Project*. 2666.

<https://scholarworks.lib.csusb.edu/etd-project/2666>

This Project is brought to you for free and open access by the John M. Pfau Library at CSUSB ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses Digitization Project by an authorized administrator of CSUSB ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact [scholarworks@csusb.edu](mailto:scholarworks@csusb.edu).

THE ROLE OF THE PROGRAM ADMINISTRATOR IN  
INSTRUCTED ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

---

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

---

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

---

by  
Yei Lun Hung  
December 2005

THE ROLE OF THE PROGRAM ADMINISTRATOR IN  
INSTRUCTED ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

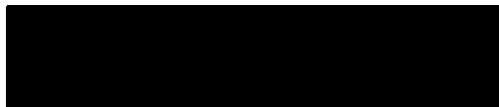
---

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

---

by  
Yei Lun Hung  
December 2005

Approved by:



Dr. Lynne Díaz-Rico, First Reader



Xiwen Zhang, MA, Second Reader

*Nov. 21, 2005*  
Date

## ABSTRACT

This project discusses issues about the role of a program administrator in designing instructional units and managing schools in the English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) context. This project also provides teaching strategies for instruction in teaching speaking in communicative language teaching (CLT) and responding to EFL writing. The various roles of program administrators are outlined, along with approaches to actualize their responsibility to develop better schools.

This project connects the role of the program administrator to instructed second-language learning, instructional design, teaching speaking in a communicative language teaching, and responding to EFL writing. It also provides six instructional lessons and assessments that integrate the five key concepts. This is a handbook for EFL program administrators to organize curriculum, develop teachers, and manage schools.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to extend my most grateful appreciation to my advisor, Dr. Lynne Diaz-Rico. Her hard work and generous teaching inspired me to finish my project. During the difficult times in doing this project, her continuous encouragement and insightful advice moved this project to completion. Without her inspiration, I could not have finished this project so well and quickly. She is the person that I learned the most from teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) and whose teaching I appreciate most in the United States. I am very glad to have her as my first reader. Her teaching attitude will affect my own teaching in the future.

I would like to thank to my beloved mother (Mei Yue Chou) and sister (Ying Fang Hung), and Je Hao Hsu who gave me the most support and encouragement. Without them, I could not have come to United States, studied for my master's degree, and made my dream come true.

My appreciation goes to many people who helped me adapt to life in America, including my grandmother (Feng Jian), aunt (Fen Fen Hung), Jennifer Hsu, Teresa Ting, and Ya Lin Lee. Because of them, I do not feel alone in the United States.

I also thank my classmates in the TESOL program and friends that I know in the California State University for bringing me happiness. I also appreciate professors' positive learning attitudes at CSU, San Bernardino.

Finally, I would like to extend my gratitude to my co-workers and supervisors who helped me grow and mature in my teaching and life.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT .....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS .....	iv
LIST OF TABLES .....	ix
LIST OF FIGURES .....	x
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	
Background of the Project .....	1
Current English Teaching in Taiwan .....	1
Target Teaching Level .....	3
English Classes and Environment in Taiwanese Adult Education .....	4
Purpose of the Project .....	5
Content of the Project .....	6
Significance of the Project .....	6
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	
The Role of the Program Administrator in English Teaching .....	8
Requirements for School Organization .....	9
The Administrator as Organizer .....	11
Conceptual Tools for Effective School Leadership .....	15
The Administrator as Manager .....	18
Staff Selection and Support .....	20
Instructional Design .....	23
The Benefits of Designing Instructional Units .....	24
The Components of Instructional Design .....	26

Curriculum Development and Standards .....	29
The Role of Instructional Designer .....	31
Instructional Models and Approaches .....	34
Pedagogical Implications .....	36
Instructed Second-Language Learning .....	37
Input in a Classroom .....	39
From Input to Knowledge .....	40
The Relationship between Explicit and Implicit Knowledge versus Automatic and Controlled Processing .....	43
Input Processing .....	45
The Role of Form-Focused Instruction .....	46
The Rule of Output .....	47
Pedagogy of Instructed Second-Language Learning .....	48
Teaching Speaking in a Communicative Framework .....	51
Teaching for Communication .....	52
Goals of Communicative Language Teaching .....	54
Speaking Strategies for Communicative Language Teaching .....	56
Response to English Learners' Oral Language Skills .....	61
Responding to English-as-a-Foreign-Language Writing.....	64
Good Reasons for Giving Feedback on Language Errors .....	65



Characteristics of Response to Student Writing .....	67
Various Methods of Responding to Language Errors .....	71
Ways to Help Students Learn to Self-Edit Their Writing .....	72
Problem-Solving Strategies for Students' Errors .....	76
CHAPTER THREE: THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	
Purpose of the Model .....	81
A Theoretical Model of Instructed English Language Teaching .....	83
The Role of a Program Administrator as Manager .....	84
The Responsibility of an Instructional Leader .....	86
CHAPTER FOUR: CURRICULUM DESIGN	
Guidelines for the Instructional Unit .....	89
Content of the Unit Plan .....	90
CHAPTER FIVE: UNIT ASSESSMENT PLAN	
Purpose of Assessment .....	95
Methods of Assessment .....	96
APPENDIX: INSTRUCTIONAL PLAN - COMPARING CULTURE IN TAIWAN AND AMERICA .....	99
REFERENCES .....	163

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. A Shortlisting Form for Candidate Summary .....	22
Table 2. A Suggested Format for a Unit Plan .....	29
Table 3. Student Oral Language Observation Matrix .....	62
Table 4. Grading Symbols .....	73
Table 5. Error Awareness Sheet .....	77
Table 6. Interrelationship between Key Concepts and Lesson Plans .....	92

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Types of Second-Language Knowledge .....	44
Figure 2. The Role of Explicit Knowledge in Second-Language Acquisition .....	46
Figure 3. Trial and Error Process without Feedback .....	67
Figure 4. Sample of Responding to English-as-a- Foreign-Language Writing .....	75
Figure 5. The Role of the Program Administrator in Instructed English-Language Teaching .....	84

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### Background of the Project

English is associated with mass media, technology, power, wealth, education, social status, and the personal quality of worldliness around the world. Knowing English is highly correlated with the use of digital technologies and participation in the Internet. People with fluent English proficiency tend to receive leadership positions in school and community. English proficiency often means advantage in occupational promotions. English keeps communication going around the world. The main goal of learning English is to communicate with people who come from different countries. English is not only a subject in which people learn grammatical and syntax rules but also a good method to communicate with people around the world. However, teaching English should be focused on a communicative approach. The main goal of English teachers is to educate students to use English in their daily lives.

#### Current English Teaching in Taiwan

Most students in Taiwan have better English skills in reading and writing than in listening and speaking. For

the most part, school systems in Taiwan only focus on reading and writing because these skills are easier to evaluate as student learning outcomes in a foreign-language environment. Moreover, Taiwanese high school and college entrance examinations consist mainly of objective questions, such as multiple choice and error identification. This discrete-point testing format evaluates students' knowledge about grammar, rather than their speaking and listening skills. Hence, students tend to learn English by memorizing grammatical rules, vocabulary words, and idioms, often neglecting the functional use of English. That is the reason why most students in Taiwan can read and write but they cannot speak well in English.

Recently, the Taiwanese government has identified this problem and started to advocate teaching more speaking skills in class. However, it is hard for some teachers because they were not taught speaking skills when they were students. They were taught by grammar-translation methods; so they do not know how to teach speaking in a communicative approach. This project may prove helpful for those teachers because it includes teaching strategies that focus on the communicative

approach. Teachers can attain a clearer conception of how to teach students speaking skills.

#### Target Teaching Level

Being an English teacher is a popular job in Taiwan because there are many private language institutions not only for kids but also for adults. In order to be professional, English teachers should have more experience in teaching different levels. When I worked in Taiwan, I had four years teaching experience in K-12 but I did not have experience of teaching adults. Hence, I have focused my target teaching level on adult education because I want more experience in teaching different ages of students. After teaching different ages of students for a few years, I will be a very experienced teacher not only in K-12, but also in adult education.

Adult EFL learners typically range from eighteen to more than sixty years of age. They have different backgrounds and learning attitudes. Teachers need to know goals of adult EFL learners, factors that affect adult EFL learning, and strategies that help adult EFL students to learn. Adult EFL students want to use their classroom experience immediately to communicate with others, to investigate different cultures, to improve their job skills, and to speak English more fluently. Helping adult

EFL students to learn more efficiently is an English teacher's responsibility.

### English Classes and Environment in Taiwanese Adult Education

At present, almost all Taiwanese are interested in learning English. However, even though most people in Taiwan have learned English since they were in junior high schools, they still feel timid about speaking English. Most Taiwanese learners have difficulty in speaking English. According to their English learning experience, school administrators and teachers focus learning outcomes on reading and testing of grammatical rules. Hence, it is important to improve Taiwanese students' speaking skills.

Moreover, writing Chinese and English compositions is totally different. Taiwanese students need teachers to respond to their writing because teachers can explain different methods in writing compositions. In addition, EFL students are prone to have many syntax errors in writing. It is hard for them to correct their own syntax errors by reading their compositions aloud. Because English is a foreign language for Taiwanese students and they do not have rich opportunities to listen, speak, read, and write in English, they need teachers to respond

to their writing and tell them the correct usage in English.

In order to solve these problems, teachers, and administrators should know how to design curricula in instructed English-language teaching. Through these useful teaching strategies, students can learn and use English in practical life, not only use it on tests. Then Taiwanese students can feel comfortable using English to communicate with people around the world.

#### Purpose of the Project

The purpose of this project is to describe strategies that help students improve their communicative speaking skills as well as to provide tactics for teachers to respond to EFL students' writing. This project also provides information about the role of the program administrator in instructed English teaching. This project not only offers useful EFL teaching strategies in speaking and writing but also gives the program administrators tips on organizing schools and designing good instructional units. This project provides strategies for teachers, program administrators, and curriculum designers to conceptualize more clearly how to help EFL students learn English in an effective and communicative context.



emphasis. Teachers and program administrators need to make more effort toward real communication in curriculum development and teaching strategies. The purpose of English is not only to memorize grammar and vocabulary, but also to communicate with others. If schools or teachers address the teaching goal of real communication, it can prompt students to be communicatively active in class. This project can be helpful not only for teachers to learn more useful teaching strategies in teaching speaking and writing but also for program administrators to manage schools and design curricula. This project is also a guidebook for teachers and administrators to learn communicative teaching approaches in instructed English-language teaching.

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### The Role of the Program Administrator in English Teaching

Schools are two things at the same time: institutions and organizations. As institutions, schools are legal entities. Schools assume legally defined responsibilities and they can be held accountable for fulfilling these obligations. Schools are also organizations that connect the individuals to organizations. These relationships are directed "towards the achievement of the goals of the organization, towards maintaining the organizations as a social unit, and towards fulfilling the personal needs of the individuals" (White, Martin, Stimson, & Hodge, 1991, p. 6). Gibson, Ivancevich, and Donnelly (1991) characterized organization design as built by managerial decisions. These decisions concern such aspects as the number and types of jobs in the organization, and the processes that coordinate, control, and link together such aspects as authority relationships, communication networks, specific planning, and organizing techniques. Hence, having professional administrators is crucial for schools. They organize the school curricula, arrange the schedule for the school year, and communicate with teachers,

students, and parents. Even if they were good teachers before, it does not mean that they are good administrators. Being an administrator is a more complex role than being a teacher. Although teachers and administrators are leaders, promoters, and organizers, an administrator's job encompasses the whole school system instead of just the classroom. Administrators are also the bridge between the staff, students, and parents. Having a good administrator is the key to having a good school system. An administrator is just like the spine of the body, connecting the whole school together. °

This paper focuses on how to organize the school system more effectively and also provides a clear, practical guide to the management of an EFL school. It also aims at "achieving high morale and good relationships with management, with a resulting increase in productivity" (Radencich, 1995, p. 101). Administrators who read this paper will be exposed to basic concepts in administration, conceptual tools for effective school leadership, and strategies for selecting teachers for an English-language program.

#### Requirements for School Organization

When organizing a school, administrators face three types of needs: (1) task needs, (2) group needs, and

(3) individual needs. White et al. (1991) pointed out that "the task needs are those which have to be satisfied in order successfully to carry out the work of the organization" (p. 8). For instance, one goal of a private language school is to stay in business and make a profit. Hence, students need to be recruited. Marketing and selling the school's services are key tasks. The first duty for administrators is to fulfill these needs.

The second challenge is to satisfy the group needs. Administrators need to organize the whole staff as a group. If the staff in the school think of themselves as a group, they will make more effort and do their best to improve the school. Hence, administrators need to put effort into promoting group functions in order to fulfill group needs.

The organization in schools is just like a social unit. In order to create a successful group spirit, fulfilling group needs is important. There are seven ways to satisfy group needs: (1) setting standards; (2) maintaining discipline; (3) building team spirit; (4) encouraging, motivating, and giving a sense of purpose; (5) appointing sub-leaders; (6) ensuring communication with the group; and (7) training members of the group (White et al., 1991). When group needs are fulfilled, people who engage in the group think that they are part of

the team. They would like to work harder in order to attain better performance.

How to motivate the individuals to comprise a group is the third set of needs. Administrators need to meet these individual needs. When administrators take care of their needs, the individuals feel satisfied and then they do better jobs in their field. "Meeting individual needs involves the following: (1) attending to personal problems, (2) praising individuals, (3) giving status, (4) recognizing and using individual abilities, (5) training the individual" (White et al., 1991, p. 10). A successful organization means that the staff feels valued and respected. When administrators fulfill the staff's needs, employees will feel comfortable in this working environment, work more effectively, and stay in the group longer.

#### The Administrator as Organizer

Hoyle (1986) pointed out that the ideal organizational process assumed "the establishment of a clear set of achievable goals, the total commitment of organizational members to these goals, the capacity of organizational members to coordinate their activities, and the unequivocal achievement of successful outcomes" (p. 51). School systems are complex organizations so

school administrators also need to be concerned about their needs and goals. An administrator organizes not only the people in the school but also its technology, such as hardware and software.

The most important part of the educational technology in a school is the curriculum. The school curriculum embodies the pedagogical aims of a school and also provides methods and materials in order to achieve those aims (White et al., 1991). There are two models of organization design: the mechanistic model and the organic model. When administrators are designing the organization, they need to think about what model they are going to use.

The Mechanistic Model. The theoretical and practical purpose of a mechanistic organizational structure is to "organize collective activities that stress the need for authority, hierarchies of control, and an explicit chain of command" (Christison & Stoller, 1997, p. 178). A mechanistic organization is one that operates with machinelike precision to accomplish its objectives.

Some characteristics for the mechanistic model are as follows. First, jobholders work only on particular tasks and become experts in those tasks. Managers distribute different responsibilities to the jobholders and combine those tasks for effective performance. Second, all

performance follows a system of rules in order to ensure uniformity and coordination among tasks. Third, jobholders need to report their tasks to managers. Jobholders cannot break the chain of command from top to bottom. Fourth, jobholders need to maintain a social system with other workers. They need to behave impersonally and formally in order to accomplish organizational goals effectively.

Finally, technical qualifications are determined by examinations or diploma certification as basic hiring requirements. Managers are responsible for the performance of the outcomes so jobholders feel loyalty toward the organization.

The Organic Model. The second model represents the most productive organization, one that "maximizes flexibility and adaptability, encourages complete confidence and trust between superiors and subordinates, and taps a wide range of human motivations to achieve organizational goals" (Christison & Stoller, 1997, p. 179). In this model, communication flows between administrators and the staff. Administrators are not autocratic. When administrators need to make decisions, they discuss the issues with the staff. The whole organization requires teamwork. Decision making and control functions communicate throughout the teamwork. Training resources

are provided in order to build employees' value and worth. "The organic organization seeks to provide a supportive environment in which human resources are valued and personal growth and responsibility are stressed" (Christison & Stoller, 1997, p. 180).

Most optimally designed language programs have features of both the organic and mechanistic models. Whether to use the mechanistic or the organic model depends on an administrative setting and size. For example, if a language program depends heavily on part-time teachers, inexperienced teachers, and non-benefits-eligible instructors, administrators need to use more mechanistic than organic techniques. Those teachers may not have enough professional teaching experience to share decision-making responsibility with and give advice to program administrators.

The size of a language program also affects the program design. In small language schools, most administrators also work as full-time or part-time teachers. These school organizational designs must be flexible because if schools are smaller, administrators can manage schools easily and they do not need to spend much time in asking part-time teachers to participate in decision-making meetings. Christison and Stoller (1997)



suggested that "the preferred organization design model for language programs lies closer to the organic end of the continuum than to the mechanistic" (p. 192). Hence, when administrators encourage faculty and staff to participate more in decision-making, they will increase their loyalty and morale, resulting in a more effective language program.

#### Conceptual Tools for Effective School Leadership

There are three types of tasks for language program administrators: (1) technical, (2) human, and (3) conceptual. Technical tasks might consist of keeping program records, controlling the program budget, and recruiting new students; human tasks include hiring faculty and the staff, creating a teamwork environment, holding staff orientation sessions, and assigning work; conceptual tasks comprise time management and planning and organizing the language program (Katz, 1974).

Pennington (1985) pointed out that the ability to handle technical tasks is the most essential mission for an administrator. The ability to deal with conceptual tasks is more important at higher levels of administration. Furthermore, managing human resources is the most difficult task at all levels. Most critical administrative tasks are either human or technical. The least important

o

tasks are technical because they are rule-governed. However, human and technical tasks are often interchangeable according to the different characteristics of organizational design.

Improving Communication. According to Christison and Stoller's theory (1997), a key human and conceptual task faced by all language program administrators is "effective verbal and written communication" (p. 189). Gorton (1987) also pointed out that "the importance of effective communication practices within an organization cannot be overemphasized" (p. 33). Lysaught (1984) stated that "failures in communication lie at the heart of problems in organization, goal setting, productivity and evaluation" (p. 102). Administrators must be good communicators because they need to communicate with staff, students, and parents. People have a great capacity for hearing what they want to hear but sometimes it is not what was actually said. When administrators communicate, they must choose their words very carefully and speak more slowly. Finally, they need to confirm that people understand the actual meaning that they want to express. If administrators want to know the thoughts and ideas of the staff, students, and parents, they must be ready to listen. When administrators really want to communicate with

someone, they need to give enough time to the persons, who can then feel administrators are willing to listen to their thoughts or complaints.

In-service Training. Clear communication and professional development are essential elements to maintain an effective teaching environment. In many language programs, in-service meetings provide time for teachers to meet with their colleagues to discuss curricular concerns, to plan objectives for next term, and to share their teaching experiences. Academic coordinators can encourage teachers to submit proposals for better teaching ideas.

There are some suggestions for administrators to promote teachers' participation. Administrators should encourage teachers to attend workshops or academic conferences. After teachers read a current publication in teaching field, they can discuss it and share research findings or practical teaching strategies with colleagues. Teachers also can offer presentations about teaching aids they have developed, such as flash cards, video cassettes, and other teaching materials. These teaching aids could be gained from workshops, conferences, or from other teachers' experiences. In-service training programs

o

provide time and space to discuss, negotiate, and solve problems.

Administrators need to share power and make decisions with experienced staff members who can provide useful suggestions and information to help a program succeed (Henry, 1995). This affords a chance not only for the staff and administrators to communicate with each other but also for communication among the staff.

Calendars. A term calendar is the basic organizational plan for a language program. It serves as a significant guide for students, teachers, and administrators. Student calendars should include examination dates, special events, field trips, and holidays. Conversely, "the teachers'/administrators' calendars might include all the student information plus notices of professional conference dates, in-service event, faculty meetings, committee meeting, and other information needed only by program personnel" (Christison & Stoller, 1997, p. 191).

#### The Administrator as Manager

If administrators want to know how to organize a school well, they need to learn how to manage the school projects and the staff. "Educational management is the particular process of relating resources to objectives

required in organizations which explicitly exist to provide education" (Paisey, 1981, p. 3). There are seven managerial functions for administrators. The first is analyzing. To properly analyze a situation, administrators need to decide the best plan among several different choices. Second, planning includes forecasting the activity. Third is organizing. Administrators need to organize the procedural steps in order to manage the organization well. Fourth is commanding. The administrators need to tell the staff what to do and give them the right directions respectfully. Controlling is the fifth function for management. Administrators should ensure that the staff work correctly and all activities fit the plan. Sixth is co-ordinating. Administrators need to unify and harmonize activities. Finally, administrators should look back at the whole activity to assess how well the program worked (Rust, 1985).

To be successful, a manager must be concerned about other people's thoughts and feelings. Gordon (1980) stated that "being the leader does not make you one, because leaders don't automatically get the respect and acceptance of their group members" (p. 16). Hence, administrators must learn some skills and methods in order to earn the leadership of the staff and have a positive influence.

Additionally, a manager must have high objectivity, extreme patience, diligence, high sensitivity to any new teaching information, and a capacity to remain calm under pressure (Rust, 1985). Being a manager is not an easy job. Administrators should remind themselves to apply these qualities on a daily basis.

#### Staff Selection and Support

After administrators have learned how to organize and manage the school, they need to find good staff and develop their teaching qualities. A successful administrator can foster positive discipline in school and also coach teachers in effective management. Hence, helping teachers stay up-to-date in the teaching field, showing how other teachers are teaching, understanding what works with students, and negotiating with parents are also parts of administrators' jobs (Ramsey, 1995).

When administrators try to find new staff, the most basic way to select the staff is to hold interviews. The procedure is objective because the purpose of the selection interview is to collect candidates' information. The information is important in order to ascertain each candidate's personality, working experience, and the qualities that are required for the job. In addition, if administrators select candidates who can maintain good

communication with them, the candidates can get used to their new jobs and environments faster.

According to Sullivan's research (2004), the most important standard for teachers is that "teachers create a learning environment that encourages appropriate standards of behavior, positive social interaction, active engagement in learning and self-motivation" (p. 392). When administrators interview candidates, they need to follow those standards to find a good teacher. However, when administrators interview the staff, they need to talk to many interviewees. It is better to have a standard application form as in Table 1. Administrators can save time by reading a number of application forms individually, and then comparing and contrasting different candidates more effectively and clearly. On the shortlisting form, there are job descriptions, person specifications, and also individual comments for different candidates. This helps administrators narrow from a large field to a few candidates (White et al., 1991).

Table 1. A Shortlisting Form for Candidate Summary

SHORTLISTING MATRIX					
List in these columns the skills, qualifications and experience thought to be essential (E) and desirable (D)					
Name of Candidates	E Experienced in Financial Management	E Postgraduate Qualification in EFL	D Knowledge of Computer Applications in ELT and Management	D Experience in Writing Materials for Adult Students	Comments
B. Smith	✓	✓	✗	✓	not available till January
T. Jones	✗	✓	✓	✓	

Source: White, R., Martin, M., Stimson, M., & Hodge, R. (1991). Management in English language teaching (ELT). New York: Cambridge University Press, p. 43.

Being a successful school administrator is not easy because a good administrator should be both a good organizer and a good manager. Administrators need to select qualified staff and develop the staff's teaching knowledge. When administrators organize schools well, the staff can also develop their own abilities in their field of work. In conclusion, administrators need to make good use of the research on which this paper focuses. If an administrator can use these strategies well, developing a school is an easier job for an administrator.



## Instructional Design

The term instructional refers to "the intentional arrangement of experiences, leading to learners acquiring particular capabilities" (Smith & Ragan, 1999, p. 3).

Design means that "actions, processes, or procedures are intended to accomplish a particular outcome or goal" (Zook, 2001, p. 3). When teachers design instruction, they arrange a classroom environment carefully to help learners achieve specific outcomes.

Instructional design refers to "the systematic and reflective process of translating principles of learning and instruction into plans for instructional materials, activities, information resources and evaluation" (Smith & Ragan, 1999, p. 2). Instructional designers plan the process by identifying learning outcomes that learners demonstrate at the end of the teaching-learning process (Zook, 2001).

This paper focuses on ways to design instructional plans for language learners. There are a number of advantages when using instructional design. First, learners are a focus of instruction. During beginning stages of a design project, teachers spend much effort in organizing the learning process and trying to make content clear to learners. Second, the goal of design focuses on

effective instruction. Teachers prepare different kinds of resources that are appropriate to learners' levels. Hence, teachers need to know how to design instructional lessons in an effective way.

### The Benefits of Designing Instructional Units

Ellis, Mackey and Glenn (1988) stated "a unit is a teaching sequence of several weeks' duration in which instruction is based on a central or organizing theme" (p. 81). Many teachers like to design instructional units for their class because those units help them "think about achieving groups of related learning outcomes during particular time intervals throughout the school year" (Zook, 2001, p. 335).

Instructional units are very useful for teachers because teachers can identify the learning goal, develop appropriate sequences to achieve the learning goal, prepare an abundance of resources to help learners, and prepare procedures effectively. It is difficult for students to learn verbal information only or learn procedural skills in a single, isolated activity that is taught in a lesson. If teachers design instructional units, they can integrate learning activities with consistent themes and unifying ideas. Teachers also design units that begin with easy, understandable content and then develop

more complex content. These instructional units help students comprehend more and generate meaningful connections over a period of time (Posner & Rudnitsky, 1997).

Planning units of instruction helps maximize processing depth and employ complex learning structures in learning process. The other benefit of designing instructional units is time management. During the school year, there are numerous subjects, lessons, and learning goals to achieve. Teachers must be effective in time management because it plays the most significant role in maintaining the schedule of topics and achieving instructional objectives within the time available.

Teachers need to divide the school year into several unit topics and make sure that they have enough time to address each important topic and learning goal. Teachers also need to give students enough time to acquire or achieve those goals and teachers can also address learning outcomes which are important for students (Zook, 2001). A teacher who sets precise, well-delineated objectives plans instruction to teach the targeted skills clearly. They also carefully assess the result, counting on most students achieving the desired objectives (Díaz-Rico, 2004). To summarize, instructional units are effective

planning tools. Well-designed units help teachers incorporate large amounts of knowledge into the daily lesson, make decisions about practical teaching activities, and gather useful materials for students.

### The Components of Instructional Design

A good instructional design should involve a variety of language modes, such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, and critical thinking. It needs to connect clear objectives, interesting activities, and assessment (Díaz-Rico, 2004). When teachers design instructional units, they need to think about students' knowledge and interests. Different students have different needs, and gathering information from students helps teachers make good decisions about what to teach and how to teach (Graves, 1996). The first step in designing an instructional unit is to identify a central theme or topic. The unit concept must be a broad idea that can connect with other concepts, rules, principles, verbal information, and attitudes (Zook, 2001).

When teachers have selected one central topic, the next step is to identify instructional goals. The instructional goals describe "the types of general knowledge, understanding, insight and values that learners should take with them from the entire unit" (Zook, 2001,

p. 340). Teachers decide what content students need to learn in order to demonstrate the instructional goals of the unit. This is also called the teaching stage. Setting goals and objectives gives teachers a basis for determining which content and activities are appropriate for the class (Morrison, Ross, & Kemp, 2004).

Then, teachers prepare assessment procedures in order to evaluate whether learners have achieved the instructional goals or not. Johnson (1989) pointed out one of the most important part of determining learning goals is determining learning outcomes. Morrison et al. (2004) also stated that assessment is an ongoing part of teaching because it takes time to establish the kind of rapport with students that allows for a clear understanding of needs, and also help students clarify and focus their needs. Assessment procedures can be done in informal ways, such as using exercises and questionnaires. Assessment procedures also can be done in more formal ways, such as scoring students' presentations and administering tests. Even though most students do not like to have tests for assessment, tests really provide a motivational function for students. When students know they will be tested, they are forced to process information more effectively and use cognitive knowledge to remember those new concepts (Paris,

Lawton, Turner, & Roth, 1991). Thus, testing really helps promote learning.

The final component of designing instructional units is to select learning activities and resources. When teachers want to emphasize proficiency and learning language in context, they need to use as many authentic materials as possible in their class teaching (Omaggio Hadley, 1993). Experienced teachers often prepare a set of flexible materials and practical activities that they can adapt each time when they teach a lesson. Teachers design lessons with activities and materials. It helps students take active roles in reflecting on their learning, determining the content of course, and pursuing projects of interest (Morrison et al., 2004).

Table 2 provides a suggested format for teachers to design an instructional unit. When teachers start to design a unit, they need to follow the procedures. Before teaching a unit, teachers should design the instructional unit well. Then teachers can control the teaching schedule and make good use of time to help students learn effectively. In general, instructional design provides a basic frame of reference for teachers. Well-designed instructional units act as "reminding tools" to help

Table 2. A Suggested Format for a Unit Plan

<u>A Unit Plan</u>		
Grade Level:	Subject:	Unit Topic:
Instructional Goal	What is the learned capability students should be able to <u>demonstrate</u> following instruction?	
Instructional Objective	How will students demonstrate the learned capability for the purpose of <u>assessment</u> ?	
Instructional Resources	What are the learning activities and materials that may help students <u>achieve</u> the instructional goal (as assessed by the instructional objects)?	
Organization of Content	Stage 1: Stage 2: Stage 3:	
Assessment	How will teacher assess the effectiveness of the course and what students have learned?	

Source: Zook, K. B. (2001). Instructional design for classroom teaching and learning. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, p. 351.     o

teachers integrate content, goals, assessments, and useful resources.

### Curriculum Development and Standards

Doll (1996) described curriculum as "the formal and informal content and process by which learners gain

knowledge and understanding, develop skills and alter attitudes, appreciations and values under the auspices of the school" (p. 15). Well-designed curricula help students acquire new knowledge faster and more effectively during learning process.

Eisner (1998) observed that "the curriculum of a school or a course or a classroom can be conceived of as a series of planned events intended to have educational consequences for one or more students" (p. 31). Curriculum design is a process of formulating an educational program with a focus on learning objectives. When teachers design the curriculum, they should follow curriculum standards that help define what teachers and students are required to accomplish.

The purpose of curriculum standards is to "assist with the general coordination of the school curriculum by ensuring that all students receive the opportunity to learn a core of subject matter or knowledge" (Hlebowitsh, 2005, p. 16). Teachers need to be reminded that instruction design should follow curriculum standards. If every teacher does not follow curriculum standards, schools do not have a uniform teaching pattern for students. As a result, students may not be able to connect the knowledge they acquire with their learning outcomes;



the outcome may vary because of different teachers and teaching standards.

Teachers should use the curriculum standards to plan their lessons and provide suitable content for students. A better way of ensuring the teaching connection is to integrate the curriculum standards into the teaching purpose (Hlebowitsh, 2005). When curriculum designers integrate the standards into the curriculum, it helps teachers use right teaching methods in classrooms. When teachers know what is most important for students to learn, they teach and design lessons following the standards. Hence, students can have better learning outcomes because of well-organized school systems.

#### The Role of Instructional Designer

"Instructional designer" is a general term that includes various educators, such as teachers and superintendents. Any educators who are involved in some form of curriculum development, implementation, and evaluation are instructional designers. An instructional designer's role is to "help the learner to design and perform learning, set learning in motion, identify important problems and make them comprehensible, and set up times and places to showcase discovery and report results" (Díaz-Rico, 2004, p. 92).

In 1980, Hunter called attention to an approach called the seven-step lesson or the elements of effective instruction. This approach lists "structural elements of a lesson (anticipatory set, statement of objectives, careful monitoring for understanding, guided and independent practice and a sense of closure) as the foundation for effective pedagogy" (Hlebowitsh, 2005, p. 18). The seven steps of the lesson design are as follows:

1. Anticipatory set: Some teachers start to teach a lesson before they have students' attention. The anticipatory set helps focus students on lessons and calls their attention to what is going to be taught.
2. Objective and purpose: When students are attentive, teachers state what and why they are expected to learn in a clear and concise language.
3. Input: Teachers need to provide hands-on activities or visual demonstrations in order to meet lesson objectives.
4. Modeling: Teachers model the process, skills, and knowledge that is being taught to students. Teachers also preview some errors that students

may make and teach ways that students can correct their own errors.

5. Checking for understanding: Teachers need to check how many students understand a lesson objectives and how much of a percentage they understand. Hunter (1980) noticed that some teachers only called on students who got better grades in class, and even worse, some teachers only responded to students if they had any questions. They also did not make sure students understood the lesson before moving on to the next one.
6. Guided practice: Students learn and practice the lesson objective according to the teacher's guidance. The teacher may write a practice problem on the board and solve it together or ask one student to do it for the whole class.
7. Independent practice: Students work on the exercises associated with the lesson objective. There are various ways to practice the lesson independently, such as homework, exercises in the textbook, and individual assignments in class. (Hlebowitsh, 2005)

A well-planned lesson includes a brief review of previous learning and also presents new content and skills in an understandable way, "as well as offering an opportunity to students to practice using the new skills or material" (Echevarria & Graves, 1998, p. 55). When instructional designers follow the seven steps, they can check and assess their own performance. Effective teachers have high expectation for performance and also convey enthusiasm in their teaching. If teachers use the seven steps in their lesson design, they will find that the instruction is well-organized and students can meet lesson objectives.

#### Instructional Models and Approaches

"Variation is the key to good teaching" (Hlebowitsh, 2005, p. 163). Teachers need to demonstrate lessons in various ways because some students can learn better from multiple instructional methods. There are two main methods of instruction.

Direct Instruction. This kind of instruction is the traditional form of teacher-initiated and teacher-directed instruction. Direct instruction always starts with teachers' presentations, such as lectures or demonstrations. It is followed by guided practice, teacher feedback, and assessment.

Discussion-based Instruction. The use of discussion in class is related to exploring, analyzing, clarifying, and interacting to achieve the main objective during the lesson presentation. Discussion-based instruction means that small groups of students can discuss the lesson and share the outcomes of the lesson. Discussion-based instruction fulfills the curriculum objectives that emphasize oral expression, social mutuality, critical-mindedness, and the development of various social skills.

"Whereas the orientation of direct instruction is teacher demonstration and student practice, the orientation for discussion-based methodologies is teacher facilitation and student discovery" (Hlebowitsh, 2005, p. 165). In other words, discussion-based instruction tries to limit teachers' presentations and encourage students to have meaningful conversations. There are many kinds of activities for teachers to use in discussion-based instruction, such as role-playing, simulation, games, cooperative learning, and so on. When teachers design a lesson for students, they need to have a strong sense about instructional approaches in order to combine the objectives of the curriculum and the best interests of learners together.

## Pedagogical Implications

Jonassen (1988) identified four different information-processing strategies that help learners promote deeper processing. Instructional designers apply these strategies to motivate learners to process the new information in an effective and meaningful way.

The first type of strategy is recall. It is very helpful for learners to recall what they learned before. There are some learning strategies that facilitate recall, such as repetition, rehearsal, and review. The second is integration. It is useful to transfer new information into an easily remembered form for learners. Learners need to use their own words to paraphrase the new content and also generate questions from this information. The third type of strategy is organization, which helps learners analyze, identify, and interrelate the key ideas. When learners acquire new information, they use this strategy to categorize those new concepts. Elaboration is the fourth strategy. It requires learners to add their own ideas to new information. This strategy helps learners develop mental images about new concepts, create physical diagrams, and make their sentences more elaborate.

When instructional designers use those four strategies in every lesson, students can clearly identify

what they are learning and how much they learned from an instructional design. Learners also use the new information well because they acquire it in a well-organized, and integrated process.

Professional teachers intend that all students understand learning goals and also have good outcomes from an instructional unit. Professional teachers also can design and teach their lesson using well-organized teaching methods. Hence, how to design useful instructional units is a key point for teachers. Teachers should use the seven-step instructional plan to design a unit or some other instructional models. Therefore, students can enhance their processing ability and also learn more effectively from multiple instructional methods.

#### Instructed Second-Language Learning

Ellis (1990) divided second-language learning into two different types: instructional and interactional. Instructed second-language learning focuses on learning that takes place in a classroom environment, whereas interactional is a term for second-language acquisition that takes place through conversation. In 1997, Ellis explained the theory of instructed second-language

learning about how learners acquire linguistic and syntax knowledge through organized pedagogy.

Second-language acquisition is a complex process because learners need to learn words, pronunciation, grammar, and sentence structures that are, in many cases, totally different from that of their native languages. There are also differences between classroom learning and the naturalist learning that takes place when learners acquire second language from an environment around them. The important issue for EFL teachers is to help learners reduce the difficulties in acquiring the target language through instruction.

The purpose of studying instructed second-language learning is to provide a set of statements or hypotheses about classroom second-language learning (Ellis, 1990). Spolsky (1989) suggested that a theory of instructed language learning explains four sets of factors: (1) the knowledge and skills that students possess in the learning process, (2) students' abilities, (3) different affective factors such as personality and motivation, and (4) the opportunity and environments for students' learning. Students have different second-language learning outcomes because of different first languages, aptitudes, learning styles, motivations, and personalities.



### Input in a Classroom

Instructed second-language learning means students learn second language through the instruction of grammar rules, vocabulary, and pronunciation in the classroom (Gass & Selinker, 2001). In an EFL classroom, teachers should consider not only the quantity of input but also the quality of the input. There are three sources of input in an EFL classroom: (1) teachers, (2) other learners, and (3) materials such as textbooks, flashcards, and audiotapes.

Lightbown and Spada (1990) observed students during their fifth- to sixth-grade year in a Canadian English-as-a-second-language (ESL) classroom. Many students did not notice the form (verb+ing) in the first few classes. When they had tests, students always made mistakes in the verb form. During the first few months, the verb form was frequent in the textbook and teachers' instruction. At the end of sixth grade, the students did not have as many errors as before. Students improved a lot during a few months.

Second-language learners need to spend much time in learning linguistic and syntax forms. During instructed second-language learning, students learned more accurately and effectively than students who learned from daily

communication (Ellis, 1994); classroom learners learned more rapidly and progressed further than naturalistic learners. Classroom learners were more motivated to learn. Classroom learners also obtain more comprehensible input and benefit from linguistic forms in planned discourse. The studies of naturalistic second-language acquisition have shown that learners do not develop high levels of linguistic accuracy even though they can communicate effectively (Doughty & Williams, 1998). Hence, when teachers try to give students rich input in the classroom, they also need to give students enough time to acquire language and use the input they gain in their communication.

#### From Input to Knowledge

Second-language knowledge is acquired in two stages. First, learners select some features in an environment to pay attention to and transfer features into short-term memory. Second, learners acquire some features by transferring them to long-term memory for permanent storage (Weinstein & Mayer, 1986). When students learn the second language in class, they can compare and contrast the first and second languages, and use their cognitive abilities to acquire information.

In the beginning of learning, input in the second language is not able to be transferred into long-term memory. In order to transfer the input into long-term memory, new knowledge must be automatized. Long-term memory requires continued exposure and more opportunities to use newly acquired structures in a classroom communication (Ellis, 1990). When learners notice input, they process and analyze the knowledge into long-term memory.

Instructed second-language learning is based on two main distinctions. The first is between explicit and implicit knowledge. The second is between controlled and automatic processing.

Explicit Knowledge. The processes of searching, building, and testing of hypotheses incorporate rules of explicit instruction. It is also claimed that "conscious knowledge functions as an acquisition facilitator, enabling the learner to notice L2 [second language] features" (Ellis, 1990, p. 193).

Implicit Knowledge. Ellis (1990) pointed out that when learners gain implicit knowledge, it is subconscious and can be used without any reference to formal rules. It is also an automatic abstraction of the structural nature

of the material arrived at from experience of instances (Ellis, 1994).

According to Krashen's Monitor Model, explicit and implicit knowledge are distinctive. "Acquired knowledge is implicit and learned knowledge is explicit" (Ellis, 1990, p. 185). Explicit and implicit knowledge are stored separately. Ellis (1990) also said "explicit knowledge functions as a facilitator of implicit knowledge by making the learner conscious of linguistic features in the input" (p. 196). Explicit and implicit knowledge are processed differently according to learners' diverse learning processes.

Another important distinction in instructed second-language learning is between controlled and automatic processing. This distinction explains "acquisition as a progression from a more cognitively demanding to a more autonomous stage of performance" (Ellis, 1997, p. 111).

Automatic Processing. When responses have been built up through the same input and pattern of activation, learners process the input, and consistently expose themselves to an environment. Automatization is important in second-language acquisition. It not only improves second-language performance but also enables the release

of learners' attention and encourages learners to make effort toward controlled processing of new second-language forms (VanPatten, 1987).

Controlled Processing. Temporary activation of memory nodes through intentional control is called controlled processing. Learners must engage in target behaviors using factual declarative knowledge and restructure the factual knowledge into a more usable cognitive format (Doughty & Williams, 1998).

Ellis (1997) pointed out that even though controlled processes are easy to set up, alter, and apply to novel situations, they are inefficient because they take time for students to activate. Students need to learn how to use automatic processing in practicing new knowledge because they do not only practice temporary memory nodes. Automatic processing helps students expose and use new language in a real language using environment.

#### The Relationship between Explicit and Implicit Knowledge versus Automatic and Controlled Processing

Figure 1 shows the relationships between explicit/implicit knowledge and automatic/controlled processing. (1) Explicit knowledge and controlled processing can be found when learners begin to use explicit grammatical rules, and intend to apply those

Processing Knowledge	<u>Controlled Processing</u>	<u>Automatic Processing</u>
Explicit	A new explicit rule is used consciously and with deliberate effort.	An old explicit rule is used consciously but with relative speed.
Implicit	A new implicit rule is used without awareness but is accessed slowly and inconsistently.	A fully learnt implicit rule is used without awareness and without effort.

Source: Ellis, R. (1997). SLA research and language teaching.  
Oxford, England: Oxford University Press, p. 112.

Figure 1. Types of Second-Language Knowledge

rules in a consciously and intentionally grammatical exercise. (2) Explicit knowledge and automatic processing occur when learners make regular use of the explicit rules consciously and intentionally, and it can be applied with considerable skill. (3) Implicit knowledge and controlled processing may be found when learners have noticed new grammatical structures in input which allows them to apply it in their own output. (4) Implicit knowledge and automatic processing resemble the intuitive, linguistic knowledge that native speakers use in everyday language (Ellis, 1997).

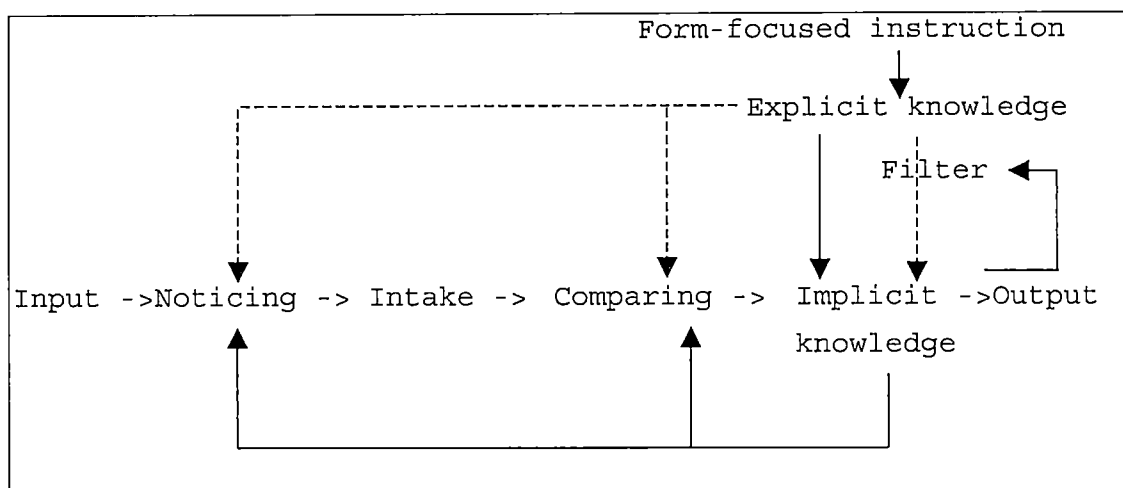
Figure 1 also assumes that "all knowledge starts out as explicit and controlled and does not appear to allow for the possibility that new knowledge can be acquired

directly in its implicit form" (Ellis, 1997, p. 113). To sum up, the acquisition of a new rule is characterized by controlled processing and then by automatic processing. In other words, acquisition of the new second language involves the process of automatizing new knowledge.

### Input Processing

Input processing deals with the conversion of input to intake and focuses on the form-meaning relationships. Schmidt (1990) suggested that second-language learning involves consciousness in four different senses: (1) intentional, (2) consciousness as attention, (3) consciousness as awareness, and (4) consciousness as control. He discussed that when learners progress in input systems, they first focus on conscious attention, and then they can consciously progress to use new linguistic forms.

Figure 2 shows the process of second-language acquisition. When learners acquire output from input, it is in accordance with the learner's internal cognitive and linguistic processing. Schmidt (1990) also pointed out that children notice linguistic features in the input as a result of peripheral attention, whereas adults need to engage in more controlled processing. Hence, explicit knowledge is more important for adult learners, because it helps adults to both observe and process certain



Source: Ellis, R. (1997). *SLA research and language teaching*.  
Oxford, England: Oxford University Press, p. 123.

Figure 2. The Role of Explicit Knowledge in Second-  
Language Acquisition

linguistic properties. In the learning process, teachers need to provide adequate opportunities for meaning-focused communication. Students have more chances to notice, take in, and use the second language. That process fosters the acquisition of implicit knowledge and also helps learners to develop explicit knowledge (Ellis, 1990).

#### The Role of Form-Focused Instruction

The form-focused instruction means that learners are engaged in activities that are specially designed to teach specific grammatical features (Doughty & William, 1998). In form-focused instruction, teachers encourage students to reflect on the formal features of the language and provide students enough input beyond the specific property



which is the instructional target. Doughty and William (1998) said that "the aim of focus-on-form studies is to determine how learners' approximation to the target can be improved through instruction that draws attention to form, but is not isolated from communication" (p. 197).

In summary, not all learners are receptive to instructional input and only learners with a positive affective orientation to learn second language can benefit from the instruction. Teachers should organize lessons not only to focus on form, but also to focus on meaningful communication. Some studies have produced evidence that form-focused instruction has a significant effect on accuracy in communication.

#### The Rule of Output

Ellis (1997) pointed out that "output may also contribute to acquisition" (p. 129). Swain (1995) reported that output may be necessary for learners to achieve higher levels of linguistic and sociolinguistic competence. She added that output benefits acquisition in three principal ways. First, it helps in identifying the gaps. Learners are able to find the gap between what they want to say and what they are able to say through producing second language. Second, output can help test hypotheses. When learners try out the rules, they elicit feedback

indicating whether the rules are incorrect or inappropriate. The output and feedback gained could be used to revise the rules. Third, observations from learners' output could help develop learners' understanding of the second language. Output also contributes to the development of explicit knowledge. According to these three benefits, output can both help create new second-language knowledge and increase the accuracy of their output.

"The implication of this study is that learners require both formal instruction and informal exposure and that the two together work better than either on its own" (Ellis, 1990, p. 132). The more learners use English as a second language, the more proficient they will be applying it in their environment.

#### Pedagogy of Instructed Second-Language Learning

When teachers learn the benefit of instructed second-language learning, they are able to apply it in their practical teaching. Mackey (1999) determined that conversational interaction could alter the developmental progress of second-language acquisition. In her research, there was a positive relationship between interaction and developmental progression in second-language learning. Learners who were involved in structure-focused

interaction progressed more rapidly than learners who did not. The word-order development which contains the movement from one stage to the next stage still needed to be set up through instruction.

Ellis (1990) also pointed out that errors occur because learners had not yet automatized performance and did not have time to make use of controlled processing. Practice can help second-language learners strengthen connections, increase speed of access, and reduce errors. According to cognitive theory, formal instruction can help learners increase their knowledge.

The experimental study of second-language acquisition conducted by Carroll and Swain (1993) showed that all forms of feedback were more effective than no instruction at all. Those subjects who received explicit instruction combined with metalinguistic feedback performed better in extending their knowledge to novel examples than did those who received implicit feedback.

According to Leeman, Arteagoitia, Fridman, and Doughty's research (1995), learners who received focus-on-form instruction had higher rates of accuracy and production of the form than learners in the class that received no focus-on-form instruction. Master (1995) also reported that there is a significant improvement in

article choice among second-language learners of English following an instructional treatment that included detailed feedback, error awareness logs, and metalinguistic discussion that emphasizes form-meaning relationships. The research has shown that learning a second language by formal instruction is better than learning without instruction. Even when learners are exposed to a second-language environment, they still need second-language instruction.

In addition, teachers should not feel frustrated when learners continue using the wrong grammatical structures even after they receive instruction. It takes time for students to internalize rules and use the new rules in a real communicative environment. Students require time to engage in learning processes such as noticing the input, hypothesis formation, testing, and restructuring the second language. Focus-on-form instruction should also be integrated in the whole curriculum, rather than within one single lesson or activity.

In the previous studies, researchers wanted to find out whether formal instruction helped learners. The answer is yes. There are three kinds of evidence to prove this hypothesis. First, instructed learners appear to do better than naturalistic learners. Second, instruction aids the

acquisition of useful formulas. Third, instruction can result in the acquisition of linguistic rules and help learners regulate existing knowledge.

To sum up, teachers need to find methods that assist students to acquire explicit knowledge in the classroom, and also encourage students to gain implicit knowledge in their daily lives. Through instructed learning, students can learn L2 more accurately and efficiently.

#### Teaching Speaking in a Communicative Framework

The main purpose of learning a new language is to communicate with people from different countries. Hence, how to speak a new language is the main point for learning it. Why are many EFL students not good at speaking English? The answer is they do not have an English-speaking environment to practice and speak. For example, many students in Taiwan are afraid to speak English. The major languages in Taiwan are Chinese and Taiwanese. Students do not need to communicate in English in their daily lives except in English classes. Taiwanese teachers like to teach vocabulary words and grammar in class and do not give students enough opportunities to practice speaking English. Entire school systems are just focused on reading and writing English. These are the reasons that why

teaching speaking in a communicative language teaching approach (CLT) is important.

Díaz-Rico (2004) also said teachers should "emphasize language acquisition as a by-product of interesting learning activities, rather than direction of grammars or sentence structure" (p. 39). Hence, this paper focuses on teaching speaking in a communicative language teaching. The main goal of learning English is to teach students to use it in communication. Students can use English when they go aboard for business, travel around the world, learn about other cultures, and communicate with their customers from other countries.

#### Teaching for Communication

"Language is at the heart of modern ELT (English language teaching)" (Edge, 1993, p. 17). Edge (1993) also pointed out communication is not only a part of the learning process but also the goal of language teaching. Communicative language functions help people know how to greet people, request information, provide information, and describe and express their own feelings. Hence, how to connect teaching and communication is important for teachers and administrators.

Communicative Competence. Hymes (1972) was the first person to use the term communicative competence, which

means that when learners acquire a second language, they not only learn grammatical rules but also use the new language in communication. Second-language learners cannot only know grammatical forms, "the competent speaker is recognized as one who knows when, where, and how to use language appropriately" (Díaz-Rico, 2004, p. 56). Canale (1983) stated the four components of communicative competence are grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence.

Grammatical competence reflects knowledge of linguistic codes such as rules of word, spelling, and sentence formation. Sociolinguistic competence includes knowledge of speech acts and involves using the language in a social context appropriately. Discourse competence means involving grammatical forms and meaning together in order to achieve spoken or written goals. Strategic competence refers to the mastery of the communicative strategies that enhance effective communication and compensate for the insufficient competence in actual communication.

When teachers instruct students in a new language, they should combine these four components in teaching. Teachers should build students' grammatical competence first. Then teachers "help students to increase their

skills in sociolinguistic, strategic, and discourse competence by building experiences into the curriculum that involve solving problems, exploring students' areas of interest and designing project" (Díaz-Rico, 2004, p. 56). When teachers organize lessons according to communicative competence, students can use this approach to communicate with people well in the second language.

#### Goals of Communicative Language Teaching

The communicative language teaching (CLT) approach involves a greater emphasis in using the foreign language to communicate between teachers and students. In order to achieve this aim, CLT needs "a considerable amount of exposure to target language and a learner-centered, communication-oriented language instruction based on learner's language learning needs" (Evrin, 2003, p. 2).

Communicative competence helps learners acquire grammatical forms and meaningful communication at the same time. "Communicative competence theory has given rise to communicative language teaching involving social functions of language" (Díaz-Rico, 2004, p. 56). Communicative competence has been viewed as "a function system for the expression of meaning" and communicative language teaching has evolved as "the most prevailing approach in language teaching" (Evrin, 2003, p. 1).



Golebiowska (1990) said that "simulating situations in a foreign language is always artificial" (p. 2). Although students in role-play activities may feel somewhat artificial, these activities provide more opportunities in practicing English. Hence, in order to practice speaking, teachers need to try to create an English-speaking environment so students have more chances to speak English. Even though classroom presentations and contrived simulations that focus on language and language forms are artificial and inadequate, teachers should provide or create enough examples of different kinds of discourse data which students need. One of the most frequent suggestions for second-language learning is that acquisition takes place only to the extent that those learners are exposed to and engaged in a meaningful communication in English (Taylor, 1987). There are two main arguments to support this claim. First, although some learners are successful at learning grammar rules that they have been taught and then using those rules productively, most learners cannot utilize their intellectual understanding of the grammar of the language in real communication. Second, learning can only be achieved by subconsciously acquiring language through

active participation in a real communication conversation (Johnson, 1981).

Communicative Language Teaching. The general trends of EFL methodologies are toward communicative purpose and a social culture emphasis. Teachers' roles are changing from that of traditional authority figures to that of facilitators. This demands more of teachers in terms of time and effort in curriculum development and teaching strategies. Having EFL teachers become more aware of their roles as helpers in the learning process is important now. The role of the teacher is not only to teach but also to develop students' senses of self-management and autonomy, so they can learn more successfully and effectively.

Teachers need to know that teaching second language by communicative teaching methods can achieve the higher standards of students' goals and desires. The most important goal of learning a new language is using the language to discover new information or communicate with people from different countries.

#### Speaking Strategies for Communicative Language Teaching

A communicative language teaching approach provides students with rich opportunities to engage in discourse in a real content. A teacher's responsibility is to create an

atmosphere in which communication is possible. Students also feel free and comfortable to communicate in English. The communicative language teaching approach includes these strategies:

1. Learner-centered teaching strategy: Teachers select the appropriate content that is the need of EFL students. The acquisition of skills or the performance of specific tasks both communicatively useful and relevant to the students' own language needs.
2. Cooperative-learning strategy: Students share information and work together through pairs or group work.
3. Interactive-learning strategy: Students produce language for genuine meaningful communication.
4. Task-based learning strategy: The learning process is viewed as a set of communicative tasks linked to the curricular goals. (Taylor, 1987)

Teachers also need to show EFL students how successful they have been in learning to integrate meaning and communication. Teachers and students can draw communicative learning topics and activities from a variety of sources, such as books, radio, music, movies,

television, magazines, and students' experiences. In order to motivate students to speak out, teachers should choose practical, meaningful, and interesting resources according to their English levels. Hence, if teachers use communicative language teaching strategies well, students will not feel learning English is boring.

Morrow (1981) pointed out that the skills or performance of specific tasks should be both communicatively useful and relevant to students' own particular language needs. Students need to know that the goal of learning English is to communicate with people from different countries. In order to accomplish this need, teachers should instruct lessons applying to the communicative language teaching approach.

It is also necessary for second/foreign language learners to start with pronunciation drills. Most Taiwanese students are afraid of speaking English because of their poor pronunciation. They are shy to speak out and use English because some people may laugh at their poor pronunciation. Their English does not improve because they have few chances to practice.

In Taiwan, the poor pronunciation could also be the result of insufficient practice in pronunciation drills in English in classrooms, where the main emphasis is on

reading comprehension and vocabulary building (Feng, 2000). Here are some useful teaching strategies for pronunciation as follows:

1. Using similar sounds as in Mandarin whenever possible.
2. Teaching placement of tongue, lips, and teeth.
3. Training students to listen and identify their own errors or errors of other students.
4. Encouraging students to listen to the radio or watch English TV programs.
5. Scheduling more classroom practice in minimal pairs monitored by teachers. (Ling et al., 2003)

When EFL students attain better pronunciation, they have more confidence to speak English in or out of class. Teachers should also encourage them not to be afraid of making mistakes in language learning. The old saying is that "practice makes perfect."

Communication Games as Learning Strategies. Gibbon (1993) described communication games as activities that create the opportunities and purposes for verbal communication practice in a classroom. The steps for teaching communicative games are identifying a language need, modeling games, organizing pairs or groups, guiding

practice, and talking about experiences (Herrell & Jordan, 2004).

First, teachers identify a language function and learning goals for students. Second, teachers need to find one or two students to demonstrate the game and then explain the rules carefully. The next step is to organize the students in pairs or small groups. In each group, there should be some advanced students and some lower-level students.

When students start to do the activity, teachers walk around classrooms and provide support and encouragement. After the activity, teachers ask students to share experiences and find the solution to their problems. When teachers use these steps in their communication games, students can identify the main purpose of this game and use the new language well in communicating with other group members.

Communicative language teaching needs to have "greater use of games and communicative activities, which lighten the spirit of learning, reduce the affective filter, add excitement to the lesson, and make review and practice more fun" (Díaz-Rico, 2004, p. 57). Teachers need to use communicative games to create an English-speaking environment to help students speak out.

## Response to English Learners' Oral Language Skills

Peregoy and Boyle (2001) indicated the ways to "document and assess students' oral language progress through classroom observation using checklists, anecdotal observations, and a structured oral language observation instrument called the Student Oral Language Observation Matrix" (SOLOM, see Table 3) (p. 131). The SOLOM focuses on comprehension, fluency, vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. Teachers can ascertain the students' strengths and weaknesses individually according to the SOLOM. When teachers know which parts that students cannot perform well, teachers can emphasize them and give effective suggestions according to the outcomes for particular students. During day-to-day classroom activities, teachers can know exactly whether students have improved or not.

On the SOLOM form, each trait receives a rating from 1 to 5 according to the standards. Teachers can also write a description about the evaluation standards on the SOLOM. From the SOLOM form, students can understand the way that teachers calculate. In order to know each student's progress in English oral language development, teachers fill out one observation form per student and observe in several different contexts such as formal presentations,

Table 3. Student Oral Language Observation Matrix

<u>Five Oral Language Traits</u>	1	2	3	4	5
A. Comprehension					
B. Fluency					
C. Vocabulary					
D. Pronunciation					
E. Grammar					

Source: Peregoy, S. F., & Boyle, O. F. (2001). Reading, writing & learning in ESL (3rd ed.). New York: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.

group works, and other communicative activities. When teachers evaluate students and give individual responses to each student, the outcomes of students' oral performance will be richer, more natural, and more accurate.

Teachers should also create an atmosphere of acceptance when responding to students' speaking. Wharton and Race (1999) pointed out that many foreign-language learners feel threatened when they speak a foreign language. Teachers can help learners get rid of these fears by encouraging them and responding with respect.



Hence, students have enough confidence to encourage themselves and try to use a new language.

Nowadays EFL teachers should shift from conventional lecture approaches to student-centered and hands-on practices, with the emphasis on the whole context to promote students' thinking abilities. Teaching speaking using communicative language teaching is the mainstream in English teaching. If teachers and students use these strategies well, classes will be exciting, interesting, and satisfying.

People develop a language best by observing and engaging in authentic communication because they need purposeful language learning. A language should be used in situations that are meaningful and useful to participants. Learning a language cannot only focus on grammatical rules. School curricula should emphasize listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Teachers and administrators need to develop school curriculum and more flexible teaching methods and also put more emphasis on listening and speaking, especially for EFL students. Teachers need to create a more communicative environment to help students interact in the target language. Teachers should keep in mind that the role of a teacher is to help students

acquire a new language by using it rather than only by studying it.

#### Responding to English-as-a-Foreign-Language Writing

Teaching writing to EFL learners is different from teaching writing to native speakers of English. How to help EFL students write academic and professional compositions is important for EFL teachers. Among the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) of second-language acquisition, the most difficult skill for EFL learners is writing. If EFL learners focus on an academic field, they must learn to write professional English compositions. Additionally, EFL learners may want to publish their research in English, because they can reach the world with their professional thoughts and ideas. The best way is to have good academic writing skills.

Furthermore, EFL students write English compositions by translating from their native language to English. Thus, English native speakers have a hard time comprehending EFL learners' writing because of different grammatical and syntax structures. For example Chinese students may not state their points clearly in English. When writing a Chinese composition, they are expected to state their point indirectly. The writer cannot simply give the reader

the key point in the first paragraph. Chinese writers are taught to give the key point in a subsequent paragraph. That kind of thinking and writing style is common in Chinese composition but it is confusing and vague to English-speaking readers. Therefore, in order to improve EFL students' writing, EFL teachers need to point out important rhetorical differences to avoid veering off the topic.

#### Good Reasons for Giving Feedback on Language Errors

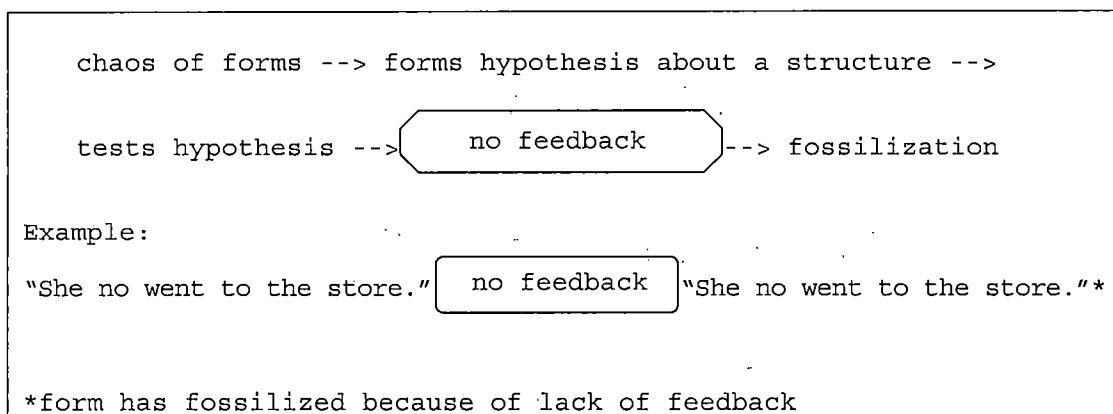
In mastering a foreign language through the combination of acquisition and learning, learners move through development stages in which they produce interlanguage (Selinker, 1972). Learners need to acquire a series of forms through interlanguage stages. This is accomplished through hypothesis formation.

First, the learner forms a hypothesis about the structure of the foreign language. Second, the learner tests these hypotheses in production such as speaking and writing. Third, the learner receives feedback from readers or listeners. Fourth, the learner modifies these hypotheses based on feedback received. These hypotheses help the learner learn the correct form.

The learner gradually acquires the accurate form using interlanguage approximations. However, if the learner does not receive corrective feedback, the incorrect form will become fossilized in the student's linguistic system (Vigil & Oller, 1976).

In order to help students have a high standard of academic and professional writing, they should have a high rate of grammatical accuracy. A teacher's response to EFL writing is important in order for English learners to learn writing skills. They are not like native speakers who may have used academic English in writing for a long time. Feedback on errors helps students create a balance of fluency and accuracy in their writing. Feedback on sentence errors plays a crucial role in the first part of the analysis process. If teachers do not correct EFL learners' errors, some learners cannot effectively begin the trial and error process (see Figure 3) because they do not know what their sentence errors are. EFL students learn their grammatical structures only by school instruction.

Most EFL teachers are not English-native speakers. They give limited information about academic writing in English, and it is one reason that most EFL students do not know how to edit and improve their academic writing.



Source: Bates, L., Lane, J., & Lange, E. (1993). Writing clearly: Responding to ESL composition. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Figure 3. Trial and Error Process without Feedback

In order to prevent and overcome errors in EFL students' writing, linguists suggest that students (especially at the high intermediate and advanced stages) use formal systems of error analysis, the type of systematic approach to error analysis which involves EFL students in conscious study of sentence errors (Bates, Lane, & Lange, 1993).

#### Characteristics of Response to Student Writing

In an EFL composition, sentence-level errors are the most noticeable features because EFL learners are not familiar with different usages of words, sentences, and grammatical structures. "In order to help EFL students be successful at error analysis and thus move forward in both fluency and accuracy, EFL students need sentence level

feedback that is accurate, clear, consistent, and selective" (Bates et al., 1993, p. 16).

Campbell (1998) wrote a report about how an EFL writing teacher responded to her students' papers in the process of writing. Amy Tickle taught ESL writing at Michigan State University. She thought the most important aspect of writing for EFL students was to find out the purpose of the students' paper. When she saw the first draft of a student's paper, she sat down with the student and explained the purpose for writing.

Amy Tickle's past experience has shown that most writers have never thought about the purpose of their writing, so they have little information or concrete ideas in their papers. However, when students begin to understand the concept, they can be better writers and also get excited about writing. She said she did not want to spend two hours grading a paper for grammar when none of it is related to the writer's intended purpose. She wanted students to think of their writing purpose and connect it to the topic. Those were the reasons why she thought responding to and finding out the purpose of writing were important.

Tickle indicated when she did not understand the writer's meaning, she could not move on to the

organizational features of the paper such as rhetorical style, whether paragraphs had topic sentences, and whether the writer had an effective introduction and a conclusion. The final part of organizational features of a paper is to give feedback on sentence level and mechanical issues. Campbell (1998) also pointed out that when "content, rhetoric and organization have been drafted and redrafted, it is important to move on to the sentence-level issues of grammar, spelling, and mechanics" (p. 64).

Response to Content in Writing. Previous research on EFL writers (Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990) found that the majority of EFL writers desire and appreciate feedback on content. Advanced EFL students are willing to discover their own writing errors and it helps them correct their errors in their academic writing.

There are four ways teachers can effectively respond to content. First, the teacher needs to write personalized comments. The teacher also needs to be an interested reader who makes warm comments on the elements in the text. The comments should also reflect the personal reaction or response to the ideas in students' papers. Such comments should not only encourage students to continue writing but also contribute to the students' development and the sense of how to compose their academic writing. Second, teachers

should also provide guidance or direction when it is necessary. EFL students are inexperienced in academic writing or may lack knowledge of the rhetorical structures in English. If teachers can provide appropriate methods, students can revise the academic writing properly. Third, the research shows that text-specific comments are helpful for EFL students. Students like to see the text-specific comments because it shows the teacher is attentive to their writing. As motivators and collaborators for EFL students, it is important to give positive and negative feedback. Fourth, teachers should make positive and effective comments so that students can more easily receive negative feedback on content and sentence-level structures.

When should teachers give students feedback during the writing process? Some experienced instructors suggest that teachers can give students response on the final draft. When I recall taking Education 306 (Expository Writing), my professor asked the classmates to peer review the first and second drafts. In the final draft, he would respond to my paper and show the value of doing these drafts. He also encouraged EFL students to try their best on the writing projects.



### Various Methods of Responding to Language Errors

Teachers can respond to content and language errors in the margins, or in an end comment. However, teachers need to avoid overwhelming students with too many comments. Otherwise, when EFL students see a lot of comments on their papers, they feel frustrated and lose their confidence in writing academic compositions (Lane & Lange, 2005).

When teachers respond to the paper and find out students have verb-tense problems, teachers can only focus on that part. Teachers should prioritize the most serious errors that affect comprehension of the text. Teachers' response can be either formative (immediate intervention in discrete parts on essay) or summative (a response that is an overview of more general considerations in an essay) (Reid, 1993).

However, no matter what kinds of methods teachers use, the main goal is to help students learn accurate and academic writing skills. In Writing Clearly, Lane and Lange (1993) have used the terms global and local for sentence-level errors to identify the errors with grading symbols.

Global Errors. The authors called all verb-tense errors global errors in order to show they are among the

most serious errors in writing. In English, people represent the different tenses according to declension of verb forms. Verb errors usually obstruct understanding because they confuse the core meaning of the work.

Local Errors. The authors stated that local language errors do not affect overall comprehensibility. For example, students may use incorrect subject-verb agreement or be missing an article. These errors, while distracting, do not hinder understanding of the text. People still can understand what the writer wants to say.

Table 4 explains these terms more clearly. According to these terms, instructors and students can distinguish the errors they make. In addition, there are still other errors that are commonly made by native speakers.

#### Ways to Help Students Learn to Self-Edit Their Writing

Teachers need to provide students with enough opportunities for peer editing and feedback. In class, teachers should have discussions about editing strategies and about their revising strategies to help students learn how to self-edit and peer review their own writing. When teachers ask students about their approach to revising and editing compositions, they know students' problems in

!

Table 4. Grading Symbols

<u>Symbol</u>	<u>Explanation</u>
<u>Global Errors--More Serious Errors</u>	
vt	incorrect verb tense
vf	verb incorrectly formed
modal	incorrect use of formation of a model
cond	incorrect use or formation of a conditional sentence
ss	incorrect sentence structure
wo	incorrect or awkward word order
conn	incorrect or missing connector
pass	incorrect formation or use of passive voice
unclear	unclear message
<u>Local Errors--Less Serious Errors</u>	
sv	incorrect subject-verb agreement
art	incorrect or missing article
num	problem with the singular or plural of a noun
<u>Other Errors</u>	
cap	Capitalization--capital letter needed
coh	coherence--one idea does not lead to the next
cs	comma splice--two independent clauses joined by a comma
dm	dangling modifier--phrase or clause with no word to identify in a sentence
frag	Fragment--incomplete sentence
lc	lower case--words incorrectly capitalized
p	Punctuation--punctuation incorrect or missing
pro ref	pronoun reference/agreement--pronoun reference
pro agree	unclear or agreement incorrect
ro	run-on--two independent clauses jointed with no punctuation
sp	spelling error--word incorrectly spelled

Source: Bates, L., Lane, J., & Lange, E. (1993). Writing clearly: Responding to ESL composition. Boston: Heinle & Heinle, p. 35.

their writing. Figure 4 is an example to show how to find and mark the errors by using the grading symbols. At the end of the writing, the teacher also wrote a comment, stating that the reader does not know if the writer still has the car because of verb tense problems common to the EFL writer. When students get the response from teachers, they have more clear ideas about self-editing their writing. Revising in response to comments also helps students think about their grammatical errors and know how the errors obstruct the reader's understanding. It is a good way to help students recognize their writing problems.

Peer Review. Peer review means responding and evaluating other classmates' writing. Peer review can also provide a context for a variety of thinking, writing, speaking, learning, and role-play situations. Students need to read other classmates' writing, and understand, analyze, and discuss it with the peer reviewers. When they are reading others' papers, they may think about their own writing problems or similar complications. During this process, students learn to self-edit their own writing. When peer response groups offer an additional audience for student writers, there are three advantages: (a) students spend more time working on writing and analyzing

First of all, [car was expensive in mind] . I had has  
 1982 Toyota cellica. I spend about two thousand for car  
 every year. Many people should ask me why car was cost  
 me so much money. I had to buy car insurance and gas.  
 Sometimes the car broken down. I should by supply to  
 repair it. If I didn't have the car, I would have the  
 trouble. I use the car to drive to school, work every  
 day.

Source: Bates, L., Lane, J., & Lange, E. (1993). Writing  
 clearly: Responding to ESL composition. Boston: Heinle  
 & Heinle, p. 81.

Figure 4. Sample of Responding to English-as-a-Foreign-  
 Language Writing

their writing systems; (b) students learn that different  
 readers have different reactions, showing there are more  
 ways to express their writing; and (c) students work on  
 their oral skills as well as their writing skills. This is  
 very important for EFL learners because the best way to  
 learn a language is to learn the four skills at one time  
 (Blanton, 1992).

In addition, the steps of the writing process are  
 prewriting, drafting, responding and revising,  
 proofreading and editing, publishing, and assessment  
 (Wilkinson, McNutt, & Friedman, 2003). Students who

maintain the writing process in their minds can use the process effectively to focus on the topic as they write. When students proofread or peer review others' writing, they can transfer the critical thinking from concept to product through listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Error Awareness Sheet. The authors stated that an error awareness sheet (Table 5) can also help EFL students discover their own sentence-level errors. After receiving the feedback, students need to put checks in the second column and determine what kind of errors they make frequently. Then, they need to work on the global errors first and discover top priority errors on which to concentrate. When students start on the next essay, they can put more emphasis on avoiding those types of errors. Students can improve from essay to essay and track how much progress they are making in reducing errors.

#### Problem-Solving Strategies for Students' Errors

When teachers begin to help students self-monitor their writing, they need to teach students to set realistic goals. First, students need to understand that achieving total accuracy in writing is probably not

Table 5. Error Awareness Sheet

<u>Type of Error</u>	<u>Total Number of Errors</u>	<u>Top Priority Errors to Work On</u>
<u>Global Errors--More Serious Errors</u>		
vt		
vf		
modal		
cond		
ss		
wo		
conn		
pass		
unclear		
<u>Local Errors--Less Serious Errors</u>		
sv		
art		
num		
wc		
wf		
nonidiom		
<u>Other Errors</u>		
cap		
coh		
cs		
dm		
frag		
lc		
p		
pro ref		
pro agree		
ro		
sp		

Source: Bates, L., Lane, J., & Lange, E. (1993). Writing clearly: Responding to ESL composition. Boston: Heinle & Heinle, p. 90.

realistic, but they can reduce the number of errors. Second, students need to be aware that reducing error occurrence in writing can be a slow process, especially when the errors are fossilized (Bates et al., 1993).

However, problem-solving strategies are the best ways to reduce errors. The problem-solving strategies help students learn how to understand what the errors are, correct the errors, and determine the cause of the errors (Bates et al., 1993). Research also suggests that when students revise their essays, they need to revise whole sentences instead of simply correcting single words or phrases. If students revise the whole sentence, they can organize and check the grammatical rules more carefully. EFL learners should also spend more time thinking about the errors they make and use modification of the correct form instead of fossilization.

When students check errors and practice reducing their frequency, it will help them learn grammatical rules. This is why teachers need to spend a lot of time correcting and giving feedback to students with grading symbols; because the less often teachers tell students direct answers, the more students learn. When students revise the sentences on their own, they are forced to use a dictionary, or work with a native speaker. Research also



states that students benefit from determining the underlying causes of their sentence errors when they can explain those errors (Raimes, 1991). Once students understand the reasons behind the error which results from a translation or a hypothesis about a new language, they might accept that the error signals progress in gaining second-language proficiency because it is a kind of language acquisition.

Today, teachers' roles are moving away from "the traditional representation of teacher to an acceptance of the teacher as co-interpreter of student writing and facilitator of the revision process" (Lawson, Ryan, & Winterowd, 1990, p. 87). EFL students require responses to their academic writing in both form and content. To achieve authenticity in writing, Johnson (1989) pointed out that teachers should help students choose from a variety of topics that they can write on and select topics that are interesting to them. Teachers also need to encourage students to have confidence to write just like native speakers (Smith, 1991). When students have enough confidence on their own writing, they will love to write and even keep diaries in English.

Feedback should begin early in the process with discussion of the initial plan and ideas for writing.

Comments which are written from teachers or peers on students' writing help writers communicate more effectively. Such feedback should be informative and detailed enough to help students revise the essay. When students write, receive responses about their writing, and revise drafts, teachers should help students feel good about what they have done and realize that the process improves their writing. Teachers also assist students in their academic writing and help students become colleagues or teachers in the writing process. In the past, teachers focused on evaluating students' products. Now teachers have become co-interpreters to help students to write and progress in their writing. Through those effective responses, EFL students can learn how to write in an academic field. EFL teachers also find effective ways to assist and motivate students to enjoy writing.

## CHAPTER THREE

### THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

#### Purpose of the Model

In Taiwan, there are more and more English-language schools. Hence, there are many experienced teachers who are asked to be program administrators. Although those teachers know how to be good instructors, they do not necessary know how to be good administrators. Being a teacher is different from being a program administrator. The responsibility of a teacher is only to teach students. However, the responsibilities of a program administrator are to design curricula, determine school schedules, and also manage teachers as they develop and deliver daily educational plans. However, some program administrators may be good at designing instructional plans, but have difficulty retaining good teachers to work for their schools. The result is that students are always changing teachers. Parents complain a lot about the fact that teachers change all the time. Students' outcomes are poor because they need time to get used to new teachers. Program administrators often do not have enough time to communicate to teachers clearly about their teaching goals because teachers turn over too fast. Although program

administrators design very good instructional plans, there are not enough good teachers to teach these lessons and students still cannot attain adequate outcomes from instruction.

Yet there are other program administrators who are very good at managing people and school work, but they do not know how to design good curricula for students. When students are learning the curricula, their outcomes are fragmented because students' learning processes are not good-directed. Some program administrators do not provide enough support for teachers and students as they engage in learning and teaching. Even if this kind of program administrator is good at managing teachers, students in these schools still may not have good learning outcomes. Program administrators are not considered good unless they can train teachers to deliver quality instruction.

A good program administrator should learn how to design instructional plans as well as manage people. A really professional program administrator can manage teachers well so that they are happy to work at the school. Students improve a lot and students' learning outcomes are better than in other schools. Program administrators who satisfy both teachers' and students' needs might be deemed "good" administrators.

Even if program administrators know how to design good instructional units, they still need to make sure that teachers are on the right path. Sometimes even though instructional designers create good lessons, teachers do not use appropriate teaching strategies to carry out the lessons. The result is that students do not benefit from good administration. Hence, program administrators should know how to design curricula and also convey useful teaching concepts to teachers through in-service meetings. The role of a program administrator is to connect the management of schools with effective teaching strategies. A good administrator needs not only good management ability but also effective teaching skills.

#### A Theoretical Model of Instructed English Language Teaching

Figure 5 presents a theoretical model that describes the responsibilities of a program administrator. This model integrates five main concepts that were described in Chapter Two. This model is divided into two categories: administrators as managers and administrators as instructional leaders. The first part represents the role of a program administrator in managing and organizing schools. The duties of a program administrator as instructional leader applied to instructional design and

<u>Administrator as Manager</u>	<u>Administrator as Instructional Leader</u>	
1. School organization	Instructional Design	Delivery in Instructed Second-Language Learning
2. Mechanistic model versus organic model		
3. Conceptual tools for effective school leadership	1. Models and approaches to instructional design	1. Teaching listening
4. Staff selection	2. Components of instructional design	2. Teaching reading
	3. Curriculum development addressing standards	3. Teaching speaking <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Speaking for communication</li> <li>• Promoting speaking skills</li> </ul>
		4. Teaching writing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Academic genres of writing</li> <li>• Responding to writing</li> </ul>

Figure 5. The Role of the Program Administrator in Instructed English-Language Teaching

delivery in instructed second-language learning are outlined in the figure.

#### The Role of a Program Administrator as Manager

Most program administrators come from pools of experienced teachers. When they become program administrators, teaching and designing curricula are not difficult for them, but how to manage the staff is their chief challenge. Before, when they taught in the

classroom, they did not need to concern themselves with how to organize other teachers nor care about their feelings. Their main responsibility was to teach students in their own classes to understand subject concepts. However, now they need to accommodate not only students' needs, but also teachers' and parents' needs. Moreover, the relationships between program administrators and teachers must be cooperative, even during conflict. Program administrators need to remind teachers to follow school rules and also monitor the quality of their teaching. Although program administrators and teachers often work together, sometimes program administrators also need to judge teachers' performance. Thus, it is difficult for program administrators to balance their relationships with teachers.

According to administrative setting and size, program administrators need to decide if they are going to use the mechanistic model, which operates with machinelike precision, or the organic model, in which flexible communication flows in the school organization. No matter what model program administrators are going to use, they need to make good use of conceptual tools for effective school leadership. Program administrators need to improve communication among teachers, students, and parents. They

also need to define and accomplish their individual needs. Providing enough training for teachers is the duty of program administrators. When teachers are satisfied in their positions, they work harder to achieve higher goals. That is not only good for teachers but also good for students and schools.

### The Responsibility of an Instructional Leader

When teachers are on track toward meeting school expectations, program administrators can start to work on delivery in instructed second-language teaching. This theoretical model divides an instructional leader's role into two parts: one is instructional design and the other is delivery in instructed second-language learning. In order to improve students' communication in English, instructional designers should use more discussion-based models in the curriculum and also four information-processing strategies in their teaching. If instructional designers apply these strategies (recall, integration, organization, and elaboration) to students' learning processes, students can accomplish the learning objective more easily and effectively. If they have well-developed curricula, students can use knowledge they have learned before to apply to their new objectives. When they process and recall the input again and again, it



helps them to transfer short-term memory to long-term memory more easily.

A good curriculum not only means a good lesson. When teachers convey the curriculum properly, and students achieve learning goals, it results in a good curriculum. Program administrators need to use their professional knowledge to affect language teaching.

In English teaching, four language skills are listening, reading, speaking, and writing. In Taiwan most English learners have a better ability in reading English than speaking and writing. They do not feel comfortable in producing English. Therefore, program administrators in Taiwan need to make greater effort in achieving quality teaching in speaking and writing. Taiwanese students have been trained to be good at reading English because of the traditional school curriculum. However, nowadays program administrators need to focus on teaching speaking and writing in order to improve students' communicative skills in English. Teaching objectives should focus on teaching students how to communicate with people. They need to learn something useful that they can apply to their daily lives. Instructional designers should focus on how to motivate students to speak aloud and also give them courses on pronunciation and making presentations.

In addition, Taiwanese students really need teachers to help them identify contrasting writing skills in English and Chinese. When students write compositions in Chinese, the first paragraph does not contain the main idea of the paper. The key concept should be put in the third paragraph. However, in English composition, the key concept is always written in the first paragraph. Taiwanese students require teachers to respond to their writing clearly. Responding to students' writing helps them not to repeat the same errors again and also to improve their writing skills.

Program administrators should help students enjoy speaking and writing in a real communication setting. The role of a program administrator should provide a enjoyable schooling environment for teachers and students, where teachers can talk about the problems they have in teaching and also work out solutions together. They should also feel free to share and discuss their teaching experiences with program administrators. All the school should be moving fast and everyone should feel comfortable. This kind of school provides a good environment for students and teachers to learn and grow. How to create a productive teaching and learning environment is a very important goal and responsibility for EFL program administrators.

o

CHAPTER FOUR  
CURRICULUM DESIGN

Guidelines for the Instructional Unit

The main purpose of the instructional unit is to improve English learners' skills in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. It also provides teaching strategies to help instructors in designing the curriculum. The instructional unit consists of six lessons (see Appendix), mainly focusing on teaching speaking and writing using communicative language teaching. The target teaching level is EFL learners in adult education at the intermediate level. Comparing and contrasting the differences between Chinese and American culture is the main theme of the six lessons. There are three main topics: Chinese and American food, Chinese New Year, and Chinese zodiac signs. Lesson One, Three, and Five introduce the topics. Students learn about the basic concepts and basic vocabulary words in these beginning lessons. Lessons Two, Four, and Six are more advanced lessons and contain articles that deepen the topics. These are designed for adult learners who can learn something they can talk about and discuss in their daily lives. The outcomes of this unit benefit English learners by developing their skills in speaking and

writing in English. Students have rich opportunities to become familiar with different cultures and communicate with people in English.

#### Content of the Unit Plan

Program administrators learn how to organize lessons and address learners' needs. This unit focuses on improving English learners' ability to speak and use their language in class. Hence, it provides lots of speaking and discussion opportunities within the six lessons. Each lesson contains three objectives. The first is the content objective. The content objective describes the subject of the lesson, what students learn in class. The second is the language objective that combines listening, speaking, reading, or writing in the lesson. The third is the learning-strategy objective, a strategy that students can learn in one lesson and then apply in the future. In each lesson, there are also three task chains that match the specific objectives. The instructors start with a warm-up activity to motivate and attract students' attention about the topic they are going to learn in this class. Three task chains follow the warm-up activity. The instructor describes the procedures of the lesson in detail. Each task chain needs to match a performance objective. During

the three task chains, the instructor can observe and evaluate students' learning processes.

The final part of the lesson is assessment, which can consist of tests or oral presentations. Students can evaluate only their own learning outcomes or they can also evaluate the instructor's teaching process. Materials suggested for teaching the six lessons are focus sheets, work sheets, assessment sheets, and evaluation rubrics. Teachers can also use some teaching aids, such as flash cards, as well as pictures.

The content of this unit ties together the review of literature (Chapter Two) and the theoretical model (Chapter Three). This instructional unit promotes communicative language teaching and EFL students' writing. It also provides guidelines for program administrators to design curricula for instructed second-language learning (see Table 6).

In Lesson One, students can identify the differences between Chinese and American food. The language objective for this lesson is using speaking skills in communicative English teaching. Students learn how to order food in American restaurants, and they have opportunities to use English in class by working with partners in role-play activities.

Table 6. Interrelationship between Key Concepts and Lesson Plans

<u>Key Concepts</u>	<u>Lesson One</u>	<u>Lesson Two</u>	<u>Lesson Three</u>	<u>Lesson Four</u>	<u>Lesson Five</u>	<u>Lesson Six</u>
The program administrator as instructional leader	√	√	√	√	√	√
Instructional design	√	√	√	√	√	√
Instructed second-language learning	√	√	√	√	√	√
Teaching speaking with communicative language teaching	√	√	√	√	√	√
Responding to English-as-foreign language writing			√		√	√

Lesson Two is an extension of Lesson One. When students acquire the vocabulary words and the concepts of Chinese and American food, they need to learn some deeper conceptions about Chinese food in Taiwan and America. Students need to know the importance of Chinese food in Taiwanese and American cultures. Students learn this lesson by sharing their own ideas and making oral presentations. The language skill motivates their learning attitude and also helps them acquire English in practical and communicative ways.

Lesson Three is about Chinese New Year customs. In this lesson, the teacher helps student understand and describe Chinese New Year's activities and customs. The language objective is the use of speaking skills to share and explain Chinese New Year customs to people all over the world. In this lesson, students practice not only speaking skills but also writing skills. They also write their own Chinese New Year diary as the assessment.

In Lesson Four, the teacher puts more emphasis on different ways to celebrate New Year in Taiwan and America. When students learn a language, they not only focus on form but also on cultures. The main purpose of learning language is to learn about other countries' cultures. The content objective is to classify different celebration activities in Eastern and Western. Students can learn more about American cultures; these concepts can motivate them to learn English and feel excited to learn something new. The language skills are two: using speaking skills to talk about the different New Year activities in Taiwan and America and writing compositions to explain their own opinions about New Year.

The theme of Lesson Five is Chinese zodiac signs. Students recognize the twelve animals and identify their own Chinese zodiac signs. The language objective is using

their speaking skills to identify classmates' personalities and understand each other during group discussions.

Lesson Six is about deeper concepts of the Chinese zodiac signs. For adult learners, learning a language and using the language are both important. The teacher needs to provide enough opportunities for adult learners to express their own thoughts in class. In Lesson Six, background of Chinese zodiac signs, the ancient realm of Chinese astrology, and viewpoints about superstition are also provided. Students can practice speaking skills and then use writing prompts to practice writing skills.

To sum up, this instructional unit displays how the review of the literature (Chapter Two) and the theoretical model (Chapter Three) combine within the instructional unit. In these six lessons, students can learn not only English but also the cultures of Taiwan and America. For English-language learners, the more culture they acquire the more motivation they have. After learning these six lessons, students can be effective achieving their learning goals in communicative language learning.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### UNIT ASSESSMENT PLAN

#### Purpose of Assessment

When people think about the purposes of assessment, some people think of assessment only as evaluating students. However, this is not the only purpose of assessment. Assessment also helps teachers evaluate their teaching. Teachers can know how well students have learned the content, which parts of the content students do not understand, and which teaching strategies are suitable for the lesson.

Most students in Taiwan do not like assessment because most assessment takes the form of quizzes or tests. The responsibility of professional teachers is to make assessment more varied. One benefit of assessment is that students can evaluate their own learning outcomes and recognize which content they do not understand well. Another benefit is that teachers can ascertain the exact level of students. In addition, assessment also supports and develops the learning process. When students are assessed, they pay more attention to what they learn and concentrate on the content in order to get better performance. This makes teaching more focused. Hence,

having the right assessment is not only good for students but also helpful for teachers.

### Methods of Assessment

Díaz-Rico and Weed (2002) stated there are three main kinds of assessment: performance-based assessment, standardized tests, and teacher observation and evaluation. These methods evaluate students' knowledge and achievement as well as teachers' instruction.

Performance-based tests are production tasks that correspond to what is learned in class. Performance-based tests require students to produce and perform something in class, such as essays, demonstrations, performance events, and portfolio assessments.

Standardized tests reflect a common standard of proficiency or performance in order to test students' abilities. For example, the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) is a standard test to measure a non-native-English speaking student's English level. It is administered in many EFL countries for students who want to study in universities in the United States.

In teacher observation and evaluation, teachers are in the best position to observe and evaluate students' progress. They have the most time to accompany and observe

students during learning process. It is the responsibility of teachers to communicate students' progress to administrators and parents. Teacher observation and evaluation help them know more about what and how student are learning. When students interact and use English in class, teachers can note the individual differences. Teachers also can make tests for classroom grading according to different specific purposes. In this type of assessment, the teacher plays an important role in evaluating students' learning.

In this project, performance-based assessment is presented in each unit. Students need to perform what they have been taught in class. Students are asked to use English in a communicative language setting. Hence, students practice English in real and meaningful communication. In performance-based assessment, students also practice oral language, such as giving presentations. In observation-based assessment, teachers observe students' attention, response to instructional materials, and interactions with other students. When teachers assess students by observation, students do not feel as much external performance pressure. Teachers can document the outcomes of learning in different aspects.

Teachers' also evaluate students' learning processes using formative and summative assessment. Formative assessment is the process of determining how well learners are progressing towards an instructional goal during teachers' instruction. In formative assessment, teachers use work sheets to help students process, organize, and analyze learning objectives. Formative assessment also helps teachers to evaluate students' learning outcomes during instruction. Summative assessment, in contrast, is the process of determining how well learners have mastered instructional goals. There are many different kinds of summative assessment, such as assessment sheets, evaluation sheets, and rubrics. Teachers use the results of summative assessment to judge learners' achievement.

These methods of assessments are good resources for teachers to communicate students' progress to parents and students themselves. Students can know how well they learned at the end of a unit. There are many different ways for teachers to evaluate students' learning progress. Just as teachers develop various skills using different instructional objectives, so do they measure these skills using a variety of assessments. Hence, students' assessments are the basis upon which teachers evaluate students' learning outcomes.

APPENDIX  
INSTRUCTIONAL PLAN - COMPARING CULTURE IN  
TAIWAN AND AMERICA

## List of Instruction Plans

Instructional Plan One: Chinese Food and American Food .....	101
Instructional Plan Two: Chinese Food in Taiwan and America .....	111
Instructional Plan Three: Chinese New Year Customs .....	121
Instructional Plan Four: Celebrating the New Year in Taiwan and America .....	130
Instructional Plan Five: Chinese Zodiac Signs .....	141
Instructional Plan Six: The Concepts of Chinese Zodiac Signs .....	151

**Instructional Plan One**  
**Chinese Food and American Food**

Teaching Level: Adult Intermediate Fluency

Time Frame: Sixty minutes

Performance Objectives:

- Content Goal: To preview new food vocabulary words and identify the differences between Chinese food and American food
- Language Goal: To order food in Chinese and America restaurants
- Learning-strategy Goal: To use communicative language to work with partners in role-play activities

TESOL Standard:

- Goal 2: To use English to achieve academically in all content areas.
- Standard 1: Students will use English to interact in the classroom.
- Standard 2: Students will use English to obtain, process, construct, and provide subject matter information in spoken and written form.
- Standard 3: Students will use appropriate learning strategies to construct and apply academic knowledge.

Materials Required:

- Focus Sheets 1-1 and 1-2
- Work Sheets 1-1, 1-2, and 1-3
- Assessment Sheet
- Oral Language Scoring Rubric
- Evaluation Rubric

Warm-up:

The teacher asks students to describe images of Chinese food and American food and their experiences in restaurants. The teacher also asks students to name their favorite foods.

Task Chain 1: Learning the Names of Food

1. The teacher shows students some pictures of food and explains the differences between American-style and Chinese-style food.

2. The teacher reads the words on Focus Sheet 1-1 several times and students repeat after the teacher in order to recognize these words.
3. The students will match the pictures and the words on Work Sheet 1-1.

Task Chain 2: Ordering Food in the Restaurant

1. The teacher writes down the dialogue between the customers and the waiter on the blackboard.
2. The teacher explains and reads the dialogue several times and students practice the dialogue on the blackboard.
3. The teacher chooses some volunteers to present the dialogue in front of the class and then students practice the dialogue in pairs on Focus Sheet 1-2.

Task Chain 3: Applying Knowledge and Showing Their Ideas

1. Students find three partners to present their favorite foods on Work Sheet 1-2.
2. When students finish their Work Sheet 1-2, they need to find other new partners to do Work Sheet 1-3.
3. Students do role-play activities and then fill out Work Sheet 1-3.

Formative Assessment:

Task Chain 1: The teacher walks around the classroom to see if students can pronounce the words on Focus Sheet 3-1.

Task Chain 2: The teacher evaluates students' dialogue on Work Sheet 1-2.

Task Chain 3: When students are doing role-play activities on Work Sheet 1-3, they are evaluated by the Oral Language Scoring Rubric.



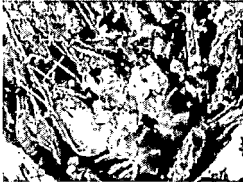



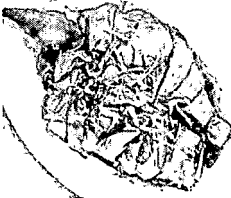

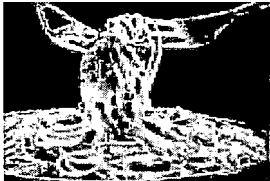
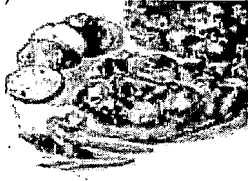

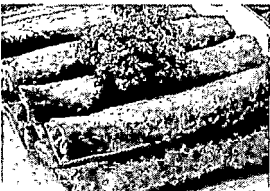




Summative Assessment:

1. The teacher evaluates Work Sheets 1-1, 1-2, and 1-3 with the Evaluation Rubric.
2. The teacher gives students Assessment Sheet 1-1 to evaluate the vocabulary words.

A = 90-100 points	Excellent
B = 80-89 points	Good job
C = 70-79 points	Satisfactory
D = 60-69 points	Needs improvement
E = below 60 points	Study harder



Focus Sheet 1-1  
The Names of Food

<u>American foods</u>		<u>Chinese foods</u>	
Food:		Food:	
			
steak	hamburger	steamed shrimp	beef with green bean sprouts
			
fries	fried chicken	steamed chicken	tofu with soy sauce
			
spaghetti	pork chop	fried pork fillet	crispy spring roll
Dessert:	Drink:	Dessert:	Drink:
			
chocolate cake	Coke	BBQ pork pastry	tea

**Focus Sheet 1-2**  
**Ordering Food at a Restaurant**

(1)

Waiter: Welcome to Antico's Restaurant. Here are your menus. Today's special is hamburger. I'll be back to take your order in a minute.

(2)

Waiter: Are you ready to order?  
Customer 1: I'd like the spaghetti.  
Waiter: And you?  
Customer 2: I'll have a hamburger and fries.  
Waiter: Would you like anything to drink?  
Customer 1: I'll have a Coke, please.  
Waiter: And for you?  
Customer 2: Just water, please.  
Waiter: OK. So that's spaghetti, one hamburger and fries, one Coke, and one water. I'll take your menus.

(3)

Waiter: Here is your food. Enjoy your meal.

(4)

Waiter: How was everything?  
Customers 2: Good, thanks.  
Waiter: Would you like anything for dessert?  
Customer 1: No, just the bill, please.

**Work Sheet 1-1**  
**Cut and Paste**

1. Read these vocabulary words to one classmate.  
(Points: 16)
2. Cut the pictures of the food from Work Sheet 1-2 and paste in the blank to see how many kinds of foods you remember.  
(Points: 16)

pork chop	steak	steamed shrimp	fried pork fillet
hamburger	fries	fried chicken	spaghetti
tofu with soy sauce	Coke	BBQ pork pastry	steamed chicken
beef with green bean sprouts	chocolate cake	spring roll	tea

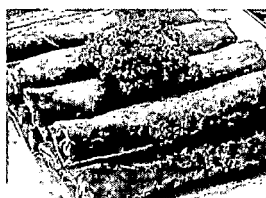
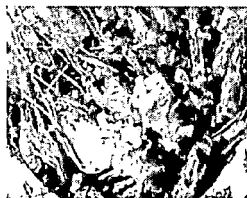
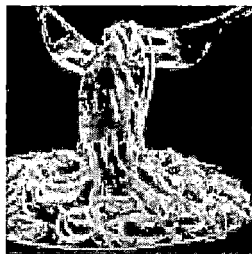
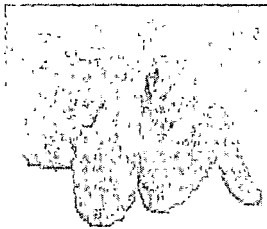
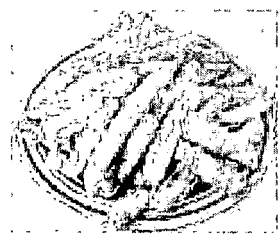
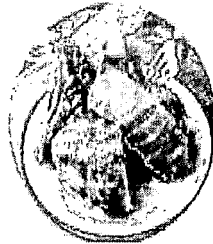
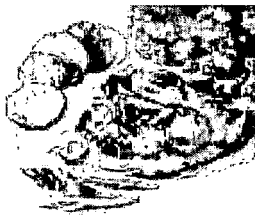
Work Sheet 1-2  
What Do You Want to Order?

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

1. Please list the foods that you are going to order.  
(Points: 18)

<u>Name</u>	<u>Food</u>	<u>Drink</u>	<u>Dessert</u>

Chinese and American foods:



**Work Sheet 1-3**  
**Role-play Activity**

1. The students find two partners to practice the conversation and fill the answers in the blank.  
(Points: 10)

(1)

Waiter: Welcome to \_\_\_\_\_. Here are your menus.  
Today's special is \_\_\_\_\_. I'll be back  
to take your order in a minute.

(2)

Waiter: Are you ready to order?  
Customer 1: I'd like the \_\_\_\_\_.  
Waiter: And you? \_\_\_\_\_  
Customer 2: I'll have \_\_\_\_\_.  
Waiter: Would you like anything to drink?  
Customer 1: I'll have \_\_\_\_\_, please.  
Waiter: And for you?  
Customer 2: \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_, please.  
Waiter: OK. So that's \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_,  
and \_\_\_\_\_. I'll take your menus.

(3)

Waiter: Here is your food. Enjoy your meal.

(4)

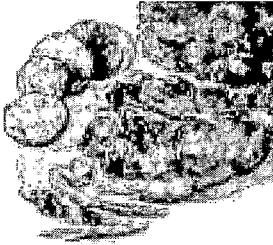
Waiter: How was everything?  
Customers 2: Good, thanks.  
Waiter: Would you like anything for dessert?  
Customer 1: No, just the bill, please.

Assessment Sheet 1-1  
Content Quiz

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

A. Write down the name of the pictures. (Points: 16)

1.



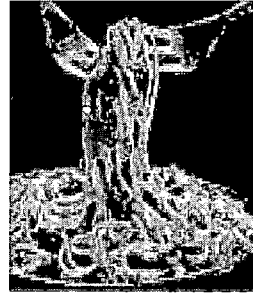
\_\_\_\_\_

2.



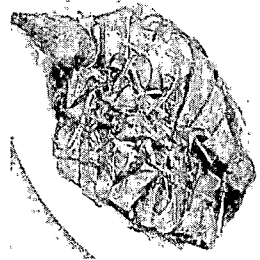
\_\_\_\_\_

3.



\_\_\_\_\_

4.



\_\_\_\_\_

5.



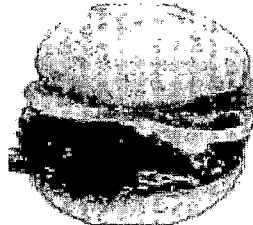
\_\_\_\_\_

6.



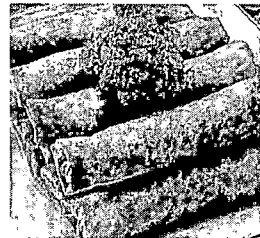
\_\_\_\_\_

7.



\_\_\_\_\_

8.



\_\_\_\_\_

## Oral Language Scoring Rubric

Candidate: \_\_\_\_\_

<u>Component of Oral Language</u>	<u>Point Value/Critique</u>
Speaking • Communicates competently in social and classroom setting	_____/10
Fluency • Speaks with near-native fluency • No hesitation in real communication	_____/5
Structure • Uses a variety of grammatical structures	_____/7
Vocabulary • Uses extensive vocabulary	_____/7
Listening • Understands the classroom discussion without repetition	_____/5
Total	_____/34

### Evaluation Rubric

Name of the student: \_\_\_\_\_

	<u>Component</u>	<u>Points</u>
1	The student can read the vocabulary words in Work Sheet 1-1.	____/16
2	The student can match the pictures and the words in Work Sheet 1-1 correctly.	____/16
3	The student fills out Work Sheet 1-2.	____/18
4	The student can complete Work Sheet 1-3 correctly.	____/10
5	In Work Sheet 1-3, the student is evaluated by the Oral Language Scoring Rubric.	____/34
6	Score on Assessment Sheet 1-1.	____/16
	Total	____/100



**Instructional Plan Two**  
**Chinese Food in Taiwan and America**

Teaching Level: Adult Intermediate Fluency

Time Frame: Sixty minutes

Performance Objectives:

- Content Goal: To understand American opinions of Chinese food, Taiwan cuisine, and American Chinese cuisine
- Language Goal: To read the theme-related articles and practice speaking skills in class
- Learning-strategy Goal: To clarify and analyze meaning of Chinese food by group discussion

TESOL Standard:

- Goal 2: To use English to achieve academically in all content areas.
- Standard 1: Students will use English to interact in the classroom.
- Standard 2: Students will use English to obtain, process, construct, and provide subject matter information in spoken and written form.
- Standard 3: Students will use appropriate learning strategies to construct and apply academic knowledge.

Materials Required:

- Focus Sheets 2-1, 2-2, and 2-3
- Work Sheets 2-1, 2-2, and 2-3
- Oral Presentation Evaluation Form
- Evaluation Rubric

Warm-up:

The teacher reviews the vocabulary words in Lesson One and the concepts of Chinese-style and American-style food.

Task Chain 1: Viewing Chinese Food from Different Cultural Viewpoints

1. The teacher introduces the concept of different points of view.
2. Students read®Focus Sheet 2-1 and discuss the American viewpoints about Chinese food.

3. Then the teacher also asks students to read Focus Sheet 2-2 and Focus Sheet 2-3 to understand food cultures in Taiwan and America.

Task Chain 2: Comparing and Contrasting Foods in Taiwan and America

1. The teacher explains the new vocabulary words for students.
2. The teacher asks students to check in the dictionary, write down the definitions, and make sentences on Work Sheet 2-1.
3. When the teacher makes sure that students comprehend these articles clearly, students need to produce their own ideas about Chinese food on Work Sheet 2-2.

Task Chain 3: Using Oral Presentation to Show Their Opinions

1. Students work with four people in a group for the second part of Work Sheet 2-2.
2. The teacher asks one student of a group at random to make a short speech about their group's opinions.
3. At the end of class, the teacher asks students to find out their favorite foods and prepare an oral presentation of a cooking recipe on Work Sheet 2-3.

Formative Assessment:

Task Chain 1: The teacher confirms students' comprehension on Focus Sheets 2-1, 2-2, and 2-3.

Task Chain 2: The teacher walks around the classroom to see students can pronounce the words on Work Sheet 2-1.

Task Chain 3: The teacher uses the oral presentation evaluation form to score students on Work Sheet 2-3.

Summative Assessment:

1. The teacher evaluates Work Sheets 2-1 and 2-3 with the Evaluation Rubric.

A = 90-100 points	Excellent
B = 80-89 points	Good job
C = 70-79 points	Satisfactory
D = 60-69 points	Needs improvement
E = below 60 points	Study harder

**Focus Sheet 2-1**  
**Chinese Food from an American Viewpoint**

Food, food, food. Chinese love to eat often and plentifully, and of course they have learned from early childhood to use those chopsticks for almost everything except soup. In addition, universities give each foreign guest a president's welcome dinner, a foreign affairs welcome dinner, a department welcome dinner, a birthday dinner, a new year's dinner, a spring festival dinner, and a going away dinner, plus we often were invited to eat special dinners with other visiting guests at the campus restaurant.

At such banquets or dinners the usual food consisted of from 15 to 20 courses, plus appetizers, and always beer, wine, tea, colas, and coconut juice. They use what we sometimes call a lazy Susan, or huge turntable, in the middle of the table with big communal bowls (where 15/16 people sat), rather than passing the food around to each person as we do. Dinners are expected last about 2 to 3 hours.

Chinese almost always have hot food for every meal. I have yet to find a Chinese vegetable I did not like, but they will cook almost all of them rather than eat them raw. I cannot say the same, however, about meats, soups, and drinks, for some of their cooking is a mystery to me. They drink very little of anything with common meals (the soup acts as a drink) except those who drink wine and beer (some of their wine is 50% or 60% proof). Chinese will also eat many meats we are not accustomed to eating. For example, they eat everything of the pig--the hoof, the tongue, the ears, the tail, the blood, and the entrails; the bone is chopped into small 1/2-inch pieces with the meat still attached.

Adapted from:  
<http://www.theharbinger.org/xix/001017/pinson.html>

## **Focus Sheet 2-2**

### **Taiwanese Cuisine**

In Taiwan, many of the diverse cuisines from the different parts of China converge. Traditional Chinese food to be found in Taiwan, alongside Taiwanese and Hakka-style dishes, includes dishes from Fujian, Guangdong, Jiangxi, Shanghai, Hunan, Sichuan and Beijing. Pork, rice, soy are very common ingredients, as with many Chinese cuisines. Beef is far less common, and some Taiwanese (particularly the elderly generation) still refrain from eating it. This is in part due to a traditional reluctance to slaughtering precious cattle needed for agriculture, and an emotional attachment to such beasts of labour.

Taiwan's cuisine has also been influenced by its geographic location. Living on a crowded island, the Taiwanese had to look aside from the farmlands for sources of protein. As a result, seafood figures prominently in their cuisine. This seafood encompasses many different things, from large fish such as tuna and grouper, to sardines and even tiny fish the length of a thumbnail. Crustaceans and squid/cuttlefish are also eaten. Because of the island's subtropical location, Taiwan has an abundant supply of various fruits, such as papayas, melons and citrus.

Some of Taiwan's agricultural products in general are rice, corn, vegetables, fruit, tea; pork, poultry, beef and fish/seafood. Taiwanese cuisine relies on an abundant array of seasonings for flavor: soy sauce, rice wine and sesame oil, black beans, pickled radishes, peanuts, chili peppers, parsley, and a local variety of basil.

Adapted from:  
[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Taiwanese\\_cuisine](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Taiwanese_cuisine)

## Focus Sheet 2-3

### American-Chinese Cuisine

In the 19th century, Chinese restaurateurs invented American-Chinese cuisine when they modified their food for American tastes. First catering to railroad workers, they opened restaurants in towns where Chinese food was completely unknown. The influx of immigrants in the late 20th century disdained the Americanized dishes, and preferred more traditional Chinese food. Classical Chinese cuisine now dominates major cities like San Francisco and New York.

American Chinese food treats vegetables as garnish while authentic styles emphasize vegetables. When it is used, the Americanized dishes have Western vegetables like broccoli and carrots. Authentic Chinese cuisine would use Asian leafy vegetables like bok choy and gai-lan, and hold a greater emphasis on seafood. American Chinese food tends to be cooked very quickly with lots of oil and salt. Many dishes are quickly and easily prepared, and require inexpensive ingredients. Stir-frying, pan-frying, and deep-frying tend to be the most common cooking techniques.

The food also has a reputation for high levels of MSG (monosodium glutamate) to enhance the flavor; the symptoms of MSG sensitivity have been dubbed "Chinese restaurant syndrome" or "Chinese food syndrome." Most American Chinese establishments cater to non-Chinese customers, and their menus are written in English. Those that do have Chinese menus have ones that are different from the English version. Americanized menus might exclude some foods which the Chinese consider delicacies, like liver and chicken feet.

•

Adapted from: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American\\_Chinese\\_cuisine#American\\_vs.\\_Traditional\\_menus](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Chinese_cuisine#American_vs._Traditional_menus)

**Work Sheet 2-1**  
**New Vocabulary Words**

I. Check in the dictionary, write down the definitions, and then make sentences. (Points: 40)

1. banquet \_\_\_\_\_
2. turntable \_\_\_\_\_
3. virtually \_\_\_\_\_
4. hoof \_\_\_\_\_
5. entrails \_\_\_\_\_
6. ingredient \_\_\_\_\_
7. reluctance \_\_\_\_\_
8. slaughtering \_\_\_\_\_
9. grouper \_\_\_\_\_
10. crustacean \_\_\_\_\_
11. sardine \_\_\_\_\_
12. subtropical \_\_\_\_\_
13. array \_\_\_\_\_
14. basil \_\_\_\_\_
15. parsley \_\_\_\_\_
16. garnish \_\_\_\_\_
17. MSG: monosodium glutamate \_\_\_\_\_
18. syndrome \_\_\_\_\_
19. cater \_\_\_\_\_
20. reputation \_\_\_\_\_

**Work Sheet 2-2**  
**A Short Conversation**

- I. According to the three articles, write down four points of view that are interesting to you or opinions that you do not agree with.

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_
4. \_\_\_\_\_

- II. Work with four people in a group and talk about Taiwanese viewpoints about American food and then make a short speech to share with the whole class.

**Work Sheet 2-3**  
**Oral Presentation about Cooking Recipe**

- I. Choose one of your favorite foods, find the recipe from the Internet or a cookbook, and then make a presentation to the class. Please write the cooking steps and ingredients in detail. Be prepared to speak between five to ten minutes. If you have time, you can also bring your favorite food to class.  
(Points: 60)



# Oral Presentation Evaluation Form

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

<u>Component</u>	<u>Comments</u>	<u>Score</u>
Content		____/10
Coherence and Organization		____/10
Creativity		____/10
Material		____/10
Speaking Skills		____/10
Audience Response		____/5
Length of Presentation		____/5
	Total	____/60

### Evaluation Rubric

Name of the student: \_\_\_\_\_

	<u>Component</u>	<u>Points</u>
1	The student can read and write the definitions, and then make correct sentence structures on Work Sheet 2-1.	____/40
2	The teacher uses the oral presentation evaluation form to score students' presentations on Work Sheet 2-3.	____/60
	Total	____/100

### **Instructional Plan Three**

#### **Chinese New Year Customs**

Teaching Level: Adult Intermediate Fluency

Time Frame: Ninety minutes

Performance Objectives:

- Content Goal: To identify the meaning of the customs and introduce Chinese New Year customs in English to people around the world
- Language Goal: To describe Chinese New Year customs in written form
- Learning-strategy Goal: To explore implications and sequences of Chinese New Year

TESOL Standard:

- Goal 2: To use English to achieve academically in all content areas.
- Standard 1: Students will use English to interact in the classroom.
- Standard 2: Students will use English to obtain, process, construct, and provide subject matter information in spoken and written form.
- Standard 3: Students will use appropriate learning strategies to construct and apply academic knowledge.

Materials Required:

- Focus Sheets 3-1, 3-2 and 3-3.
- Work Sheets 3-1, and 3-2
- Assessment Sheet
- Evaluation Rubric

Warm-up:

The teacher asks students about their Chinese New Year experiences, the customs they know, their favorite holidays, and the special activities they do in Chinese New Year.

Task Chain 1: Identifying the Vocabulary Words and Chinese New Year Customs

1. The teacher explains and identifies the vocabulary words on Focus Sheet 3-1 and asks students to repeat the words after the teacher.

2. When students know the vocabulary words, the teacher will start to read the Chinese Year customs story on Focus Sheet 3-2.

Task Chain 2: Understanding the Meaning of Chinese New Year

1. The teacher writes the schedule of Chinese New Year on the blackboard and teaches the routine of Chinese New Year.
2. Then the teacher explains Focus Sheet 3-3 to students.
3. When students understand the task and the customs, they start to match pictures and words on Work Sheet 3-1.

Task Chain 3: Writing a Chinese New Year Customs Composition

1. Students review the customs one more time in their minds, and then write their own Chinese New Year compositions on Work Sheet 3-2.
2. The students share their daily activities with the other students.
3. The teacher gives students 10 minutes to peer-review their writing.

Formative Assessment:

Task Chain 1: The teacher walks around the classroom to hear students pronounce the words on Focus Sheet 3-1.

Task Chain 2: Students can match Chinese New Year activities and the vocabulary words correctly on Work Sheet 3-1.

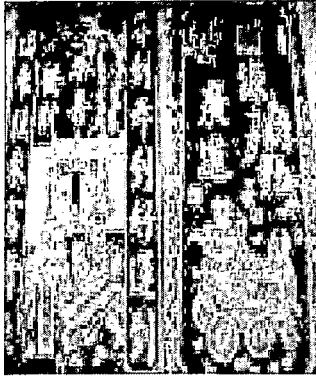
Task Chain 3: Students write compositions about their own Chinese New Year and then peer-review other classmates' writings.

Summative Assessment:

1. The teacher evaluates Work Sheet 3-1.
2. The teacher and peer reviewers evaluate compositions using the Assessment Sheet.

A = 90-100 points	Excellent
B = 80-89 points	Good job
C = 70-79 points	Satisfactory
D = 60-69 points	Needs improvement
E = below 60 points	Study harder

Focus Sheet 3-1  
Chinese New Year Vocabulary



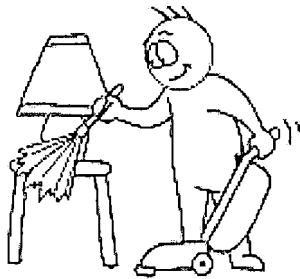
decoration  
material



dress up in new  
clothes



Chinese New Year's  
Eve feast



clean up the house



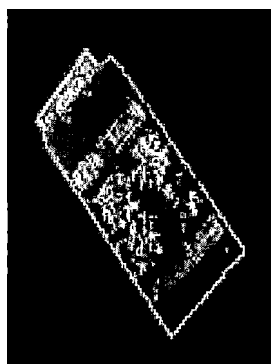
fireworks



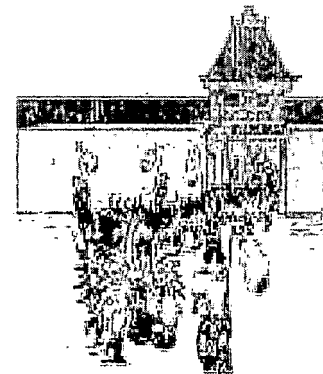
Lantern Festival



spring couplets



lucky money



dragon dance

### **Focus Sheet 3-2**

#### **Storytelling**

The origin of the Chinese New Year is itself centuries old. It is popularly recognized as the Spring Festival and celebrations last 15 days. Preparations tend to begin a month before the date of the Chinese New Year (similar to a Western Christmas). People start buying presents, decoration materials, food, and clothing. A huge clean-up gets underway days before the New Year. Chinese houses are cleaned from top to bottom, to sweep away any traces of bad luck, and doors and windowpanes are given a new coat of paint, usually red. The doors and windows are then decorated with cut paper and couplets with themes such as happiness, wealth and longevity printed on them.

The eve of the New Year is perhaps the most exciting part of the event, as anticipation creeps in. Here, traditions and rituals are very carefully observed in everything from food to clothing. Dinner is usually a feast of seafood and dumplings, signifying different good wishes. It's usual to wear something red as this color is meant to ward off evil spirits--but black and white are out, as these are associated with mourning. After dinner, the family sits up all night playing cards or board games or watching TV programs dedicated to the occasion. At midnight, the sky is lit up by fireworks. Then the family begins to say greetings from door to door, first to their relatives and then their neighbors. The end of the New Year is marked by the Festival of Lanterns, which is a celebration with singing, dancing and lantern shows. Although celebrations of the Chinese New Year vary, the underlying message is one of peace and happiness for family and friends.

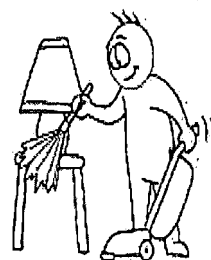
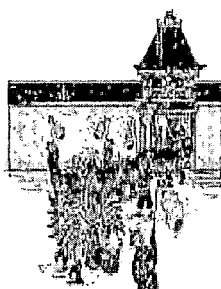
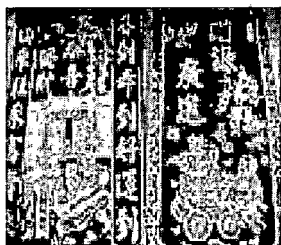
**Focus Sheet 3-3**  
**The Schedule of Chinese New Year**

1. A week before Chinese New Year, I clean up the house with the whole family.
2. Three days before Chinese New Year, I put the Spring Couplets on the door.
3. Two days before Chinese New Year, I go New Year shopping with my family.
4. On Chinese New Year Eve, I have a feast, get the lucky money from my parents, and stay up late to usher in the New Year.
5. On the first day of Chinese New Year, I dress up in my new clothes.
6. On the second day of Chinese New Year, my married aunt comes back and gives me lucky money.
7. On the third day of Chinese New Year, I watch the Dragon Dance and visit the relatives.
8. On the fifteenth day of Chinese New Year, I attend the Lantern Festival.

# Work Sheet 3-1 Match Game

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

1. Please match the pictures and the vocabulary words.  
(Points: 40)



dress up in new clothes

decoration material

dragon dance

clean up the house

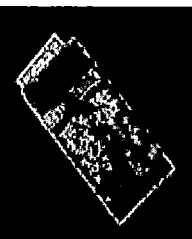
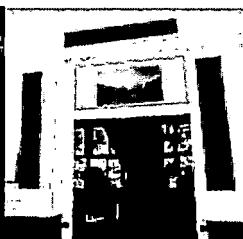
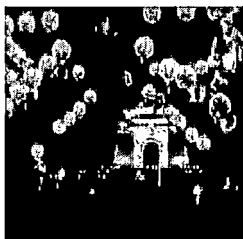
spring couplets

lucky money

fireworks

Lantern Festival

Chinese New Year's Eve feast





**Work Sheet 3-2**  
**Writing a Composition**

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

1. According to the story of Chinese New Year's customs, describe what customs you like. Why? Please also briefly describe customs in your family. (Points: 50)

## ⑥ Assessment Sheet

Candidate: \_\_\_\_\_ Reviewer: \_\_\_\_\_

<u>Component</u>	<u>Critique</u>	
	Reviewer 30/points	Instructor 30/points
1. Organization <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Purpose of writing is clear</li> <li>• Opening paragraph offers rationale that connects the topic</li> <li>• Division of each paragraph is logical</li> <li>• The composition contains introduction and summary</li> </ul>	_____/10	_____/10
2. Grammatical Competence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Phrases and clauses show logic</li> <li>• No syntax errors</li> <li>• The tense is appropriate</li> <li>• Spelling is correct</li> </ul>	_____/10	_____/10
3. Strategic Competence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Elegant words are used to paraphrase ideas</li> <li>• The writing is smooth</li> </ul>	_____/5	_____/5
4. Format <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Work is professional, and word-processed</li> </ul>	_____/5	_____/5
Total	_____/30	_____/30
Peer Reviewer's Recommendations:		
Instructor's Comments:		

### Evaluation Rubric

Name of the student: \_\_\_\_\_

	<u>Component</u>	<u>Points</u>
1	The student can match the pictures and the words in Work Sheet 3-1 correctly.	____/40
2	The student gets a score on Work Sheet 3-2 from the peer reviewer.	____/30
3	The student gets a score on Work Sheet 3-2 from the instructor.	____/30
	Total	____/100

**Instructional Plan Four**  
**Celebrating the New Year in Taiwan and America**

Teaching Level: Adult Intermediate Fluency

Time Frame: Sixty minutes

Performance Objectives:

- Content Goal: To identify New Year activities in Taiwan and America
- Language Goal: To read the theme-related articles and practice speaking and writing skills in class
- Learning-strategy Goal: To notice significant similarities and differences in Taiwanese and American New Years' celebrations

TESOL Standard:

- Goal 2: To use English to achieve academically in all content areas.
- Standard 1: Students will use English to interact in the classroom.
- Standard 2: Students will use English to obtain, process, construct, and provide subject matter information in spoken and written form.
- Standard 3: Students will use appropriate learning strategies to construct and apply academic knowledge.

Materials Required:

- Focus Sheets 4-1, 4-2, and 4-3
- Work Sheets 4-1, 4-2, and 4-3
- Assessment Sheet
- Evaluation Rubric

Warm-up:

The teacher reviews the Chinese New Year customs in Lesson Three. Then the teacher recalls students' memories about New Year. Students discuss their own images of Chinese New Year and American New year.

Task Chain 1: Identifying Different Activities for the New Year in Taiwan and America

1. The teacher describes differences between Chinese New Year and American New Year.
2. Students read Focus Sheet 4-1 and discuss the American New Years' Eve.
3. Then students also read Focus Sheet 4-2 to know more about Chinese New Year's Eve.

Task Chain 2: Discussing Differences and Similarities of New Year Celebrations in Taiwan and America

1. The teacher asks students to check in the dictionary, and write down the definitions first.
2. Then the teacher explains some difficult new vocabulary words.
3. Students make new sentences on Work Sheet 2-1 by themselves.
4. When the teacher makes sure that students have read these focus sheets, students need to think about differences and similarities of New Year.
5. Students read aloud differences in Chinese and American cultures using Focus Sheet 4-3.

Task Chain 3: Noticing Significant Similarities and Differences in Taiwanese and American New Year

1. According to Focus Sheets 4-1, 4-2, and 4-3, students write their own opinions on Work Sheet 4-2.
2. The teacher asks students to think about what kind of new year celebration they like.
3. Finally, students express their perspectives on Work Sheet 4-2 and also practice their writing skills.

Formative Assessment:

Task Chain 1: The teacher confirms students' comprehension using Focus Sheets 4-1 and 4-2.

Task Chain 2: The teacher walks around the classroom to hear if students can pronounce the words on Work Sheet 4-1.

Task Chain 3: The teacher uses the Assessment Sheet to evaluate students' writings on Work Sheet 4-3.

Summative Assessment:

1. The teacher gives grades on Work Sheet 4-3 according to the Assessment Sheet.
2. The teacher evaluates Work Sheets 4-1, 4-2, and 4-3 with the Evaluation Rubric.

A = 90-100 points	Excellent
B = 80-89 points	Good job
C = 70-79 points	Satisfactory
D = 60-69 points	Needs improvement
E = below 60 points	Study harder

**Focus Sheet 4-1**  
**American New Year's Eve**

New Year's Eve is one of the very rare holidays in the U.S. that is neither a celebration of religion nor family: it is a night to dress up, go out, drink Champagne, celebrate old friendships, and initiate new ones.

So, how is New Year's typically celebrated in the United States? Ideally, you're at a party, restaurant, or in a bar when midnight strikes. The excitement grows until, at ten seconds before midnight, everyone quiets down and starts the countdown: "Ten, Nine, Eight, Seven, Six, Five, Four, Three, Two, One ... HAPPY NEW YEAR!!!" At which time you blow your party horns or noisemakers and hug and kiss everyone around you. Most people just kiss each other for fun, without any serious intentions.

While some people are still kissing, others are popping the corks off bottles of Champagne and pouring it into glasses, so everyone can toast the New Year. Finally, the traditional song "Auld Lang Syne" is sung. So now you know: the four essentials of a typical American New Year's Eve are 1) countdown, 2) kissing, 3) champagne, and 4) Auld Lang Syne.

Adapted From:  
<http://www.bebeyond.com/LearnEnglish/BeAD/NewYear.html>

**Focus Sheet 4-2**  
**Chinese New Year's Eve**

I have not celebrated Chinese New Year in Taiwan for 14 years. What a long time! Dad used to prepare a special table all wrapped up with red paper with his beautiful Chinese hand writing (brush pen & black ink) of the location of our ancestors hometown in China, and he still does the same. Also, one of our famous ancestral pictures (in Chin Dynasty) and many delicious Chinese dishes (mainly northern style) were all placed on the red table.

I can still remember vividly all the family got together with males dressed in blue Chinese long robes and females in red Chi-Paus. After welcoming the God (or Gods) into our opened door with the excited loud noisy firecracker sound in the background, we all started showing our great respect for our ancestor by bowing down upon our knees to the picture and dad's Chinese writing on the red table. After the ancestor part of the ritual, we all did the same thing again to the eldest in the family. Only this one we bowed on our knees for three times, not nine! It was to my grandparents. This was my favorite part, because I received a red envelope from them.

If you thought all the rituals were finished, NOPE! After showing our respect to the eldest, we started bowing to each other and wished everyone Happy New Year started from the eldest couple to the youngest generation. This time one only bowed and no knees were involved. Of course, the whole family finally was sitting down around the big round table and enjoying the wonderful Chinese dishes.

Adapted from: <http://diary.yam.com/hercafe/article/426412>



**Focus Sheet 4-3**  
**Differences in American and Chinese Culture**

There are some basic differences between Chinese and American cultures. First, Chinese are strongly group conscious, whereas Americans are strongly individualistic. It can be seen in the classroom where each Chinese student has a desk mate (Americans would rebel against being tied to another desk), or in a marriage. Once married, most Chinese move in with the parents where at least three, sometimes four, generations of a family live.

There are fundamental and significant cultural differences. Take courtship and marriage for instance. Typically Chinese do not marry before 27 or 28 years, go with only one, two, at most three different people before marrying, do not display affection publicly, do not permit homosexuality, do not permit sex shown on TV except as health advertisements, and do not have many divorces.

Still another cultural difference is some strange taboos I've stumbled upon. One does not write the names of people in red--it means their death; nor give a clock as a gift--the sound of the Chinese word is an evil omen, nor give one an umbrella for a gift--for the same reason, or praise another in public--it is considering asking for favors; nor do they give cards and flowers much at graduation, birthdays, anniversaries, holidays; nor is it proper for male strangers (foreigners) to be very friendly or courteous to women.

Adapted from:  
<http://www.theharbinger.org/xix/001003/pinson.html>

**Work Sheet 4-1**  
**New Vocabulary Words**

A. Check up the dictionary, write the part of speech and then make new sentences. (Points: 20)

1. toast

---

2. strike

---

3. Champagne

---

4. dress up

---

5. wrap up

---

6. ancestor

---

7. dynasty

---

8. bow down

---

9. slightly

---

10. ritual

---

**Work Sheet 4-2**  
**Differences and Similarities**

1. After reading these two diaries, compare and contrast the different new years' cultures with your classmates. Find four people in a group and also list the differences and similarities between Chinese and American New Years.  
(Points: 20)

A. Differences

---

---

---

---

---

B. Similarities

---

---

---

---

---

# Work Sheet 4-3

## Writing Prompt

1. Everyone has an activity that they enjoy doing on Chinese New Year. It might be going out with friends or staying home with the family. Think about what you like to do the most. Write a paper telling what you enjoy doing and at least three reasons why you like this activity so well. Remember to use specific details to support and explain your reasons. Use interesting adjectives and descriptions to make your paper interesting to read. Include a short personal story with one of your reasons. (Points: 60)

[illegible]

### Assessment Sheet

Candidate: \_\_\_\_\_ Reviewer: \_\_\_\_\_

<u>Component</u>	<u>Critique</u>
I. Organization <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Purpose of writing is clear</li> <li>• Opening paragraph offers rationale that connects the topic</li> <li>• Division of each paragraph is logical</li> <li>• The composition contains an introduction and summary</li> </ul>	_____/15
II. Grammatical Competence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Phrases and clauses show logic</li> <li>• No syntax errors</li> <li>• The tense is appropriate</li> <li>• Spelling is correct</li> </ul>	_____/15
III. Strategic Competence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Use elegant words to paraphrase ideas</li> <li>• The writing is smooth</li> </ul>	_____/15
IV. Format <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Work is professional, and word-processed</li> </ul>	_____/15
Total	_____/60
Instructor's Comments:	

### Evaluation Rubric

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

	<u>Component</u>	<u>Points</u>
1	The student can read and write the definitions, and then make correct sentence structures on Work Sheet 4-1.	____/20
2	The students can write down the differences and similarities between Chinese and American New Year.	____/20
3	The teacher uses the oral presentation evaluation form to score students' presentations on Work Sheet 4-3.	____/60
	Total	____/100

## Instructional Plan Five Chinese Zodiac Signs

Teaching Level: Adult Intermediate Fluency

Time Frame: Ninety minutes

Performance Objectives:

Content Objective: To identify the twelve animals and their own Chinese zodiac signs.

Language Objective: To speak out in class what year they are born in and write paraphrases of content presented in the lesson.

Learning-strategy Objective: To comprehend and contrast different concepts and personalities of Chinese zodiac signs.

TESOL Standard:

Goal 2: To use English to achieve academically in all content areas.

Standard 1: Students will use English to interact in the classroom.

Standard 2: Students will use English to obtain, process, construct, and provide subject matter information in spoken and written form.

Standard 3: Students will use appropriate learning strategies to construct and apply academic knowledge.

Materials Required:

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

Work Sheets 5-1, 5-2, and 5-3

Evaluation Rubric

Warm-up Activity:

The teacher asks students the meaning of Chinese zodiac signs. They also need to guess how many animals and what they are the twelve animals of Chinese zodiac.

Task Chain 1: Identifying Chinese Zodiac Signs

1. The teacher shows Focus Sheet 5-1 and explains the importance of Chinese zodiac signs in Chinese culture.
2. The teacher reads the words on Focus Sheet 5-1 several times and students repeat after the teacher in order to recognize these words.
3. Then the teacher tells students the story of Chinese zodiac signs on Focus Sheet 5-2.

Task Chain 2: Speaking and Writing about Chinese Zodiac Signs by Cooperative Learning

1. The teacher explains the characters of the animals and gives students ten minutes to find out their own Chinese zodiac signs on Focus Sheet 5-3.
2. The students will compare and contrast their own personality to Chinese zodiac signs.
3. The students need to write down the order and the names of the twelve animals on Work Sheet 5-1.

Task Chain 3: Comparing and Contrasting Concepts of Chinese Zodiac Signs

1. The teacher instructs students how to say the year they were born in and also the characteristics of each animal sign.
2. Students write down their names, years of birth, and their own personalities on Work Sheet 5-2.
3. Then students find two partners and use the communicative language approach to fill in the information in the second part of Work Sheet 5-2.
4. According to Work Sheet 5-2, students can write partners' answers into a paragraph on Work Sheet 5-3.
5. The teacher asks some volunteers to read their paragraphs in front of the whole class.

Formative Assessment:

Task Chain 1: The teacher walks around the classroom to see if students can pronounce the words on Focus Sheet 5-1.

Task Chain 2: The teacher evaluates students on Work Sheet 5-1.

Task Chain 3: First, students use Work Sheet 5-2 to practice speaking and then students are evaluated on Work Sheet 5-3.



Summative Assessment:



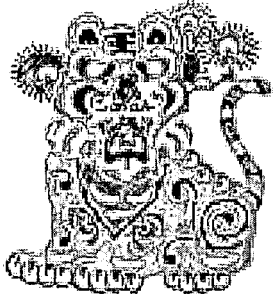

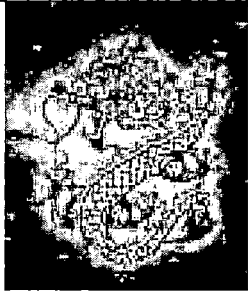
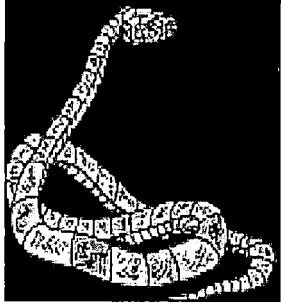
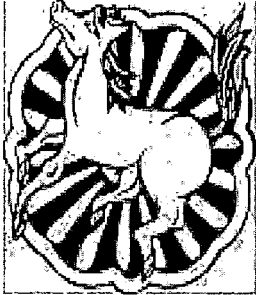
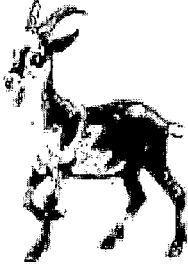
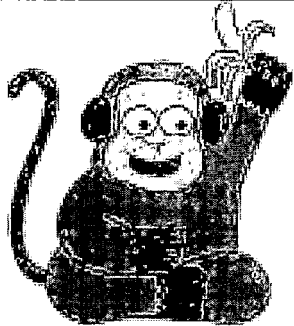


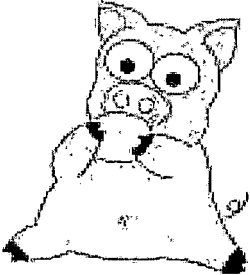
1. The teacher gives the grades on Work Sheets 5-1, 5-2, and 5-3.
2. The teacher evaluates students' learning outcomes by the Evaluation Rubric.

A = 90-100 points	Excellent
B = 80-89 points	Good job
C = 70-79 points	Satisfactory
D = 60-69 points	Needs improvement
E = below 60 points	Study harder

Reference:

[http://www.lausd.k12.ca.us/Haskell\\_EL/calendar%20past%20events/chinesenew%20year%20gifs/chinesenewyear.htm](http://www.lausd.k12.ca.us/Haskell_EL/calendar%20past%20events/chinesenew%20year%20gifs/chinesenewyear.htm)

Focus Sheet 5-1  
Chinese Zodiac Signs

		
rat	ox	tiger
		
rabbit	dragon	snake
		
horse	goat	monkey
		
rooster	dog	pig

## Focus Sheet 5-2

### The Story of Chinese Zodiac Signs

According to Chinese legend, the Jade Emperor was considering the cycle of the years. He wanted to use twelve animals to be the symbols for each year. It was difficult to choose the twelve animals. So he held a contest. The first twelve animals to reach the finish line could appear in the cycle of the Chinese Year. All the animals came for the contest. There were many animals, including a cat.

As soon as the contest started, the cat was the first one to enter the race and was followed by the rest of the animals. All the animals tried to do their best. The mouse knew it was too little to win the contest, so it asked the kind ox to give it a ride. The finish line was on the opposite bank of the river. The cat couldn't swim, so it also asked the strong ox to give it a ride across the river. While all the animals were trying to cross the river, the mouse played a wicked trick on the cat in order to get first place in the cycle.

As a result, the cat lost the contest and drowned. And the mouse won the first place. The first twelve animals to cross were the following: mouse, ox, tiger, rabbit, dragon, snake, horse, goat, monkey, rooster, dog, and pig. The cat was not on the list. That is why cats now chase after mice whenever they meet them.

**Focus Sheet 5-3**  
**The Year and Personality of Chinese Zodiac Signs**

<u>Animal</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Personality</u>
1. rat	1948, 1960, 1972, 1984, 1996	Loving, hard-working
2. ox	1949, 1961, 1973, 1985, 1997	Patient, easy-going
3. tiger	1950, 1962, 1974, 1986, 1998	Courageous, proud
4. rabbit	1939, 1951, 1963, 1975, 1987	Gentle, smart
5. dragon	1940, 1952, 1964, 1976, 1988	Successful, honest
6. snake	1941, 1953, 1965, 1977, 1989	Elegant, sensible
7. horse	1942, 1954, 1966, 1978, 1990	Popular, clever
8. goat	1943, 1955, 1967, 1979, 1991	Caring, sincere
9. monkey	1944, 1956, 1968, 1980, 1992	Original talented, cheeky
10. rooster	1945, 1957, 1969, 1981, 1993	Dependable, forgiving
11. dog	1946, 1958, 1970, 1982, 1994	Responsible, hating injustice
12. pig	1947, 1952, 1971, 1983, 1995	Peace-loving, loyal

Work Sheet 5-1  
New Vocabulary Words

1. Write the names and the order of Chinese zodiac.  
(Points: 20)



\_\_\_\_\_



\_\_\_\_\_



\_\_\_\_\_



\_\_\_\_\_



\_\_\_\_\_



\_\_\_\_\_



\_\_\_\_\_



\_\_\_\_\_



\_\_\_\_\_



\_\_\_\_\_



\_\_\_\_\_



\_\_\_\_\_

**Work Sheet 5-2**  
**Oral Conversation**

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

1. Write down your name, the year of birth, and adjective that your personality. (Points: 5)

<u>Name</u>	<u>Animal</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Personality</u>

2. Find two partners in the class to ask about their Chinese zodiac signs. (Points: 20)

<u>Name</u>	<u>Animal</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Personality</u>

**Work Sheet 5-3**  
**A Short Paragraph**

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

A. Ask your partner the following questions. (Points: 15)

1. What is your name?

\_\_\_\_\_

2. What is your Chinese zodiac sign?

\_\_\_\_\_

3. When were you born?

\_\_\_\_\_

4. What is your personality?

\_\_\_\_\_

B. According your partner's answers, please write the sentences into a paragraph. (Points: 25)

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

## Evaluation Rubric

Candidate: \_\_\_\_\_

### 1. Participation

<u>Component</u>	<u>Points</u>
Task Chain 1	_____/5
Task Chain 2	_____/5
Task Chain 3	_____/5
Total	_____/15

### 2. Assignments

<u>Component</u>	<u>Points</u>
Work Sheet 5-1	_____/20
Work Sheet 5-2 (Part I)	_____/5
Work Sheet 5-2 (Part II)	_____/20
Work Sheet5-3 (Part I)	_____/15
Work Sheet5-3 (Part II)	_____/25
Total	_____/85

### 3. Sub-total

<u>Component</u>	<u>Points</u>
Participation (Task Chain 1,2,and 3)	_____/15
Assignments Work Sheets 5-1, 5-2, and 5-3	_____/85
Total	_____/100



**Instructional Plan Six**  
**The Concepts of Chinese Zodiac Signs**

Teaching Level: Adult Intermediate Fluency

Time Frame: Sixty minutes

Performance Objectives:

- Content Goal: To recognize the importance of Chinese zodiac signs in Chinese culture
- Language Goal: To use a instructional conversation to practice speaking skills and also a writing prompt to improve writing
- Learning-strategy Goal: To develop students' different perspectives about Chinese zodiac signs

TESOL Standard:

- Goal 2: To use English to achieve academically in all content areas.
- Standard 1: Students will use English to interact in the classroom.
- Standard 2: Students will use English to obtain, process, construct, and provide subject matter information in spoken and written form.
- Standard 3: Students will use appropriate learning strategies to construct and apply academic knowledge.

Materials Required:

- Focus Sheets 6-1, 6-2, and 6-3
- Work Sheets 6-1, 6-2, and 6-3
- Assessment Sheet
- Evaluation Rubric

Warm-up:

The teacher reviews Chinese zodiac signs in Lesson Five and also asks students to describe their own personalities that match the animals of the Chinese zodiac. The teacher finds out how many students believe in Chinese zodiac signs. Then the teacher tells students that they are going to learn the origins of Chinese zodiac signs.

Task Chain 1: Knowing the Origins and the Importance of Chinese Zodiac Signs in Chinese Culture

1. When students understand the concept of the twelve animals of Chinese zodiac signs, the teacher starts to give them the background information of Chinese zodiac signs on Focus Sheet 6-1.
2. Students also read Focus Sheet 6-2 to understand the ancient realm of Chinese astrology.
3. Then the teacher explains the meaning and also discusses with students about superstitions.
4. When the teacher encourages students to think about the other aspects of Chinese zodiac signs, students read Focus Sheet 6-3 to realize different points of view.

Task Chain 2: Using Instructional Conversations and Writing Prompts to Practice Speaking and Writing Skills

1. After students reading the theme-related articles, they start to talk about their own opinions with classmates.
2. First, students find five to six people sitting in a circle.
3. According to the prompt of Work Sheet 6-1, students start to share their opinions with their group members.
4. During the instructional conversation, students practice their speaking skills in class.

Task Chain 3: Develop Students' Different Perspectives about Chinese Zodiac Signs

1. After students' discussion, they need to answer the questions on Work Sheet 6-2.
2. The teacher tells students that if they do not know the answer, they can read the focus sheets and find answers.
3. When the teacher makes sure students have acquired the whole lesson, the teacher asks students to write compositions on Work Sheet 6-3.

Formative Assessment:

- Task Chain 1: The teacher confirms students' comprehension of Focus Sheets 6-1, 6-2, and 6-3.
- Task Chain 2: The teacher walks around the classroom and makes sure every group member joins the instructional conversation.
- Task Chain 3: The teacher helps some students who have difficulty on Work Sheet 6-2 and also check students' answers randomly.

Summative Assessment:

1. The teacher gives the grades on Work Sheet 6-3 according to Assessment Sheet.
2. The teacher evaluates Work Sheets 6-1, 6-2, and 6-3 with the Evaluation Rubric.

A = 90-100 points	Excellent
B = 80-89 points	Good job
C = 70-79 points	Satisfactory
D = 60-69 points	Needs improvement
E = below 60 points	Study harder

## **Focus Sheet 6-1**

### **Background Information**

The Chinese animal signs are a 12-year cycle used for dating the years. They represent a cyclical concept of time, rather than the Western linear concept of time. The Chinese lunar calendar is based on the cycles of the moon, and is constructed in a different fashion than the Western solar calendar. The Chinese have adopted the Western calendar since 1911, but the lunar calendar is still used for festive occasions such as the Chinese New Year. Many Chinese calendars will print both the solar dates and the Chinese lunar dates. In traditional China, dating methods were cyclical, cyclical meaning something that is repeated time after time according to a pattern. A popular folk method which reflected this cyclical method of recording years are the twelve animal signs. Every year is assigned an animal name or "sign" according to a repeating cycle: Rat, Ox, Tiger, Rabbit, Dragon, Snake, Horse, Sheep, Monkey, Rooster, Dog, and Boar. Therefore, every twelve years the same animal name or "sign" would reappear.

A cultural sidelight of the animal signs in Chinese folklore is that horoscopes have developed around the animal signs, much like monthly horoscopes in the West have been developed for the different moon signs, Pisces, Aries, etc. For example, a Chinese horoscope may predict that a person born in the Year of the Horse would be, "cheerful, popular, and loves to compliment others." These horoscopes are amusing, but not regarded seriously by the Chinese people. The animal signs also serve a useful social function for finding out people's ages. Instead of asking directly how old a person is, people often ask what his or her animal sign is. This would place that person's age within a cycle of 12 years, and with a bit of common sense, we can deduce the exact age.

Adapted from:

[http://edsitement.neh.gov/view\\_lesson\\_plan.asp?id=344](http://edsitement.neh.gov/view_lesson_plan.asp?id=344)

●

**Focus Sheet 6-2**  
**The Ancient Realm of Chinese Astrology**

This ancient perspective on our modern lives comes from the ancient Oriental art of divination and character reading. The first cycle of this Zodiac was introduced in 2637 BC by Emperor Huang Ti. This 'art form' developed as the Chinese writing system emerged and joined with philosophy. Some fascinating insights into a person's character, lifestyle, and emotional makeup are revealed. The roots of this interpretive art are based deeply in the classical philosophy of Confucius, Lao-tse, and the Yi Jing (I Ching). According to Chinese legend, the order of the twelve signs was determined by Buddha, upon celebration of the Chinese New Year (which falls on different dates, from mid-January to mid-February.) The Buddha invited all of the animals in the kingdom together for a meeting, but only 12 creatures attended.

The first animal to arrive was the talkative Rat (who was aggressive enough to jump off the back of the Ox in order to be the #1 arrival); next, in place #2, came the serious, enduring and hard-working Ox with the honorable Tiger, and cautious Cat. The outspoken Dragon joined the others, along with the philosophical Snake. The physically active Horse arrived with the artistic Goat. The spirited Monkey and the showy Rooster came as well. The last to join the others was the watchful Dog and the meticulous, resigned Pig. Buddha gave each animal a year of its own, bestowing the nature and characteristics of each to those born in that animals year. As the Chinese say, "This is the animal that hides in your heart."

Adapted from:

<http://www.chineseastrology.com/wu/whatis.html>

### **Focus Sheet 6-3**

#### **Why the Superstition?**

By Peter Xuan

Chinese New Year has come and gone on the lunar calendar. It's known as a time for many Asian families to get together and celebrate their new year. As for me, the celebration of Chinese New Year isn't as big of a celebration as people would think. While I do express myself as Chinese, I'm more into the Christian calendar since I am also a Christian. So, Chinese New Year is just a regular holiday that's part of a tradition and culture--a way of showcasing the history of China and the Asian culture.

Along with these annual celebrations come many superstitions, one of which includes the Chinese Zodiac. According to the zodiac, each new year is defined by one of 12 characters--the rat, ox, tiger, rabbit, dragon, snake, horse, goat, monkey, rooster, dog, and boar--each believed to be the basis of a person's personality and life. Legends tell the stories of each character and describe their influence on people's lives. Some people are deeply connected to the spirit of their character, including the zodiac in their everyday routines.

However, I'm not a big believer in the Chinese zodiac. I don't really see any significance in it, nor do I believe that a certain kind of character can represent me. The zodiac is almost like a human-made free psychic. Ages ago, people made up descriptions of these 12 animals so others could have something to comfort themselves with when they're feeling isolated and depressed. It also gives them a really good reason, or should I say excuse, as to why they act the way they act.

Some people even go as far as to say that the zodiac can predict the future, so I ask, "What's the point of living then?" If the zodiac fits into their ideas about their lives, it's a coincidence. I don't believe that a specific character can represent someone's behaviors or attitudes. I just think people are too superstitious.

In conclusion, I don't think the New Year should be defined by the zodiac characters because it just seems too unrealistic. Don't get me wrong, my family does enjoy the foods that are provided on the table and we watch the Southwest Airline parade that is scheduled every year, but that's about it.

Adapted from:

[http://www.youthradio.org/society/050216\\_zodiac.shtml](http://www.youthradio.org/society/050216_zodiac.shtml)

**Work Sheet 6-1**  
**Instructional Conversation**

1. Gather five to six people in a group, and then sit in a circle. Read Focus Sheet 6-3 first, and then discuss it with your group member. According to the story of Focus Sheet 6-3, do you agree with Peter? Or do you think that Peter is wrong because he fails to respect about Chinese culture? Are Peter's points of view right?



**Work Sheet 6-2**  
**Answer the Questions**

A. Find out the answers according to Focus Sheet 6-2.

1. How does the Chinese calendar work?

---

2. What are the 12 animals of the zodiac?

---

3. How were the 12 animals of Chinese zodiac chosen?

---

4. What traits are associated with each animal?

---

5. How are the animals used as symbols?

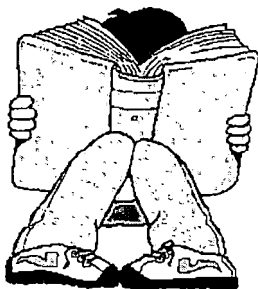
---

6. What is your animal sign, and what traits does it represent?

---

### Work Sheet 6-3

#### What is the Most Important Thing You Have Ever Learned?



What is the most important thing you have ever learned? Perhaps you learned a valuable lesson about how to get along with people. Think about reasons why this lesson was important to you. Remember to tell at least three reasons why what you learned was so important. Use specific details to explain and support your reasons. Include a short personal story about how what you learned helped you later, to help explain one of your reasons why what you learned was so important. Use interesting adjectives and descriptive words to make your paper interesting to read. (Points: 60)

Adapted from

<http://www.manatee.k12.fl.us/sites/elementary/palmasola/exprompt10.htm>

### Assessment Sheet

Candidate: \_\_\_\_\_ Reviewer: \_\_\_\_\_

<u>Component</u>	<u>Critique</u>
I. Organization <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Purpose of writing is clear</li> <li>• Opening paragraph offers rationale that connects the topic</li> <li>• Division of each paragraph is logical</li> <li>• The composition contains introduction and summary</li> </ul>	_____/15
II. Grammatical Competence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Phrases and clauses show logic</li> <li>• No syntax errors</li> <li>• The tense is appropriate</li> <li>• Spelling is correct</li> </ul>	_____/15
III. Strategic Competence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Use of elegant words to paraphrase ideas</li> <li>• The writing is smooth</li> </ul>	_____/15
IV. Format <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Work is professional, and word-processed</li> </ul>	_____/15
Total	_____/60
Instructor's Comments:	

### Evaluation Rubric

Name of the student: \_\_\_\_\_

	<u>Component</u>	<u>Points</u>
1	The student works in a group to practice the instructional conversation on Work Sheet 6-1.	____/20
2	The student can answer the questions on Work Sheet 6-2.	____/20
3	The teacher use Assessment Sheet to score students' writing on Work Sheet 6-3.	____/60
	Total	____/100

## REFERENCES

- Bates, L., Lane, J., & Lange, E. (1993). Writing clearly: Responding to ESL composition. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Blanton, L. L. (1992 March). Text and context: Changing roles of reading for writers. Paper presented at the international Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages Convention, Vancouver.
- Campbell, C. (1998). Teaching second-language writing: Interacting with text. Ontario, Canada: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. Richards & R. Schmidt (Eds.), Language and communication. New York: Longman.
- Carroll, S., & Swain, M. (1993). Explicit and implicit negative feedback: An empirical study of the learning of linguistic generalizations. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 15, 357-366.
- Christison, M. A., & Stoller, F. L. (1997). A handbook for language program administrators. Burlingame, CA: Alta Book Center Publishers.
- Cohen, A., & Cavalcanti, M. C. (1990). Feedback on compositions: Teacher and student verbal reports. In B. Kroll (Ed.) Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom (pp. 155-177). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Díaz-Rico, L. T. (2004). Teaching English learners: Strategies and methods. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Díaz-Rico, L. T., & Weed, K. (2002). The crosscultural, language, and academic development handbook (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Doll, R. (1996). Curriculum improvement: Decision making and process. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Doughty, C., & Williams, J. (1998). Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

- Echevarria, J., & Graves, A. (1998). Sheltered content instruction: Teaching English-language learners with diverse abilities. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Edge, J. (1993). Essentials of English language teaching. London, UK: Longman.
- Eisner, E. (1998). The educational imagination. New York: Macmillan Company.
- Ellis, A. K., Mackey, J. A., & Glenn, A. D. (1988). The school curriculum. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Ellis, R. (1990). Instructed second language acquisition. Oxford, England: Basil Blackwell.
- Ellis, R. (1994). The study of second language acquisition. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1997). SLA research and language teaching. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Evrin, E. A. (2003). EFL teachers' voice on communicative language teaching. Annual Meeting of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (Baltimore, MD, March 25-29).
- Feng, A. W. (2000). The culture learners bring to the classroom--An easily neglected essential. Paper presented at the Center for English Language Communication, November, National University of Singapore, Singapore.
- Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2001). Second language acquisition. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gibbons, P. (1993). Learning to learn in a second language. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Gibson, J. L., Ivancevich, J. M., & Donnelly, J. H. (1991). Organizations: Behavior, structure, process. Homewood, IL: Irwin.
- Golebiowska, A. (1990). Getting students to talk: A resource book for teachers with role-plays, simulations, and discussions. Cambridge: Prentice Hall International (UK) Ltd.

- Gordon, T. (1980). Leader effectiveness training. New York: Bantam Books, Inc.
- Gorton, R. A. (1987). School leadership and administration (3rd ed.). Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown Publishers.
- Graves, K. (1996). Teachers as course developers. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Henry, A. R. (1995). Gender differences in administrative styles. Paper presented at TESOL conference, Long Beach, CA.
- Herrell, A., & Jordan, M. (2004). Fifty strategies for teaching English learners (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education Ltd.
- Hlebowitsh, P. S. (2005). Designing the school curriculum. Boston, MA: Pearson Education Inc.
- Hoyle, E. (1986). The politics of school management. London: Hodder and Stoughton.
- Hunter, M. (1980). Teach more--faster. El Segundo, CA: TIP Publications.
- Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. Pride, & J. Holmes (Eds.), Sociolinguistics (pp. 269-293). Harmondsworth, UK: Penguin.
- Johnson, D. (1989). Enriching task contexts for second language writing: Power through interpersonal roles. In D. Johnson, & D. Roen (Eds.) Richness in writing: Empowering ESL students (pp. 39-54). New York: Longman.
- Johnson, K. (1981). Introduction: Some background, some key terms and some definitions. In K. Johnson, & K. Morrow (Eds.), Communications in the classroom (pp. 1-12). England: Longman Group Ltd.
- Johnson, R. K. (1989). The second language curriculum. New York: Cambridge University Press.

- Jonassen, D. H. (1988). Integrating learning strategies into courseware to facilitate deeper processing. In D. H. Jonassen (Ed.), Instructional designers for microcomputer courseware (pp. 151-182). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Katz, R. L. (1974). Skills of an effective administrator. Harvard Business Review, 52(5), 143-151.
- Lane J., & Lange, E. (1993). Writing clearly: An editing guide. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Lane J., & Lange, E. (2005 April). Essential teaching techniques for ESL composition instructors. Paper presented at the California Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages Conference, Fullerton, CA.
- Lawson, B., Ryan, S. S., & Winterowd, W. R. (1990). Encountering students text: Interpretive issues in reading student writing. Urbana, IL: NCTE.
- Leeman, J., Arteagoitia, I., Fridman, B., & Doughty, C. (1995). Integrating attention to form with meaning: Focus on form in content-based Spanish instruction. In R. Schmidt (Ed.), Attention and awareness in foreign language learning (pp. 217-258). Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.
- Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (1990). Focus-on-form and corrective feedback in communicative language teaching: Effects on second language learning. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 12, 429-428.
- Ling, L. G., Ho, L., Meyer, J. E. L., Varaprasad, C., & Young C. (2003). Teaching English to students from China. Singapore: Singapore University Press.
- Lysaught, J. P. (1984). Towards a comprehensive theory of communications: A review of selected contributions. Educational Administration Quarterly, Summer, 102.
- Mackey, A. (1999). Input, interaction and second language development. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 21, 557-587.



- Master, P. (1995). Consciousness raising and article pedagogy. In D. Belcher, & G. Braine (Eds.), Academic writing in a second language: Essays on research and pedagogy (pp. 183-204). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Morrison, G. R., Ross, S. M., & Kemp, J. E. (2004). Designing effective instruction (4th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Morrow, K. (1981). Introduction: Principles of communicative methodology. In K. Johnson, & K. Morrow (Eds.), Communication in the classroom: Applications and methods for a communicative approach (pp. 59-69). Essex, England: Longman Group Ltd.
- Omaggio Hadley, A. C. (1993). Teaching English in context. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.
- Paisey, A. (1981). Organization and management in schools. New York: Longman.
- Paris, S. G., Lawton, T. A., Turner, J. C., & Roth, J. L. (1991). A developmental perspective on standardized achievement testing. Educational Researcher, 20, 12-20.
- Pennington, M. C. (1985). Effective administration of an ESL program. In P. Larsen, E. Judd, & D. S. Messerschmitt (Eds.), On TESOL '84: A brave new world for TESOL (pp. 301-316). Washington, DC: TESOL.
- Peregoy, S. F., & Boyle, O. F. (2001). Reading, writing & learning in ESL (3rd ed.). New York: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.
- Posner, G. J., & Rudnitsky, A. N. (1997). Course design (5th ed.). New York: Longman.
- Radencich, M. C. (1995). Administration and supervision of the reading/writing program. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Raimes, A. (1991). Error: Windows into the mind. College ESL, 1 (2), 55-64.
- Ramsey, R. D. (1995). Administrator's complete school discipline guide. Paramus, NJ: Prentice Hall.

- Reid, J. M. (1993). Teaching ESL writing. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Rust, W. B. (1985). Management guidelines for teachers. Marshfield, MA: Pitman Publishing Inc.
- Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. Applied Linguistics, 11, 129-158.
- Schumann, J. (1978). The pidginization process: A model for second language acquisition. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), Error analysis: Perspectives on second language acquisition (pp. 31-54). London, UK: Longman.
- Smith, M. (1991). The Macmillan guide for teachers of writing. New York: Macmillan.
- Smith, P. L., & Ragan, T. J. (1999). Instructional design (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Spolsky, B. (1989). Conditions for second language learning: Introduction to a general theory. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Sullivan, J. H. (2004). Identifying the best foreign language teacher: Teacher standards and professional portfolios. The Modern Language Journal, 88, 390-402.
- Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook, & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), Principle and practice in applied linguistics: studies in honour of H. G. Widdowson (pp. 125-144). Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Taylor, B. P. (1987). Teaching ESL: Incorporating a communicative, student-centered component. In M. H. Long, & J. C. Richards (Eds.), Methodology in TESOL (pp.45-60). Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- VanPatten, B. (1987). On babies and bathwater: Input in foreign language learning. Modern Language Journal, 71, 156-164.
- Vigil, N. A., & Oller, J. W. (1976). Rule fossilization: A tentative model. Language Learning, 26, 281-295.

- Weinstein, C., & Mayer, R. (1986). The teaching of learning strategies. Handbook of research on teaching. New York: Macmillan.
- Wharton, S., & Race, P. (1999). 500 tips for TESOL. London, UK: Kogan Page Limited.
- White, R., Martin, M., Stimson, M., & Hodge, R. (1991). Management in English language teaching. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Wilkinson, P. F., McNutt, M. A. & Friedman, E. S. (2003). Practical teaching methods K-6. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press Inc.
- Zook, K. B. (2001). Instructional design for classroom teaching and learning. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.