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CONSTRUCTIVISM AND MEDIATED LEARNING IN DESIGNING
ENGLISH-AS-A-FOREIGN-LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

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

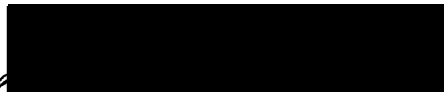
by
Chun-Hsiu Chen
March 2005

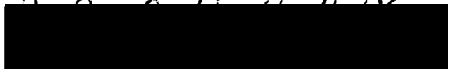
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March 2005

Approved by:


Lynne Diaz-Rico, First Reader


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12-15-04
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ABSTRACT

Social interaction is the foundation of knowledge construction in a constructivist classroom. This project proposes a mediated instruction that is based on the theory of constructivism and social interaction to help new adult immigrants successfully to achieve English competence and adapt quickly to the culture of the United States.

Chapter One introduces the relationship between language learning and social interaction and addresses the purpose, context, and significance of this project. Chapter Two explains four fundamental theories of this project: constructivism in the English-as-a-foreign-language classroom, mediated learning experience, identity and language learning, and design and language development. Chapter Three summarizes and unites the theoretical foundations reviewed in Chapter Two and provides a theoretical model of instruction. Chapter Four addresses an overview of the curriculum design presented in the Appendix. Chapter Five explains the details of the unit assessment plan. There are six instructional plans in the Appendix that are based on the theories presented in Chapter Two.

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CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND

Introduction

The Role of Language in Adapting to a New Environment

The United States of America is often referred to as a big "melting pot," because of various immigrants of different races and cultures that make up the nation. To pursue their dreams, new immigrants come to the United States for a better living environment, a better education, or just in general to start a new life. Hence, this group of people, in order to adapt to a new environment, needs to learn English.

Language learning and adaptation to a new society are closely associated. To many Non-native-English speakers, achieving sufficient English competence is the key to entering a new culture. Adult immigrants comprise a special category of English learners who need to learn the language for the purpose of surviving in the United States.

The Social Context of Teaching Adult Students

To understand where the students come from and what are their goals might require more than conventional ways of teaching English. The major difference between teaching adults and children is that adult students usually come to

the classroom with diverse background knowledge and different levels of English competence. Besides, each adult student differs in attributes such as gender, age, social classes, etc. With this in mind, the instructor needs to address issues that might not occur when teaching in other environments, and ignoring these special conditions would only result in more difficulties in helping students adapt.

Target Teaching Level

The level that I plan to teach is adult English-as-a-second-language (ESL)/English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) students, especially emphasizing students who are new to the United States. When entering a new society, it usually takes one a long time to fully adapt to the new culture and improve one's English to the level required for academic success or even daily survival. Nevertheless, it is important to most of adult ESL/EFL students to reach a certain level of English proficiency as soon as possible to meet their daily needs.

The best way to provide adult learners what they need is to know what they want. I was an international EFL student myself, and I have experienced many of the difficulties that a new comer to the United States might face. Therefore, I believe that I know better what adult

English learners need than would other teachers who have not had this experience. Furthermore, helping adult ESL/EFL students to adapt to the new language environment has always been a part of my dream and life goal.

The Purpose of the Project

Almost every adult ESL/EFL student has had a similar experience: After studying English for many years in their native countries, they come to United States full of expectations. However, the problem appears the moment that they set foot in America. What they have learned in the past years seems totally useless. They have a hard time practicing their English skills, not only in their daily lives, but also in the classroom.

The purpose of this project is to introduce a mediated ESL/EFL instruction. With carefully planned instruction, adult ESL/EFL students who are new to the United States will be helped to achieve their English skills and properly incorporate their English knowledge in daily life as soon as possible. After leaving the classroom, the learning strategies they have acquired will be useful for their further learning. In mediated instruction, the instructor is the agent between the information and the students. The job of the instructor is

not only to filter out trivial information and provide students a focus for each lesson, but also to evaluate students' learning and give advice to students to help them achieve a better learning outcome.

The Content of the Project

The project is divided into five chapters. Chapter One provides background information about English education in ESL/EFL classroom in the United States, and the context, purpose, and significance of the project. Chapter Two consists of a review of relevant literature. Chapter Three discusses the importance of the literature review in the teaching of English to adult ESL/EFL students and proposes a theoretical framework. Chapter Four describes a teaching unit of six lessons based on concepts presented in the proposed framework in the previous chapter. Chapter Five previews how the lessons presented in the Appendix should be assessed. Finally, the bibliographic references conclude the project.

The Significance of the Project

This study synthesizes theories of constructivism, mediated learning experience, identity and language learning, and the concept of design into a theoretical framework for instructing adult ESL/EFL learners. The

significance of this project is the integration of theoretical concepts with relevant curricula, a description of mediated instruction that incorporates students' prior knowledge. The purpose of this project is for adult ESL/EFL learners to acquire English more efficiently.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Constructivism in the English-as-a- Foreign-Language Classroom

When the goal of revising the standards of the elementary-school curriculum was announced by the Taiwanese Department of Education in 1993, "develop students' ability to actively construct and comprehend the concept of mathematics from their own experience....," constructivism began to be discussed ardently in Taiwan and viewed as an important educational philosophy (Lin, 2001). Mathematics teachers in elementary schools were the first group who were appointed to use constructivism in teaching. To most of the elementary-school teachers in Taiwan who had been using teacher-centered means throughout almost their entire career, the theory of constructivism in teaching was so novel that few teachers knew what to do. Before being asked to use constructivism in teaching, one should know its definition and constituent features.

What Is Constructivism?

Probably the most comprehensive definition of constructivism is O'Banion's (1997):

Constructivism is a philosophy of learning founded on the premise that one constructs his [sic] own understanding of the world he [sic] lives in, through active reflection on his [sic] experience. Through this process, one develops 'rules' and 'mental models' for making sense of the world and guiding his [sic] behavior. Learning occurs when one has to adjust his [sic] mental constructions to take into account new information in his [sic] environment that does not fit those constructions. 'Knowledge' is created through the relationship between the individual and the world. It is inherently subjective and provisional. Knowledge is valued because it improves the 'map' between one's mental constructions and actual experience not because it matches what the 'teacher' already knows. (p. 6)

In other words, knowledge is actively constructed by the learners, not passively received from the environment. However, the premise is that the prior knowledge of the learner is essential to be able actively to construct new knowledge. As they reflect on their experiences and previous knowledge, learners construct their own understanding of the world they live in. Therefore, one can also say that the learners construct their mental model (new knowledge system) by reflecting on everything they have encountered in their previous experience. Hence, learners individually generate their own rules and mental models by which they adjust their mental constructions to accommodate new experiences.

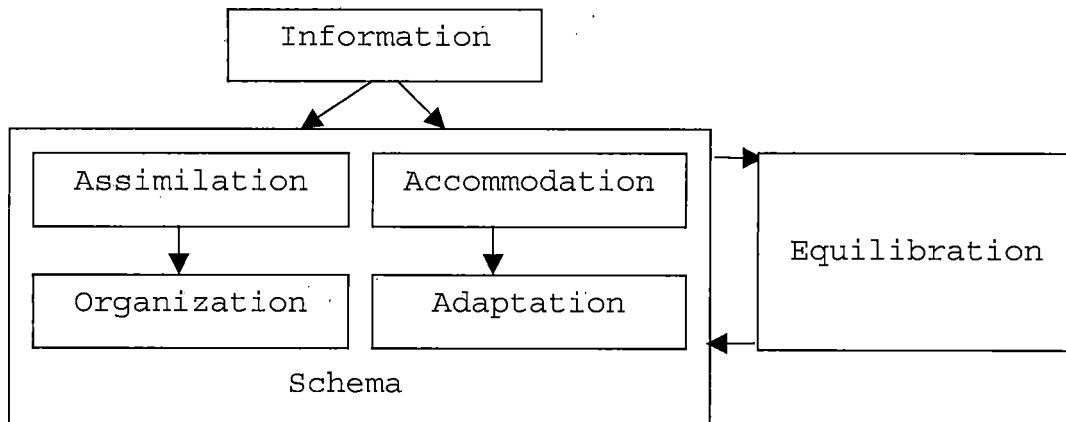
As more and more scholars study constructivism, different points of view appear. According to Chang (1996), there are three major schools in modern constructivism: trivial (cognitive) constructivism, radical constructivism, and social constructivism.

Trivial (Cognitive) Constructivism

The simplest idea and the basis of all the other aspects of constructivism is what von Glasersfeld (1992) called trivial constructivism. The main concept of trivial constructivism is derived from the assimilation-accommodation and schema models of Jean Piaget (see Figure 1). According to Newcomb (2002), "Assimilation is a cognitive process in which an individual 'files' new information under already existing schema. In contrast, accommodation requires cognitive schema to be changed in order to account for new information" (n. p.). However, Newcomb noted that accommodation does not mean that a permanent change or modification in a cognitive system or any of its components needs to have taken place. Rather, as Newcomb continued,

Adult accommodation may take place in a situation like accepting a teacher's answers without real understanding. Equilibration is a process that can occur when an individual attempts to reconcile her current cognitive

schema with an observation that does not fit. In some cases, a perturbation such as a failure to understand something leads the individual to restructure her cognitive schema in order to account for new information. (Newcomb, 2002, n. p.)



Source: Jaffe, M. (1998). Adolescence. New York: John Wiley and Sons Ltd, p. 45

Figure 1. Diagram of Piaget's Cognitive Theory

After Piaget, scholars like A. E. Lawson applied Piaget's theory to mathematics and extended it to other areas, including language, art, social skills. The emphasis of their studies was largely on looking for the common ground in human mental development. These later scholars are grouped as "Neo-Piagetian" (Cobern, 1993, n. p.). Their studies provided the basis of constructivist theory: "Knowledge is actively constructed by the learner, not passively received from the environment" (Dougiamas, 1998, p. 2).

Von Glasersfeld looked at constructivism from an epistemological perspective. A quote from von Glasersfeld in 1992 explained the origins of the term "trivial constructivism":

When the term constructivism became fashionable and was adopted by people who had no intention of changing their epistemological orientation, I introduced the term trivial constructivism. My intent was to distinguish this fashion from the radical movement that broke with the tradition of cognitive representation. (p. 170)

Radical Constructivism

The second principle of constructivism--radical constructivism--is derived from von Glasersfeld. From Piaget's cognitive theory von Glasersfeld (1990) developed the notion of radical constructivism: "Coming to know is a process of dynamic adaptation towards viable interpretations of experience. The knower does not necessarily construct knowledge of a 'real' world" (p. 23). In other words, one has no way of knowing what "real" reality might be, because input is filtered. Previous constructions also influence one's perceptions of current experience. One constructs "viable" models of reality based on social and physical constraints. Again, the emphasis here is that the mind (the individual's constructed knowledge) is different from objective reality of the world. The following statement as an example may

help to explain radical constructivism: Books do not contain "knowledge" because what they contain is only meaningless symbols. The meaning comes from the learners' cognitive interpretation of symbols, not from the symbols themselves. Hence, when teachers are giving a lecture, in reality they are giving sounds and signals. The lecture will become meaningful only when it is related to learner's experiences and previous knowledge.

In the opinion of von Glasersfeld, the only way to fully extend the meaning of constructivism is to combine both the first and second principles. However, "although radical constructivism extended the initial meaning of constructivism, it is still not widely accepted because it only concerns the subjective knowledge construction of individuals and ignores the objective social common views that affects individuals' cognitive activity" (Chang, 1996, ¶ 12, translated from the original).

Social Constructivism

Social constructivism is a theory originally based on the work of Vygotsky, a psychologist of the early Russian Soviet period. The main concept of social constructivism is that "knowledge is a social construction generated from negotiation among individuals" (Chang, 1996, ¶ 12). In other words, knowledge is discussed and negotiated by the

people who are affected by the same elements of the sociocultural environment. Therefore, the knowledge formed by individuals is affected by their present sociocultural environment.

Unlike radical constructivism, which emphasizes the individual learner as a constructor, the focus in social constructivism is on interpersonal activities and social collaboration. Social constructivism emphasizes that knowledge is first social and then internalized. Renshaw (1992) explained the source of constructed knowledge in the following way:

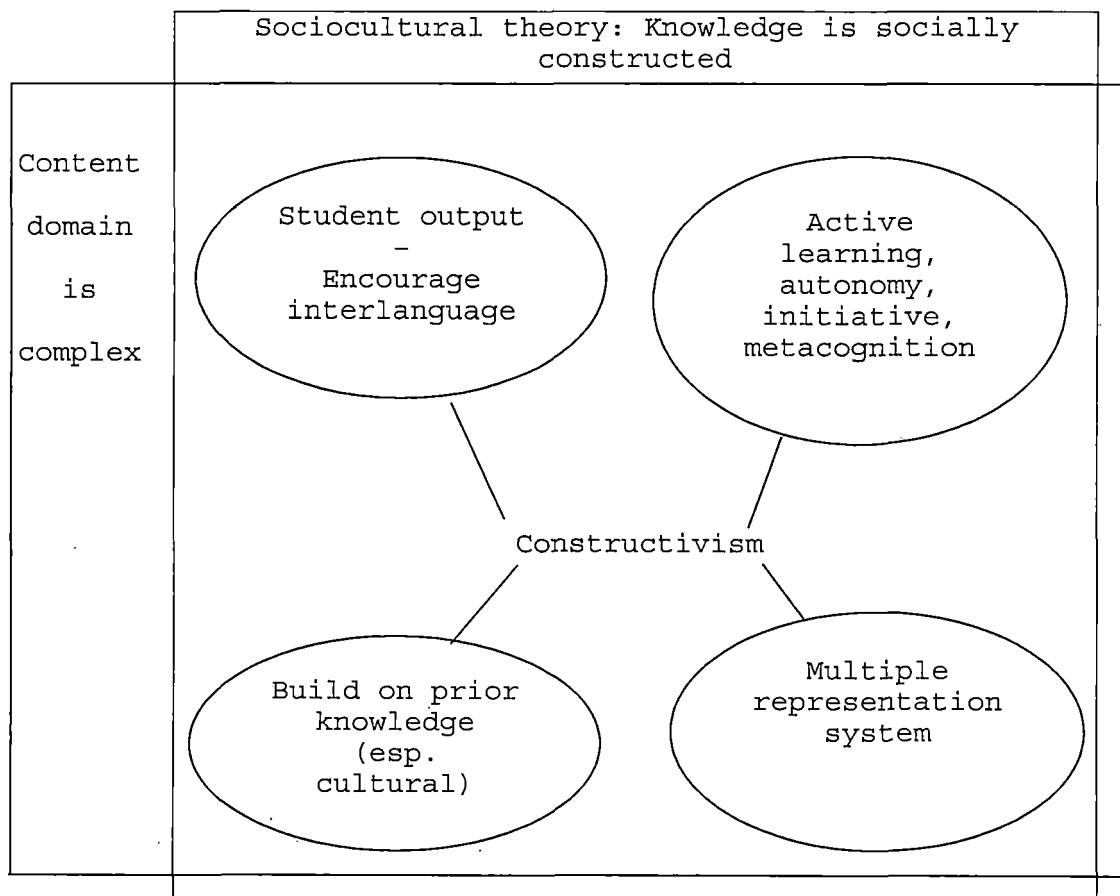
People obtain and redefine new information not just from others in social contexts and during social exchange, but rather the actual means of social interaction (language, gesture) are appropriated by the individual (internalised and transformed) to form the intramental tools for thinking, problem-solving, remembering, and so on. (n. p.)

Vygotsky (1978) believed that "learning is a necessary and universal aspect of the process of developing culturally organized, specifically human psychological function" (p. 90). In other words, social learning tends to precede development of the learner's character. In social constructivism, the social environment surrounding the learner plays a central role

in communication and character development. It mediates between the learner and the acquisition of knowledge.

Adapting Constructivism for English Learners

Integrating the theory of constructivism in the three schools mentioned above, Chen and Diaz-Rico (2003) proposed a model of constructivism (see Figure 2) and



Source: Chen, C., & Diaz-Rico, L. (2003). Adapting Constructivism for English Learners. Presentation, CATESOL State Conference, Pasadena, CA.

Figure 2. Model of Constructivism

suggested solutions for potential difficulties in a constructivist learning environment for English learners.

In a constructivist-based teaching setting, according to Chen and Diaz-Rico (2003), there are six important components. First, the content domain is complex, requiring acquisition of difficult concepts or mental structures using problem-based learning. Second, language is used to negotiate socially constructed meaning, consonant with sociocultural theory. Third, students learn actively and autonomously, using initiative and metacognition. Fourth, teaching is adapted to learners' output, encouraging students to construct their version of L2 uniquely, thus, creating a learner's language (interlanguage theory). Fifth, learning builds upon students' prior knowledge, which is culturally based. And last, students use multiple representational systems to acquire and display knowledge—they use not only verbal language, but also computers, charts, pictures, graphics, and so forth.

Potential Difficulties and Solutions in Utilizing Constructivism

When teaching ESL/EFL students complex academic content, an instructor might assume that ESL/EFL student as needs a simplified curriculum. However, the instructor

should raise learners to the level of the material to continue teaching effectively. On the other hand, the instructor might find learners lacking adequate power and proficiency to negotiate meaning when teaching students to negotiate socially constructed meaning. The instructor should help by offering students time to discuss potential choices. Also, when teaching students to learn actively and autonomously, the instructor might find that the learning habits fostered within the learner's cultures are either too passive or too autonomous. In this case, teaching metacognition should be the effective solution to help students to think about their thinking processes from an objective perspective and obtain knowledge at the proper pace.

Contrastingly, some teachers may regard error as wrong and reduce the climate of risk-taking when adapting to learners' output. It is an important task for the instructor to recognize this and embrace learners' errors, using the error as evidence of students' attempts to achieve proficiency. Furthermore, when trying to build shared students' prior knowledge, instructors may find that learners have different prior knowledge than school requires. The instructor should realize this difference and build common background to reach a common starting

point. Lastly, in the process of teaching students to use multiple representational systems to acquire and display knowledge, the instructor might find U.S. American schooling is highly dependent on verbal representation. It is essential to use cycles of alternative representation to address this possible difficulty.

Summary

Constructivism is a meta-concept. It is not just another way of knowing, but a way of thinking about knowing. There are three major principles of constructivism. First, knowledge is actively constructed by the learner, not passively received from the environment. Second, coming to know is a process of dynamic adaptation towards viable interpretations of experience. The knower does not necessarily construct knowledge of a "real" world. And the last, knowledge is a social construction generated from negotiation among individuals. For the best application of constructivism in teaching, a teacher must integrate these principles mentioned above to design a complete constructivist instruction to help students reaching goals.

This chapter has presented three schools of constructivism and their principles. A model of constructivism was also proposed. Applying the concept of

constructivism in the proposed model, educators can identify potential difficulties that might occur during the course of teaching. It is important to realize the problems and have access to possible solutions.

Mediated Learning Experience

Mediated Learning Experience (MLE) was combined with the theory of Structural Cognitive Modifiability (SCM) by Reuven Feuerstein to extend Jean Piaget's stimuli-organism-response (S-O-R) model. The central hypothesis of Feuerstein's (2000) SCM theory is human modifiability: "Human beings are viewed as open systems, accessible to change throughout their life spans, and responsive to conditions of remediation, providing that the intervention is properly directed to the individual's need" (p. 1). Feuerstein believes that mediated learning experience is the engine of Structural Cognitive Modifiability theory.

What Is Mediated Learning Experience?

Mediated learning experience, generally, is an intervention that enables learners to make sense of their environment. Feuerstein (2002) proposed that human cognitive development occurs through an individual-environment interaction, and learners could be

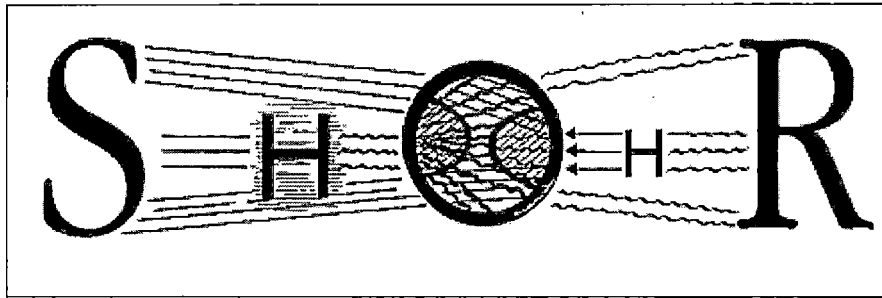
exposed to stimuli in two modalities of interaction described in the MLE theory:

Interaction between the organism and environment may occur: (a) as a direct learning experience, immediately consequent to direct exposure to stimulation, and (b) through a mediated learning experience that requires the presence and actively of a human being to filter, select, interpret, and elaborate that which has been experienced. (p. 1)

Concerning the mediation process, Blagg (1990) made a clear comparison between the two modalities:

Mediated learning experience is a subtle process in which adults emphasize, interpret, extend, and embellish the environment so that the child builds up an internal model of the world in which disparate aspects of experience are meaningfully related. Whereas direct stimuli impact on the child in a haphazard random fashion, mediated stimuli cannot escape the child's attention and recognition. Through MLE, salient features of the environment are amplified, transformed, and rescheduled while others are blocked out so that the child is helped to systematize, select and appreciate what to ignore and what to notice. (p. 18)

Therefore, in MLE theory, Feuerstein emphasized the role of the human mediator (H) in coming between the learner and the world of stimuli or the world of responses, extending J. Piaget's stimuli-organism-response (S-O-R) model into S-H-O-H-R as shown in Figure 3:



Source: Feuerstein, R. (1988). Don't accept me as I am: Helping "retarded" people to excel. New York: Plenum Press

Figure 3. Mediated Learning Experience Model

The relationship between MLE and direct exposure to stimuli can be set forth as follows:

The more and the earlier an organism is subjected to MLE, the greater will be his [sic] capacity to effectively use and be affected by direct exposure to sources of stimuli; the less MLE offered to the growing organism, the lower will be his [sic] capacity to become affected and modified by direct exposure to stimuli.
(Feuerstein, 1985, p. 16)

Model of Mediated Learning Experience

Shown in Figure 3, the model of mediated learning experience is addressed as S-H-O-H-R. According to Feuerstein (1988), "the organism (O) exposed directly to stimuli (S) receives and responses (R) competently and fully to them only after features have been selected, framed, modified, by the human mediator" (p. 55). In other words, the human mediator imposes the things to be learned to the learners in a specific order so that he can assure that the relations between stimuli will be experienced in

a certain way. Through the mediator's intentional behavior, learners are helped to realize the intensity and the order of appearance of given stimuli and all changes that occur in the mediation process. Then, the reasons for the observed changes become the object of examination by the mediator, who points out the crucial events and their critical aspects.

By the same token, the teacher interposes as a human mediator between the learners and their responses to the perceived reality and shapes the responses so that they will have cognitive and social meanings. Moreover, the mediator also rejects factors that fail to communicate adequately or to adopt themselves to the particularities of the experienced stimulus. Therefore, without the mediator's interposition in between, the learners will develop very few of the prerequisites for learning.

Characteristics of the Mediated Learning Experience

Feuerstein distinguished among many aspects of mediation, some of which he regarded as being culturally determined and others as universal. The following three factors constitute MLE and are universal, appearing in every time and culture: intentionality/reciprocity, transcendence, and meaning (Feuerstein, 2000, p. 2).

According to Blagg (1990), intentionality is the imposition of the mediator on the mediation. The mediator must find ways of creating a state of vigilance in the learner and a way of orienting the learner to particular stimuli and experiences. Reciprocity refers to the feedback from the learner that the mediator's intentions are understood. Feuerstein (1988) also addresses this feedback circuit:

Mediated learning is present whenever there is a strong, clear loop between the sending and the receiving ends of the communication process. In fact, a mediated learning experience is not considered to have occurred unless the mediator is sure that the message reached the intended receiver. (p. 64)

Transcendence refers to the need to embellish the learning experience with a purpose or significance that goes beyond the particular needs of the task. For instance, the urgent immediate need of a mother who shouted "no" toward her child at the point of touching the fire is to keep the child from the danger. However, there was nothing meaningful going beyond the immediate need. Because the goal of MLE is to help learners become capable to connect current and other similar experiences so that they can solve problems independently when they encounter something similar in the future, the mother must explain "why" touching the fire is dangerous to the child so that

this experience can become a meaningful long-term effect. In other words, the instruction "no" will be complemented with a series of explanations of the reason behind this "no," which are not necessary to the immediate need to save the child but are crucial in terms of the goal of the MLE (Feuerstein, 1988).

As for meaning, Feuerstein (1988) defined the term as follows:

The mediation of meaning represents the energetic, affective, emotional power that will make the mediational interaction overcome resistance on the part of the learner and thereby ensure that the stimuli mediated will indeed be experienced by that learner. Meaning, mediated verbally, gesturally, or by mimicry, and reflected in the organization of the universe of objects and events, assures that the child not only becomes receptive to the world but also is engaged in a mutual and reciprocal interaction with it. (p. 66)

Blagg (1990) also had a short explanation of mediation of meaning: "Meaning concerns the way in which the mediator endows the learning experience with a purpose, relevance and excitement, whether this means simply "do this for me" or "do this because it will help you..."

Intentionality/reciprocity, transcendence, and meaning are tightly linked to each other, so it is difficult to define a MLE interaction without any one of

them. Other characteristics of MLE, such as feeling of competence, regulation and control of behavior, sharing behavior, individuation and psychological differentiation, goal seeking, goal planning, goal-achieving behavior, challenge, optimistic choice of alternatives, self-change, and feelings of belonging, are not less important but are based on cultural characteristics. Although they also influence various ages and societies in different ways, this project does not investigate these concepts further.

The Role of Human Mediator

According to Feuerstein (2000), an intentional human mediator must interpose him- or herself between the stimuli and the learner's response, with the intention of mediating the stimuli or the responses to the learner.

Knower (2003) expressed her view of MLE as follows:

The human mediator must assess the student's need concerning the areas of the comprehension of task requirements, content, approach to task, learning style, efficiency and effectiveness of mediated learning strategies, the cognitive functions, spontaneous motivation, and the zone of proximal development. During the mediation, the human mediator must provides the content information, asks questions, set limits, and provides feedback and support for creative thinking and problem solving models according to learner's learning condition, and enable the learner to clear his or her intention, maintain reciprocal interaction, and be aware of his/her own learning process. (n. p.)

Psychological Tools and Mediated Learning Experience

Besides the human mediator, Vygotsky (1978, 1986) suggested two other classes of mediators that are involved in higher mental processes of learners: material tools and psychological tools. He expounded in his book written with Luria in 1993 that material tools have only an indirect influence on human psychological processes because they are directed at processes in nature. However, the use of material tools puts new demands on human mental processes. According to Vygotsky, material tools do not exist as individual implements; they presuppose collective use, interpersonal communication, and symbolic representation. And this symbolic aspect of the tool-mediated activity is what he designated "psychological tools."

Psychological tools are those symbolic artifacts-- signs, symbols, texts, formulae, and the most fundamentally, language--that enable humans to master their own psychological functions like memory, perception, attention, and so on (Kozulin, 1998, p. 84). For instance, people might paste a little note in a place noticeable to them as an external mnemonic device to ensure the retrieval of information from memory. Finger counting, as another example, helps people to organize information

during the higher mental process involved in elementary arithmetic operations. Whereas material tools are directed at the objects of nature (outward), psychological tools mediate human's own psychological processes (inward).

In regular educational practice, Kozulin (1998) considered that the acquisition, internalization, and use of psychological tools are essential cognitive elements of instruction. However, the role of psychological tools is often obscured because the acquisition of content material and psychological tools is often intertwined. Thus, he suggested three presuppositions of acquiring psychological tools: (a) A learning process that is deliberate rather than spontaneous; (b) the systemic of tools, because they are systematically organized; and (c) an emphasis on the generalized nature of tools and their use (p. 86).

Comparing the three presuppositions above to the characteristics of MLE--internationality, transcendence, and mediation of meaning--there are considerable overlaps. On the part of internationality, the use of psychological tools must have a deliberate action. If there is no internationality on the part of the teacher-mediator, students will often end up losing their focus on the symbolic tools and being unable to identify the instrumental part of the learning material. Then the



psychological tools will have failed to help students' learning in the MLE setting.

As far as transcendence is concerned, psychological tools are generalized by their nature. A tool fulfills its role only if it is used as a generalized instrument capable of organizing individual cognitive and learning processes in different contexts and in application to different tasks. That is why the failure to teach psychological tools in a transcendent manner inevitably leads to the failure of their use by the students (Kozulin & Lurie, 1994). For example, learning foreign languages should be a tool for learners to break through the linguistic obstacles of acquiring different things from foreign countries. However, the education of English language in Taiwan is achieved only as content and skills training for exams, without the mediation of the generalized instrumental function. As a result, the English skills remain isolated and fail to influence further learning in future life.

As for meaning, the mediation of meaning is crucial in both MLE and the acquisition of psychological tools. MLE becomes possible only when stimuli or information are infused with meaning by the mediator. And the symbolic tools will lose their meaning and purpose once they are

separated from the culture that engenders them. Thus, if the meaning and purpose of symbolic tools is mediated poorly to learners, the tools' instrumental functions will not be understood properly. For example, if a learner studies a foreign language as a coding system that simply deals with the interpretation between foreign words and native words, comprehension and expression in the foreign language will eventually be a problem. On the contrary, if the purpose of studying the foreign language is mediated as an ability to comprehend and formulate meaningful propositions, the learner will become capable of identifying the instrumental role of the foreign language.

From Theory to Practice

MLE theory, in the initial and primary stage, is mostly used in special education to help children who are retarded, autistic, or have learning disabilities. It also provides the theoretical basis to applied systems such as the Learning Potential Assessment Device (LPAD), which affords analysis of an individual's capacity for modification; and Instrumental Enrichment (IE), which is constituted by a series of tasks that develop and activate cognitive functions. The inclusion of mediation in the assessment procedure constitutes an essential difference between the IQ type of assessment and the LPAD.

Mediation also provides the pedagogical framework for the IE cognitive intervention program (Feuerstein, 2001; Minuto, 1997).

As application of MLE theory has gradually been extended, more and more theories can be related to it and co-applied in various educational settings.

Chen (2003) connected MLE with the theory of peer learning. She encouraged her students to form study groups in class and viewed each member of the group as a mediator to provide other students various information or guide them to view a given subject from different aspects. During the mediation process, they not only monitored each other's learning to ensure the validity of information, but also became the motivation for one another's learning.

Another application of MLE can also often be seen in a class with guest speakers. For example, the teacher of a history class might invite a Native American to the class to share the American Indian life experience with the students. Through the interaction between the guest speaker and the students, students can have a deeper concept of the life styles, custom, and culture of Native Americans.

Summary

Believing in human modifiability, Feuerstein asserted the importance of mediated learning experience on affecting individual's cognitive development. The earlier MLE begins, the greater one's efficiency in becoming modified through direct exposure to stimuli, and the greater one's capacity for further learning and development. In MLE, the role of mediator is emphasized, especially the human mediator. Because the goal of MLE is not only to help learners to make connections between a current experience and other similar experiences but also to give learners the ability to solve problems when they encounter similar situation in the future, the mediators play a crucial role in the mediation processes. Human mediators must master the three characteristics of MLE (intentionality, transcendence, and mediation of meaning) so that they can make MLE a success. The lack of MLE usually limits the meaning and significance of experienced events of learners because these experiences are grasped in an episodic manner without being related to other events experienced by learners. Therefore, lacking MLE will deprive learners' of the prerequisites of higher mental processes despite an inherent capacity.

Identity and Language Learning

It has been shown in various research that identity has a significant influence on how learners acquire a new language. As Lam (2003) emphasized in her study, literacy not only "could be used to initiate a learner into existing social position," but also "affords the potential for learners to engage with multiple discourses and re-design their relation to any particular social group" (n. p.). In other words, "language is not only related to changing one's status from an outsider to a group member but also related to multiple group memberships or identities and how norms and stereotypes of gender, sexual orientation, ethnic and national identities are perpetuated or contested in discourse" (Lam, 2000, n. p.) Therefore, it is essential to understand what identity is, how identity is related to language socialization, and how identity affects one's capability to acquire a new language.

What Is Identity?

According to Ivanič (1998), the definition of social identity is as follows:

Social identity consists firstly of a person's set of values and beliefs about reality, and how these affect the ideational meaning which they convey through language. Social identity consists secondly of a person's sense of their

relative status in relation to others with whom they are communicating, and this affects the interpersonal meaning which they convey through language. A third component of social identity is a person's orientation to language use, and this will affect the way they construct their message. (p. 40)

An individual's identity is closely associated with social context and daily discourse. It is how individuals project themselves into society, and how elements in life such as school, work, culture, and the environment construct and define each individual.

Identity and Language Socialization

Lam (2004) related the concept of identity with language-socialization theory, indicating that "the concept of identity has gained prominence in second-language studies in the past decade as researchers have begun to look at the social contexts of language learning and how structural categories, such as race, ethnicity, class, and gender affect the learning process and are, to some extent, influenced by it" (p. 16).

Furthermore, Lam considered the results of various research connecting language learning and the socialization through which the learner acquires particular status and relationships in the social environment where the learning takes place. She stated that the research

...has examined the patterns of communication between adults and children, same-age and cross-age peers, and interactions in institutional and community settings across different ethnic and socioeconomic groups, and it has shown that language learning is intricately related to the construction of social roles, cultural affiliations, beliefs, values, and behavioral practices among participants in a social community. (p. 3)

Similarly, by studying the interactions between teachers and students in ESL classrooms, Poole (1992) emphasized that the acquisition of linguistic and sociocultural knowledge are integral to one another (p. 593).

Language-socialization theory is elaborated by Sarangi and Roberts (2002) who stated that "language socialization has the double function of learning to understand language through social experiences and of learning to understand social experiences through language" (p. 198). Poole (1992) also cited Ochs and Schieffelin's (1984) view of language socialization, explaining that language socialization encompasses two fundamental processes: socialization to use language and socialization through language. Socialization to use language refers to interaction sequences in which novices are directed to use language in specific ways, and socialization through language concerns the use of

language to encode and create cultural meaning. Both processes point to the interdependence of language and culture and to the profound role language plays in the socialization process.

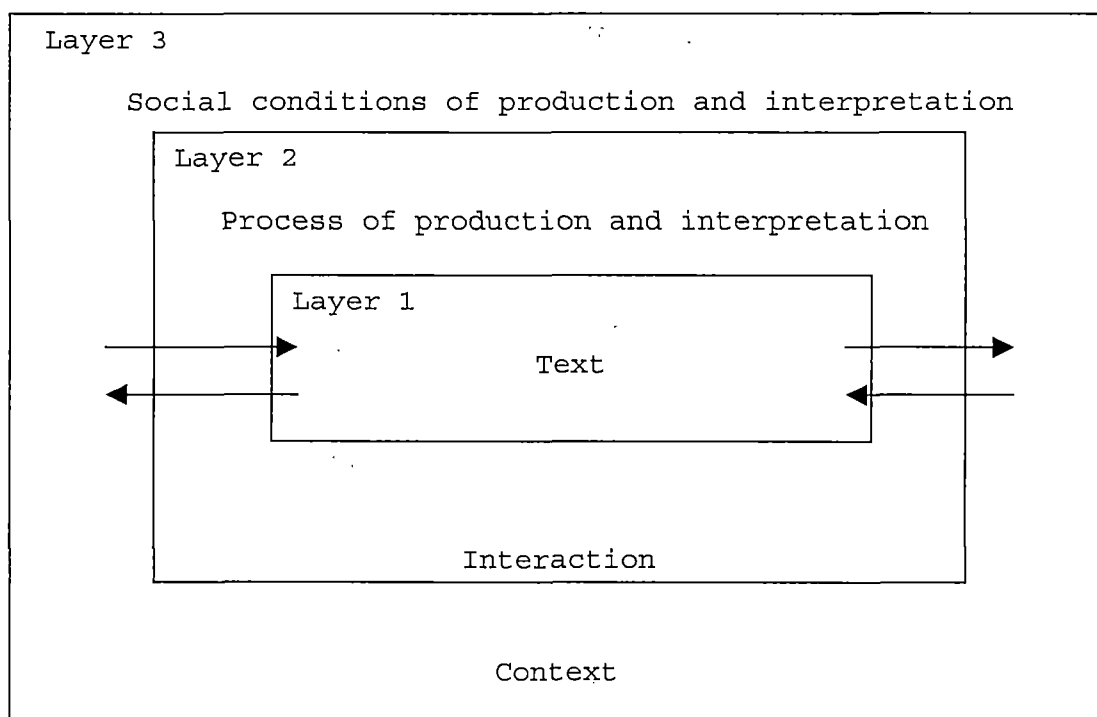
Fairclough's Model

In order to comprehend the relationship between language and social context more easily, Ivanič (1998) reproduced a diagram by Fairclough to represent a social view of language, as shown in Figure 4.

According to Fairclough (1992), the text layer represents two types of content: "social reality" and "social relations and social identities." These correspond to what Halliday (1993) called "ideational meaning" and "interpersonal meaning." The middle layer of the diagram represents the processes of production and interpretation of texts. People are located in this layer, thinking and doing things in the process of producing and interpreting texts.

The outer layer of the diagram is the social-context layer, which "shapes discourse production, discourse interpretation and the characteristics of the text itself" (Ivanič, 1998, p. 42). The outer layer clearly shows that social conditions are part of what comprises language.

The diagram illustrates how "text (written or spoken) is inextricable from the process of production and interpretation which create it, and that these processes are in turn inextricable from the various local, institutional and socio-historical conditions within which the participants are situated" (Ivanič, 1998, p. 41).



Source: Fairclough, N. (1989). Language and power. London: Longman. (p. 41).

Figure 4. Discourse as Text, Interaction and Context

The Connection of Identity and Language

Norton (1997) examined the work of various researchers who are influential in understanding the connection between identity and language. Fundamentally,

Norton posited that "identity relates to desire--the desire for recognition, the desire for affiliation, and the desire for security and safety" (p. 410). These desires relate to the power position of the individual in the society and the material resources to which this person has access; hence the identity of the person is inseparable from the question of what can one do. Norton further focused on the relationship between identity and symbolic power, emphasizing that "the value ascribed to speech cannot be understood apart from the person who speaks, and the person who speaks cannot be understood apart from larger networks of social relationships--many of which may be unequally structured" (pp. 410-411).

From a different perspective, Norton drew on the ideas of Weedon (1987), who integrated language, individual experience, and social power in a theory of subjectivity. Norton argued that "subjectivity is produced in a variety of social sites, all of which are structured by relations of power in which the person takes up different subject positions--teacher, child, feminist, manager, critic" (p. 411). In other words, according to the relationship between an individual and the community, the style of words, grammar usage, intonation of voice, and other means of communication will change, and

"subjectivity and language are theorized as mutually constitutive" (p. 411). In addition, Norton also noted that although the power relationship may seem unequal between individuals, is not fixed. It can be mutually generated in interpersonal relations and social interactions. In the classroom environment or community, the power relation is capable of enriching or constraining the range of identities with which language learners can be associated and involved.

From the above discussion, it becomes clear that identity and language are mutually dependent, as one can impact the other. On one hand, identity links to the relative power position of an individual in the society, and this element will influence the linguistic styles when one is communicating to others. On the other hand, language cannot be understood precisely without knowing the speaker's identity; hence a person's identity is constituted by the language.

The Influence of Identity on Language

Scholars have examined various studies to show how one's identity can influence language learning. Siegal (1996) studied four White western upper-middle-class women learning and using Japanese in Japan. The result shows that as a woman, learning to speak Japanese requires

speaking in a particular gendered voice. In response to the above study, Lam (2003) emphasized, "This knowledge of the sociolinguistic norm of language use is signaled in conversational interaction through making choices of which linguistic forms, intonational pattern, turn-taking mechanism, etc., would be appropriate for the particular social relationships between the interlocutors in a particular context" (p. 22). This shows that culture is an integral part of the language, and one's identity has constructed the individual to conduct communication in some particular way.

Race, as another element of identity, also plays an important role in language. Ibrahim's (1999) recent research examined a group of French-speaking immigrants and refugee youths from Africa who were attending an urban Franco-Ontarian high school in Ontario, Canada. In this research, students adopted Black stylized English which they accessed through media such as hip-hop culture and rap lyrics. Ibrahim argued that "even without a social network of African-Americans in their immediate living environments, the African youths developed their identification with Black America through the media in a process of racialization where they were already constructed and treated as Blacks by the racial discourses

of society" (cited in Lam, 2003, p. 22). According to Ibrahim, this is not only an example of language acquisition through racial association, but also illustrates that the youth try to define their own identities by purposely digressing from mainstream culture and language practices.

The Process of Re-constructing Identity

According to Vygotsky's semiotic theory, language first emerges from social and cultural contexts as a sign to communicate. Viewing language as a sign, Wertsch (1985) argued that "signs have the quality of reversibility. They can act upon the agent in the same way they act upon the environment or others" (p. 81). In other words, although identity determines the language a learner is likely to use to interact with others, through acquisition and usage of new linguistic signs, the learner can construct a new identity. Vygotsky argued that "The use of signs leads humans to completely new and specific structure of behavior, breaking away from the traditions of biological development and creating for the first time a new form of a culturally based psychological process" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 40).

Hence, a learner's identity is constructed and re-constructed through repetition of language usage and

social interaction over time. Not only/are values, beliefs about reality, and the way a message is conveyed changed during the course of interaction, but also a learner's relative status in relation to others with whom they are communicating is also changed according to the linguistic signs that are used.

In the context of second-language learning, Pavlenko and Lantolf (2000) put together several narrative autobiographies of writers, who are bilingual and learned English as a second language themselves, to show the process of identity re-construction. In their analysis from segments of those autobiographies, they argued that

...these unique stories of language learning 'to the point of no return' in their sociohistoric context has important implications for reconceptualizing notions of agency, success, competence, and fluency in a second language and also provides insights into the consequences of border crossings for the relationship between language and identity. (p. 162)

In their findings of the similarities among different writers, one must go through an initial phase of loss, where in the individual loses the connection to his or her inner world. Often puzzled during this stage of language and cultural adaptation, the individual's identity is gradually being re-defined. In the mist of confusion between the old self and not-yet-manifested new self, the

individual finds oneself in the phase of recovery and re-construction. By learning new ways to conduct oneself using a new language system, getting acquainted with social norms, and appropriation of others' voices, the new linguistic identity is constructed.

Language Influence on Identity

A study done by Kramsch (2000) showed a variety of ways that relate the linguistic sign and its construction of students' identities. In her study, students from East Asian or Latin American countries were separated into two classrooms; one consisted mostly of students who immigrated to the United States three to five years ago, and the other one consisted of the same mixture of students who were born in the US, but whose parents immigrated to the US. Each student was asked to write a short summary of the same story on an index card, let someone else read it, and present it to the classroom on the chalkboard. One thing Kramsch noticed was that although these two groups of students read the same short story, different things were emphasized in the summary from students with different identities.

In the process of revising their summaries after seeing others make presentations, Kramsch also noticed that through the change of text during the presentation on

the chalkboard, the students' views and beliefs were not only revealed but also changed. The change of words used, for example, reflected their concern with reader perception of truth. The change of text also transformed the student's identity among others to narrator or presenter. Kramsch (2000) discovered that "In all these changes, we see the awareness by the students that their signs are the result of non-arbitrary selections that can influence others and reflect also on themselves" (p. 143). Therefore, identity can determine the choice of words (i.e. "escaped/fled" to US as supposed to "immigrated" to US) selected to convey their messages, but on the other hand, the language learning process can also shape and re-define one's identity.

In a related study, Lam (2004) studied the behaviors and language usage of two Chinese girls, Yu Qing and Tsu Ying, who immigrated to the U.S. three years ago at the time of the study, and their interactions with other Chinese people in a bilingual Internet chat room. Lam observed that the (Internet) experience not only involved socializing to a Chinese ethnicity that is different from the clear distinction of Cantonese-speaking Chinese and English-speaking Chinese-American, but they were also able to "construct a third position with their peers in the

online environment through adopt a mixed-code variety of English" (p. 19). Lam argued that the participation of these two focal students in the chat room "can be seen as a process of language socialization through which they acquired a particular linguistic variety of English to construct ethnic identifications with other young people of Chinese descent around the world" (p. 19). In other words, identity not only determines the way language is learnt and used, but learners can construct new identity through ways of language socialization.

Summary

Conventionally, mainstream second-language-acquisition (SLA) researchers have measured educational success based on acquisition of language rules and learner's conformity with the target language. In other words, a learner's success lies in using the target language more and more accurately when compare with native speakers. Such a view of language success, according to Sfard [1998] (cited in Larsen-Freeman, 2002), reflects an "acquisition metaphor" of learning, i.e. that human learning is conceptualized as an acquisition of something such as rules or sequences of language (p. 36). However, another view has emerged that challenges the mainstream view of success, a position

Sfard called the "participation metaphor." This view posits a different dimension of educational success: learning a language is seen as a process of becoming a member of a certain community. This is closely related to the idea of identity and language socialization.

Lam (2003) argued that "when language learners speak, they are not only exchanging information with target language speakers but are constantly organizing and reorganizing a sense of who they are and how they relate to the social world" (p. 23). An investment in the target language is also an investment in a learner's own social identity. Indeed, the conventional way that a language is taught may remain effective for learners and educators, but it is also important to realize that identity plays a very important role in helping to improve the learning process.

From the point of view of the "participation metaphor," language-learning success equates to becoming part of the community, so realizing a learner's attributes of identity, such as gender, class, race, and age and how one perceived in the society, will be helpful to address problems that might occur during the course of language learning. Moreover, understanding how identity is re-constructed during language learning will also aid

educators to effectively identify appropriate materials for learner's future growth.

Design and Language Development

In the process of second-language development, the learner's educational, social, and cultural background can decide how that individual expresses ideas and understands the messages. Some social conventions can be taught, but most of them need to be absorbed and understood by the learners individually of instruction. Teaching learners how to understand the messages conveyed in the target culture and how to interpret them is an important task for second-language educators.

Building on Halliday's (1978) notion of language as social semiotic, as well as work in sociolinguistics and discourse analysis over the past thirty years, a group of scholars from Australia, Great Britain, and the U.S. called the New London Group has put forward a "vision of literacy education whose goal is to prepare learners to interpret, express, and negotiate meaning within a variety of contexts" (cited in Kern, 2000, p. 54). The central concept of the group's vision is the design of meaning. Although the concept of design can seem abstract, Kern (2000) argued that "literacy and communicative ability are

not divergent goals but are in fact intrinsically intertwined as dimensions of meaning design" (p. 64).

What Is Design?

As Kern (2000) stated, "language learning, as Halliday (1978) has described it, is learning how to mean," and "...language is a system of choices, a system of meaning potentials" (p. 50). In other words, when people communicate, there is a set of available choices from which they can select to express what they mean. It is rather difficult to explain the concept of design, as Kern (2000) stated: "Design is conveniently ambiguous, referring either to product or process, so that "the design of a text" can be interpreted to mean either the text's configuration of structures or the act of its creation" (p. 52). The concept of design involves why these choices are made by the individual and why the other potential choices are not selected, based on the learner's background. As the New London Group described it,

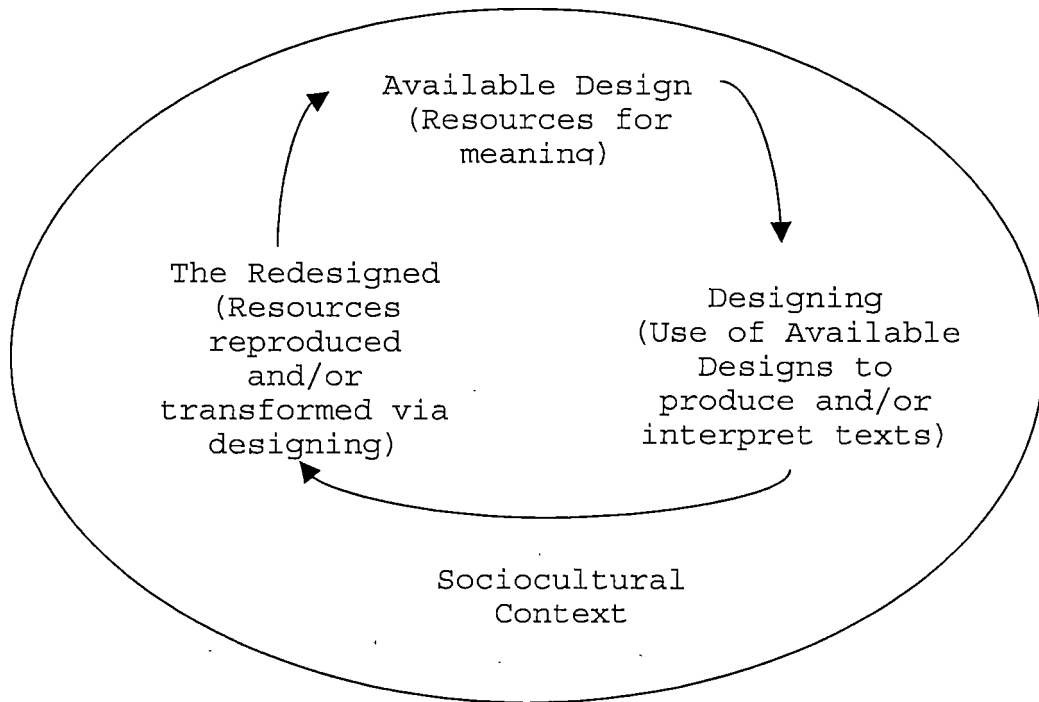
The notion of design connects powerfully to the sort of creative intelligence the best practitioners need in order to be able, continually, to redesign their activities in the very act of practice. It connects well to the idea that learning and productivity are results of the designs (the structures) of complex systems of people, environments, technology, beliefs, and texts. (cited in Kern, 2000, p. 54)

Available Designs, Designing, and The Redesigned

The New London Group proposed that design of meaning can be visualized as a cycle consisting of three stages: Available Designs, Designing, and The Redesigned. These three elements work hand-in-hand to define how language learners communicate (see Figure 5).

In the process of explaining how the concept of design works, one must understand what each of the three stages means. According to Rosen (cited in Kern, 2000), communication is "a matter of playing the game of free choice according to the rules" (p. 62). When people communicate, they go through a set of choices in their minds to construct what they intend to say or how they interpret the incoming messages. The set of possible resources that can be used to make meaning is called Available Designs. After people make their choices from Available Designs, through the act of reading, writing, speaking, listening, and seeing, they carry out actions. The action taken to produce and/or interpret texts is called Designing. The Designing process, according to Kern (2000), transforms knowledge in producing new constructions and representations of reality (p. 55), resulting in The Redesigned.

The Redesigned, in turn, will be absorbed by learners, and becomes a new Available Design for future acts of meaning-making. This completes the design cycle. It is through this process that learners learn to communicate, modify their potential choices of meaning-making, and improve their language proficiency by realizing the new meanings of text through social contexts.



Source: Kern, R. (2000). Literacy and language teaching. Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press, p. 55

Figure 5. Design of Meaning (Based on New London: Group, 1996)

Design Process and Examples

Many examples can be found in daily life that reflect the design process. Kern (2000) used the message in the back of a shampoo bottle, "NOT TESTED ON ANIMALS," to illustrate how meaning is interpreted. In order to design the meaning of this phrase, one must possess knowledge of vocabulary, syntax, and writing systems. However, one must also be familiar with typographical conventions as part of the Available Design to determine that the message is capitalized for emphasis. The learner also has to be familiar with the "product label" genre to realize the missing subject and verb: [THIS PRODUCT] [HAS] NOT [BEEN] TESTED ON ANIMALS. People who live in the US or Great Britain in the 1990s will be able to recall the protests of animal-rights activist against chemical products being tested on animals. Therefore, this message also implies that it is more "politically correct" to purchase this product, and one does not have to feel guilty for doing so. The meaning of this simple label could be easily interpreted by native speakers, but for those learners who do not have the background knowledge of conventions and schema of "animal testing," this message might be explained differently.

Kern (2000) indicated that people who are unfamiliar with animal-rights protests can have another possible interpretation of this message. It can be interpreted to be a medical warning to tell the consumers to "use at your own risk: this product has not yet been tested on animals." For those who have a different political view about animal rights, and unfamiliar with the "animal testing" schema, the message can also be interpreted as: "This product may not be effective in improving the sheen of your dog's coat: it has not been tested on animals" (p. 57). Furthermore, because this phrase is written to increase the commercial interest of the products and to improve sales, it becomes a positive message for other chemical-related products in this society. If second-language speakers lack access to the required background knowledge will greatly influence how the message is understood.

Design Process and Differences for Native Speakers and Foreign-Language Learners

In the above example of the concept of design, it is easy to notice that the category Available Designs is not only the foundation but also the product of the process. However, for a child who has a limited amount of knowledge and tries to learn his or her own native language, the

resource of meaning-making is quite different from an adult who is learning a new, second language. Kern used an example from Gouin (1894, cited in Kern, 2000) who observed his three-year-old nephew going through the design process to illustrate how a young boy explores and expands his Available Designs. Gouin took his nephew to visit a local mill, and after the visit, he noticed that from the child's perception, "the organization of his memories in a sequential series of events was crucial not only in transforming his knowledge of the milling process but also his knowledge of language," and the child was "using new words, learnt during his visit to the mill, along with familiar ones, to reorganize a lived experience, to mould it into a conception of his own" (p. 59).

With sufficient language background (Available Design), the boy can use this experience (Designing) and make meaning with his memories and limited vocabulary to learn new words and understand new concepts (The Redesigned). In other words, as Kern put it, "Children learning their native language gradually acquire Available Designs (grammar, vocabulary, formal conventions, schemata, and so on) by experiencing and using language in meaningful situations. It is in the very process of

creating and transforming meanings via existing resources that new resources can be produced and, in turn, become available for subsequent acts of meaning design" (p. 60).

In contrast, adolescents and adults who are trying to learn a foreign language may experience a different kind of design cycle. This is because they already possess the knowledge of how to use words to make meaning about how things work in their native language. In other words, they have a different set of Available Designs than do the native speakers, and as a result, their Designing process and the product of The Redesign will change accordingly. They not only have to learn vocabulary, grammar, conventions and systems (as part of newly acquired Available Designs), but also need to familiarize themselves with new social practices and understand cultural differences (as the product of Designing and The Redesign).

Besides these differences, the difficulty in absorbing and understanding the new language is magnified when some of the Available Designs (of the learner's native language), as Kern (2000) claimed, can be "false friends" that lead learners to inappropriate forms of expression or misunderstanding. The learners have to develop greater awareness and "notice the gap." Kern

claimed that "by noticing the gaps between their own and other's interpretation of texts, by noticing the gaps between their own and others' writing on a given topic, language students learn to become more aware of the linguistic, rhetorical, and cognitive options available to them as readers and writers" (p. 61).

During the process of designing, it becomes necessary for educators to teach learners about different cultures, conventions, and norms; and, more importantly, teach them how to develop interpretation skills so they could "redesign" the information quickly.

Summary

From the discussion above, it becomes apparent that for second-language students, the process of design can be viewed as a form of language socialization. Kern (2000) cited Bakhtin's view that learning language is not so much a matter of learning "the words of the language," but it is a "process of assimilation--more or less creative--of others' words, which carry with them their own expression, their own evaluative tone, which we assimilate, rework, and re-accentuate" (p. 59). The concept of design is a way for educators to realize that the root cause of language students' difficulty in communication might not be that they do not have sufficient knowledge of vocabulary and

grammar. It may be the lack of the cultural background of the target society that introduces the key differences and gaps during communication. The task for educators is not only to teach learners proper rules of language usage, but also to introduce them to the target culture and develop their ability to absorb new meaning as they design ways to use language through daily activities.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL MODEL

The Purpose of the Model

Chapter Two has provided several key ideas and teaching tools that not only can help learners improve their English proficiency, but also emphasize the importance of socio-cultural understanding respective to the ESL environment. The literature review presented four key topics: Constructivism in the English-as-a-Foreign-Language Classroom, Mediated Learning Experience, Identity and Language Learning, and Design and Language Development, which comprise conceptual fundamentals for both educators and students. Using these four concepts as foundations, an effective teaching model can be constructed. The model illustrates how these elements work with one another in order for students to reach the goal of English proficiency.

This chapter presents a teaching model that is specific for teaching adult second-language students who already have extensive background knowledge of the world in their native languages. First, the idea of constructivism indicates a central philosophy of teaching, and encourages students to obtain new knowledge actively

instead of acting as passive recipients. Second, students identify closely with their native language and culture because this is the source of their prior knowledge. This identification helps the learners to make connection with new learning and new cultural knowledge encoded in L2. Third, Mediated Learning Experience (MLE) is used as a tool for educators to filter and refine information, and make connections between the learners' prior knowledge and the new knowledge. Fourth, the concept of design represents the process which the learners acquire and accumulate new knowledge through social interaction and communication. The goal of this teaching model is to help the learners understand cultural differences and develop competence using English literacy for daily survival.

A Proposed Theoretical Model

Figure 6, adapted from Chen and Diaz-Rico (2003), illustrates the relations among instructional goals, tools, and methods for teaching adults English as a second or foreign language. Using this model as an educational guideline, instructors can design an effective curriculum to help adult students accomplish proficiency in English.

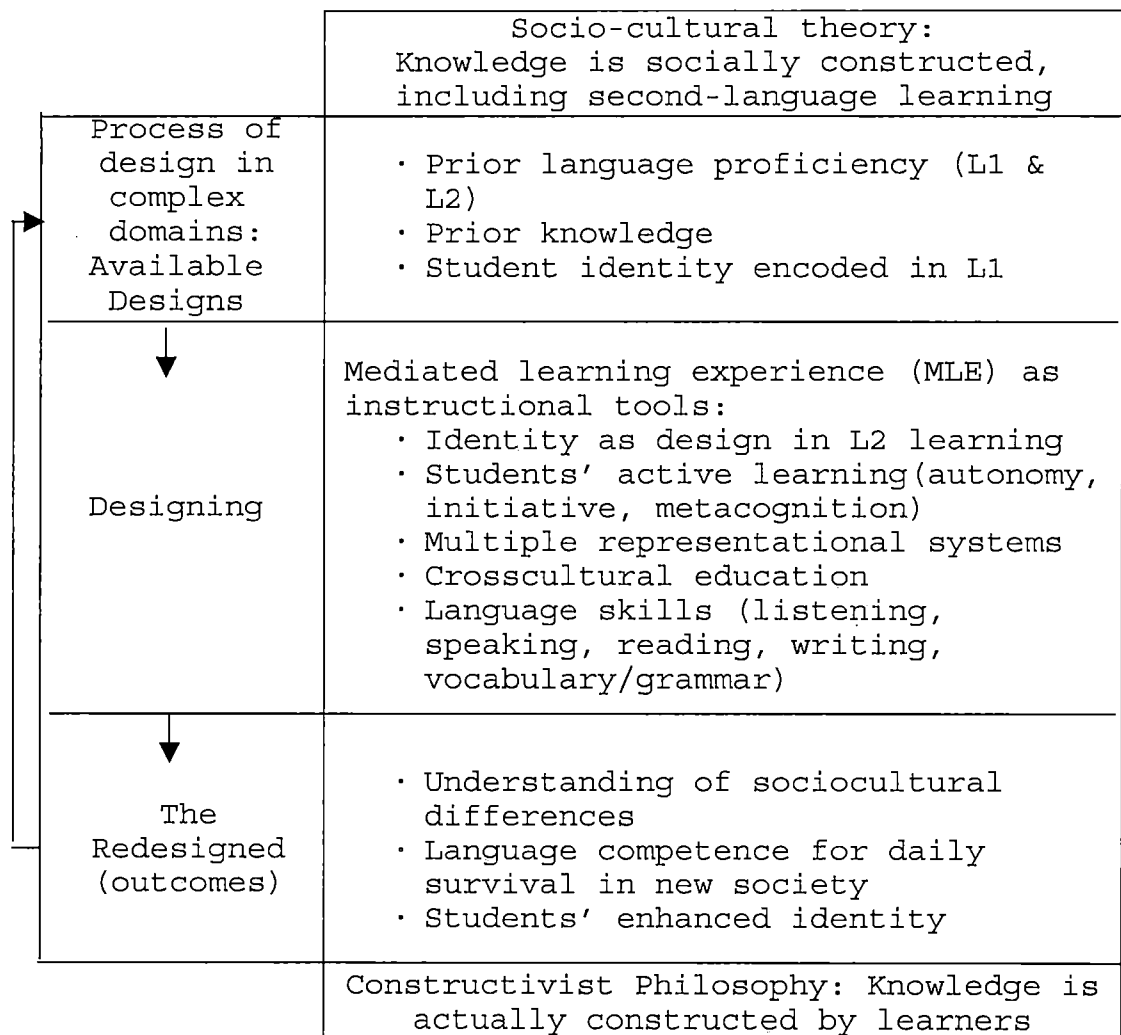


Figure 6. Theoretical Model: Constructivism Incorporating Mediated Learning Experience in the Process of Design

Instructional Outcomes

The ultimate goal of teaching adult English-as-a-second-language students is to help them reach language competence for daily survival in their life in a new society. Most adult students who reside in the target society need to learn to perform many social tasks

quickly to promote their everyday survival. Therefore, as a goal of education, students have to demonstrate that they have the vocabulary and tools to express their thinking and understand what others mean, perform everyday tasks, and recognize social institutions such as the Department of Motor Vehicles, long-distance phone companies, and other agencies with which they interact.

In order to survive in the target society, it is also important for adult students to demonstrate that they understand social conventions, common sense, and language nuances. To reach proficiency successfully, it is not only important for them to build up enough vocabulary and grammar so they can construct meaningful sentences and communicate with others, but also to understand the differences between their native culture and the target cultures (those cultures in which English is used).

The model emphasizes the process of socialization where students not only learn to understand elements of the target culture, such as history, moral values and general beliefs, but also must interact with others in the target society regularly, so that they are aware of the subtle differences and hidden meanings. Furthermore, this process will help students blend into the target society, learn to embrace and respect the target culture,

and be open to absorbing new information. A further goal is for students to accomplish this survival-language proficiency and cultural skills without sacrificing their identity. As adults, their identity has been firmly established in their native language. To learn another language is a challenge that need not be a threat to their self-esteem. Thus, language competence for daily survival in new society, understanding of sociocultural differences, and student's enhanced identity are important institutional outcomes. These outcomes are promoted by means of teachers' building on students' prior proficiency and knowledge through a series of instructional experience and tools.

Linking the Theoretical Model and Instructional Methods

As a foundation governing instruction, constructivism emphasizes the cultural role of students. Adult students in particular need to feel a sense of ownership and initiative, two fundamental tenets of constructivism. The role of constructivism in this model is to combine learning experiences and teaching tools. And the purpose of the design process is to help adult students to reach L2 (English) proficiency and become part of the target society.

Socio-cultural Theory

The substructure that supports learning in this model, particularly language learning, is social-cultural theory. The idea behind socio-cultural theory is that knowledge is socially constructed and language learning is developed out of social interactions. The student's cultural background also plays an important role in language learning. Socio-cultural theory builds on the fact that students from diverse cultures have different values and institutions, and the realization of these cultural differences should accelerate and improve a student's learning process. Moreover, the external world and the student's position in the society shapes identity. Using this theory, the instruction developed by educators needs to provide students the environment to acquire knowledge through social interaction and realize the differences between cultures; hence the process of design is used to help students enhance their learning experiences and affirm their identities.

The Process of Design

The process of design in complex domains illustrates the process of learning by social interaction and cultural understanding. The three stages of the design process

(Available Design, Designing, and The Redesigned) fit conveniently into the model.

The three phases of the design process work together to enable students to accomplish language competence for daily survival in new society, understanding of sociocultural differences, and students' enhanced identity. Available Design corresponds to student's prior knowledge and native culture background. Designing corresponds to MLE and the act of interacting. The Redesigned corresponds to the outcome of learning, which incorporates the enhancement of student's identity, the acquisition of language competence, and the understanding of cultural difference.

The key to the design process is that, with the proper understanding of student's background and guided instruction to teach social interactions, the student will be able to redesign what is learned and construct new meanings. It is the responsibility of the educators to understand how the process of design works, and help students develop the ability continuously to design their own learning, or at least take major responsibility for doing so.

During the process of Available Designs, prior language proficiency and prior knowledge on the part of

the student represent the learner's native culture, knowledge of how things work, and prior English-language experience. Adult students coming from different cultural backgrounds have different beliefs, values, and language systems that can be helpful in reaching English proficiency; however, sometimes this background knowledge can constitute resistance to the acquisition of new knowledge. The social identity of the learner is another factor that contributes to the ability to accept and understand new information. Differences in age, gender, race, and social class will determine how easily students can understand particular information. Prior knowledge and student identity constitute the core elements of Available Design in the design process. Teachers should understand this in order to teach efficiently and effectively.

In the phase of Designing, MLE represents the key instructional tools on which educators will rely to guide students to learn the target language and culture properly. MLE constitutes the chief Designing element in the process of design. Because the Designing stage requires students to exercise knowledge of the Available Designs, the instructor should deploy a curriculum that encourages students to construct sentences and explain objects or scenarios with their existing knowledge in

order to stimulate their Designing. The instructor should also provide cultural or background information on specific topics for students to use during their Designing. With the understanding of prior knowledge on the part of the students, teachers will take in account students' identities, the vocabulary as well as the grammar needed to perform their daily tasks, the level of a student's listening, speaking, reading, and writing abilities, and what kind of cultural knowledge is required to teach a student. Using MLE as a teaching method in this model, the teacher will customize instructional content to promote students' Designing.

In the final phase, The Redesign, several outcomes can be observed in this model that result from the MLE proved during the Designing phase. With the acquisition of new knowledge and understanding of ways of the life in the target society, the student's identity will be re-defined. The enhancement of identity will, in turn, afford more ways of communication, which may initiate the student into a different social status. Understanding of socio-cultural differences is an integrated part of the Designing and The Redesigned. It is through these acts of communication and social interaction that students understand differences in culture. The more socio-cultural differences are

understood by learners, the more rapidly they can achieve proficiency in the target culture. The new culture can be understood and accepted by students using MLE methodology consonant with the student's background. It can also be realized by the student's own awareness during everyday life.

Language competence for daily survival in a new socio-cultural context is another outcome of learning. Adult students who are able to use words, phrases, and idioms correctly to communicate and execute daily tasks for survival are evaluated to be more proficient in English. Using MLE as a tool as students learn the vocabulary and grammar, listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills required to survive in the new society is a crucial task for educators as well. More importantly, with the process of design, this model allows teachers to achieve the outcomes mentioned above and gives students more choices to interact for future communication; hence English proficiency can be gradually reached as the outcome of this model.

CHAPTER FOUR

CURRICULUM DESIGN

Introduction

The curriculum based on the research in Chapter Two and the framework in Chapter Three is designed for adult English-as-a-second-language students in the United States. The goal of this unit plan is for adult ESL students to be proficient in English mainly through listening, speaking, and reading. There are six lessons in this curriculum. All the content is related to students' needs for daily survival in relation to food in the U.S. and their experiences of life. Therefore, the teaching material also evokes their prior knowledge during interaction.

Sequence of the Unit Plan

The length of each lesson is forty minutes. The level is planned for students of intermediate fluency. All the lessons provide objectives, procedures, and assessment. Each lesson has three objectives: the content objective, the learning objective, and the language objective. For the content objective, students will be able to understand the subject matter of this lesson; for the learning objective, students learn a learning skills that they can use to learn by themselves after the class; and for the

language objective, students increase their language skills in listening, speaking, reading, or writing.

In addition, each lesson plan contains focus sheets, task sheets, and assessment sheets if required. The focus sheets such as the conversation scripts, a menu, or a recipe, are used as a focus study for students or a supplement material for the instructor. The task sheets are used for content comprehension and authentic language activities. Students complete those task sheets during the class with their partners. And finally, assessment sheets are used to evaluate what students have learned at the end of the lesson.

Content of the Unit Plan

The content of the six lesson plans is based on the principles of Chapters Two and Three. Constructivism is used as a central philosophy of teaching. Mediated learning experience is used as the chief instructional tool. Other emphases such as students' prior knowledge, crosscultural education, multiple representational system, identity as design in L2 learning, students' active learning, and language skills (listening, speaking, and reading) are also included in this unit (see Table 1).

Table 1. Interrelationship between Key Concepts and Lesson Plans

	Lesson One	Lesson Two	Lesson Three	Lesson Four	Lesson Five	Lesson Six
Constructivism		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Mediated Learning Experience	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
Prior knowledge	✓	✓			✓	✓
Crosscultural education					✓	
Multiple representational system			✓	✓		
Identity as design in L2 learning					✓	
Language skills	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

In Lesson One, students will practice listening skills by listening to the conversation, "What's for lunch?" as the language objective. For the content objective, students will recognize different food groups and understand the relationship between the food pyramid and health. For the learning objective, students will be able to use a table to classify information. The key concepts involved in this lesson are MLE, prior knowledge, and the language skill of listening.

In Lesson Two, for language objective, students will read a food label and identify key elements. For the content objective, students will learn the function and the importance of food labels. For the learning objective, students will analyze the information on a food label to

see if a given food product matches their needs. The key concepts involved in this lesson are constructivism, MLE, prior knowledge, and the language skill of reading.

In Lesson Three, students will practice reading skills by means of summarizing ingredients and essential actions. For the content objective, students will learn the sequence of making fruit freezers. For the learning objective, students will design their own recipes and practice cooking skills. The key concepts involved in this lesson are constructivism, multiple representation systems, and the language skill of reading.

In Lesson Four, as a language objective, students will listen to a conversation in a restaurant and answer few comprehension questions. For the content objective, students will learn to read a menu and order a meal. For the learning objective, students will acquire role-playing skills to practice ordering a meal in a restaurant. The key concepts involved in this lesson are constructivism, MLE, multiple representation systems, and language skills of listening and speaking.

In Lesson Five, students will learn about Thanksgiving and introduce a holiday from their native culture as the content objective. For the language objective, students will practice speaking skills by

telling the background story of the holiday in their native culture and explain the reason for eating the special dish on that day. For the learning objective, students will compare two holidays and find out the similarities and differences between Thanksgiving and the holiday they choose to present to the class. The key concepts involved in this lesson are constructivism, MLE, prior knowledge, crosscultural education, identity as design in L2 learning, and the language skill of speaking.

In the last lesson, students will be able to identify different categories of goods in a supermarket as the content objective. For the language objective, students will listen to a conversation and learn the commonly used sentence patterns in supermarket shopping. For the learning objective, students will acquire comparative shopping skills. The key concepts involved in this lesson are constructivism, MLE, prior knowledge, and the language skill of listening.

Summary

This chapter has expounded the goal of the curriculum design, the sequence of the unit, and the content of the six lessons. In the next chapter, the assessment of the unit will be discussed.

CHAPTER FIVE

UNIT ASSESSMENT PLAN

Introduction

Assessment is a process for evaluating students' learning. There are various types of assessment. Teacher observation, homework, and paper-and-pencil tests are the main kinds of assessments used in this project. Due to the fact that this project is designed for adult ESL/EFL students, the scores will only be a reference for students as self evaluation. This chapter includes the description of the assessment used in six lesson plans.

Types of Assessment in the Instructional Unit

There are three formative assessments and one summative assessment in each lesson plan. The purpose of the formative assessment is to evaluate the performance of students in each task. When students achieve the instructor's pre-set goal for the task, then the instructor can move to the next activity. Otherwise, the instructor will need to go back to the task chain and strengthen students' weaknesses. The purpose of the summative assessment is to test students' overall understanding of the content of the lesson.

In Lesson One, the formative assessment emphasizes students' understanding of the content through answering comprehension questions asked by the instructor and completing the task sheets correctly or not. In the summative assessment, students will be given a quiz on an assessment sheet.

In Lessons Two and Six, the instructor tests students' understanding of the content by using task sheets with comprehension questions as formative assessment. The instructor will discuss those comprehension questions with the whole class after each group completes their sheets. In the summative assessment, students will be assessed by being given a quiz on an assessment sheet.

In Lesson Three, as the formative assessment, the instructor evaluates students' understanding of the content by checking whether the product that students make is successful. In the summative assessment, students will be assigned homework and given grades.

In Lesson Four, the formative assessment emphasizes students' capability to complete the tasks. Students will write their own scripts and perform a play as summative assessment. The instructor will provide suggestions on both the scripts and the performance.

In Lesson Five, the instructor evaluates students' understanding by asking comprehension questions and checking the answers that students write on the task sheets as formative assessment. For the summative assessment, students will be assigned homework and given grades.

After assessment, the instructor can evaluate how much students have learned and adjust the teaching styles or procedures based on the results of the assessment. Gradually, students can reach all of the objectives.

Conclusion

There are five chapters included in this project. In Chapter One, the context, content, and the significance of the project were explained. Chapter Two is a literature review in which four concepts are discussed: constructivism in an English-as-a-second-language classroom, mediated learning experience, identity and language learning, and design and language development. In Chapter Three, these key concepts are combined into a theoretical model that shows the relationship between the outcomes of this project and the purposed framework of instruction. Chapter Four, the curriculum design, the sequence and content of the unit plan are included.

Chapter Five consists of the description of assessment for the unit plan and concludes this project. The Appendix presents a unit plan which has six lesson components.

This project proposes instruction that integrates the theory of constructivism, mediated learning, design, and identity and language learning. It is hoped that this project stimulates instructors to incorporate new concepts and means with their teaching so more adult students can be assisted as they adapt to their new social environment with less hardship and increased success.

APPENDIX
UNIT PLAN

LIST OF LESSONS

Lesson One: Food and Health	75
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Lesson Four: Eat In or Take Out	95
Lesson Five: How Do We Celebrate?	102
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Lesson One

Food and Health

Grade Level: Adult: Intermediate fluency

Lesson Length: Forty minutes

Objectives:

- Language objective 1. To listen to a conversation about "What's for Lunch?"
- Content objective 2. To establish/review the concept of the food pyramid and health and to recognize different food groups
- Learning objective 3. Use a table to classify food

Material Required:

1. Focus Sheets 1-1 and 1-2
2. Task Sheet 1-1
3. Assessment Sheet 1-1
4. A tape of conversation

Warm-up:

The instructor asks students to describe what they eat and drink on a typical day, write down their answers as a list, and then asks students which food is essential for the daily needs of the body.

Task Chain 1: Listening to a conversation "What's for Lunch?"

1. The instructor plays the tape of a conversation "What's for Lunch?"
2. The instructor divides students in groups and distributes Focus Sheet 1-1.
3. Students listen to the conversation again and work with their groups to summarize the food mentioned in the conversation.

Task Chain 2: Establishing/reviewing the concept of the food pyramid and its relationship with health

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 1-2 to students and asks students to volunteer to explain the role of each food group of the food pyramid.

2. The instructor asks students several comprehensive questions, such as "What kind of food we should eat more/less for health?" "Who has the better eating habits in the conversation?"

Task Chain 3: Classifying food

1. Students remain in groups.
2. The instructor distributes Task Sheet 1-1 and asks students to catalog the food by using the information on Focus Sheets 1-1 and 1-2.

Formative Assessment:

Task Chain 1: Each group identifies at least 10 kinds of food from the conversation.

Task Chain 2: Three students can answer the comprehension questions correctly.

Task Chain 3: Five students can use a table to catalog information.

Summative Assessment:

Using Assessment Sheet 1-1, students will be able to answer the questions correctly (100 points).

90-100	Excellent
80-89	Good job
70-79	Needs improvement
<69	Study harder

Focus Sheet 1-1

What's for Lunch?

Davis, Joanne, and Rodney are eating lunch together in the cafeteria...

Davis: Hey, Rodney. Hi, Joanne. May I join you?

R & J: Sure! Come sit with us.

Joanne: Your wife made a lunch box for you again. What do you have today?

Davis: Well, steamed rice, tomato fried with eggs, boiled broccoli, and my favorite--Kung-Pao Chicken.

Rodney: Smells really good! Your wife must be very good at cooking.

Davis: Thanks, she is.

Rodney: How about you, Joanne? What do you have for lunch?

(Joanne opens her lunch box)

Rodney: What are these? Only a boiled egg, mixed vegetable, and two fish sticks? You eat like a bird.

Joanne: Oh, I am on a diet.

Davis: You must be joking, Joanne. You are thin enough.

Joanne: Well, women always want to lose one more pound. Stop talking about me. Let's see what Rodney has.

(Rodney opens his lunch bag)

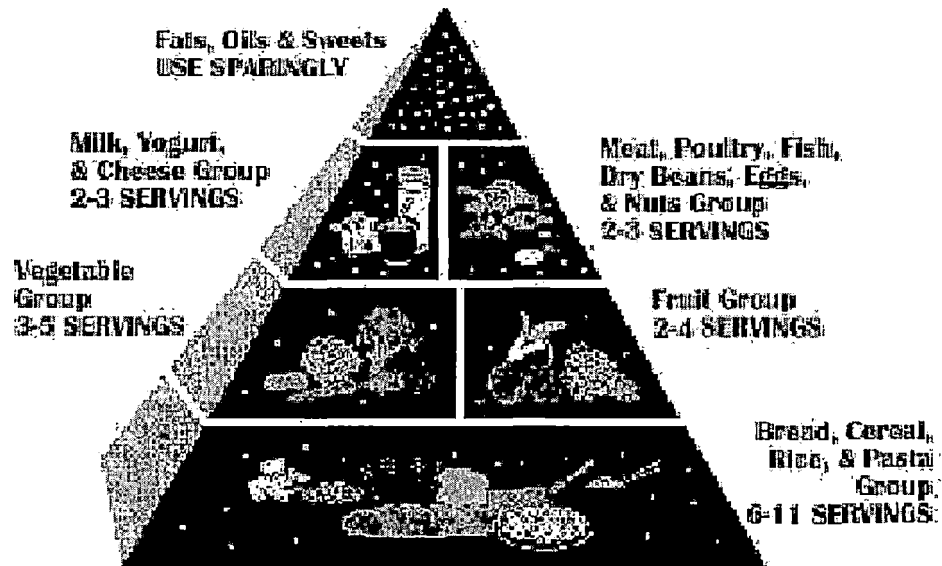
Joanne: French fries, chicken strips, a hamburger, and a Coke. Rodney, you should eat healthier. Why don't you go get a wife like Davis'?

Rodney: A wife? How about your marrying me?

Joanne: Get in line!

Focus Sheet 1-2

Food Pyramid



Source: (<http://www.nal.usda.gov:8001/py/pmap.htm>)

This food pyramid shows the number of servings you should eat each day. Eat more of the foods from the bottom of the pyramid. Eat fewer foods from the top.

Source: Schifini, A., Short, D., & Tinajero, J. (2001). High point: Success in language, literature, and content. Carmel, CA: Hampton-brown.

Task Sheet 1-1

Classifying Food

[illegible]

Assessment Sheet 1-1

A Quiz

Name: _____ Date: _____

Q1: List all groups of the food pyramid and provide two examples for each group. (50%)

Q2: How many servings should we have of each group each day? Explain why. (30%)

Q3: Explain the relationship between the food pyramid and our health. (20%)

Lesson Two

Food Labels

Grade Level: Adult: Intermediate fluency

Lesson Length: Forty minutes

Objectives:

- Language objective: 1. To read a food label and identify key elements
- Content objective: 2. To learn the function and importance of a food label
- Learning objective: 3. To analyze the information on a food label based on human needs

Material Required:

1. Focus Sheet 2-1
2. A Food label
3. Task Sheets 2-1, 2-2, and 2-3
4. Assessment Sheet 2-1

Warm-up:

The instructor asks students' opinions of which are the most important thing to look for when they buy food in the grocery stores, and explains the activity.

Task chain 1: Reading the food label and identify key elements

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 2-1 to students.
2. Students complete the questions on Task Sheet 2-1.

Task chain 2: Learning the function and importance of a food label

1. The instructor distributes Task Sheet 2-2 and divides students in groups.
2. Students work with partners and complete Task Sheet 2-2.
3. Each group take turns to share their answers on Task Sheet 2-2 with the class, and instructor summarizes the answers on the blackboard.

Task chain 3: Analyzing the information on a food label and see if it matches the body's needs.

1. The instructor distributes Task Sheet 2-3.

2. Students work with partners and complete the questions on Task Sheet 2-3.

Formative Assessment:

Task Chain 1: Every student completes Task Sheet 2-1.

Task Chain 2: Every group completes Task Sheet 2-2.

Task Chain 3: Every group completes the questions on Task Sheet 2-3 correctly.

Summative Assessment:

Using Assessment Sheet 2-1, students will be able to answer the questions correctly (100 points).

90-100	Excellent
80-89	Good job
70-79	Needs improvement
<69	Study harder

Focus Sheet 2-1

A Food Label

1. Jackson's CONDENSED 2. TOMATO SOUP 3. NET WT. 10 3/4 OZ. (305 GRAMS) 4. JACKSON SOUP CO. LOS ANGELES, CALIF	6. INGREDIENTS: TOMATOES, CORNSYRUP, WHEAT FLOUR, SALT, PARTIALLY HYDROGENATED VEGETABLE OIL (SOYBEAN OR COTTONSEED OIL), NATURAL FLAVORING, ASCORBIC ACID (VITAMIN C) AND CITRIC ACID. 7. NUTRITION INFORMATION PER SERVING <table style="width: 100%; border: none;"> <tr> <td style="width: 60%;">SERVING SIZE</td> <td style="width: 40%;">4 OZ. (CONDENSED) (8 OZ. AS PREPARED- 226G)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>SERVING PER CONTAINER</td> <td>2 3/4</td> </tr> </table> <table style="width: 100%; border: none; margin-top: 10px;"> <tr> <th style="width: 40%;"></th> <th style="width: 30%;">CONDENSED</th> <th style="width: 30%;">WITH MILK</th> </tr> <tr> <td>CALORIES</td> <td style="text-align: center;">90</td> <td style="text-align: center;">160</td> </tr> <tr> <td>PROTEIN (Grams)</td> <td style="text-align: center;">1</td> <td style="text-align: center;">5</td> </tr> <tr> <td>TOTAL CARBOHYDRATES (G)</td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Simple Sugar (G)</td> <td style="text-align: center;">10</td> <td style="text-align: center;">15</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Complex Carbohydrates</td> <td style="text-align: center;">7</td> <td style="text-align: center;">7</td> </tr> <tr> <td>FAT (G)</td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>SODIUM</td> <td colspan="2" style="text-align: center;">750 mg/serving/810</td> </tr> </table> *CONTAINS LESS THAN 2% OF THE US RDA OF THESE NUTRIENTS PERCENTAGE OF US RECOMMENED DAILY ALLOWANCES (US RDA) 8. DIRECTIONS: In pan, bring soup and 1 can of water to simmer. Stir. For Cream of Tomato, use milk instead.	SERVING SIZE	4 OZ. (CONDENSED) (8 OZ. AS PREPARED- 226G)	SERVING PER CONTAINER	2 3/4		CONDENSED	WITH MILK	CALORIES	90	160	PROTEIN (Grams)	1	5	TOTAL CARBOHYDRATES (G)			Simple Sugar (G)	10	15	Complex Carbohydrates	7	7	FAT (G)			SODIUM	750 mg/serving/810	
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FAT (G)																													
SODIUM	750 mg/serving/810																												

Source: Roddy, M. (1989). English day by day. Novato, CA: Academic Therapy Publications, p. 50.

Task Sheet 2-1

Information on a Food Label

Look at the food label and find out the following information:

1. Name of company (brand name)
2. Name of product
3. The weight of the product (inside)
4. Name and place of manufacturer, distributor or packer
5. Health information about the product (how the body will use the soup)
6. The materials in the product (what's in the soup)
7. Additional health information about the product
8. Directions (how to prepare the soup)

Source: Roddy, M. (1989). English day by day. Novato, CA: Academic Therapy Publications, p. 50.

Task Sheet 2-2

Think about It

Work with your partner and answer the following questions:

Q1: What is the function of a food label?

Q2: When you buy a food product, what information will you need to know? Why?

Q3: If there is no food label on a food product, will you purchase it? Why?

Task Sheet 2-3

Analyze the Information

Work with your partner and answer the following questions:

1. What should you add before you heat the soup?
2. Ann is on a salt-free diet. Should she eat the soup? Why?
3. Bob is cooking dinner for his girlfriend. Is this enough soup for them? Explain.
4. Joan really wants to lose weight. Which is better for her according to the number of calories—a couple of slices of cheddar cheese at 230 calories or a serving of Jackson's tomato soup?
5. Is this soup a significant source of Vitamin C? Explain.
6. Is the net weight the weight of the can plus the food, or the food only?
7. What is the weight of only the soup?

Source: Roddy, M. (1989). English day by day. Novato, CA: Academic Therapy Publications, p. 51.

Assessment Sheet 2-1

A Quiz

Name : _____

Date: _____

1. Please list the important information on a food label. (50%)
2. Briefly state the function and importance of a food label. (50%)

Lesson Three

Making Fruit Freezees

Grade Level: Adult: Intermediate fluency

Lesson Length: Forty minutes

Objectives:

Language objective: 1. To read a recipe and summarize the ingredients and essential actions during the process of making fruit freezees

Content objective: 2. To learn the sequences of making fruit freezees

Learning objective: 3. To design their own recipe and practice cooking skills

Material:

1. Focus Sheets 3-1 and 3-2
2. Task Sheets 3-1 and 3-2
3. Assessment Sheet 3-1

Warm-up:

The instructor asks students how to make the fruit freezees, and explains the activity.

Task Chain 1: Reading the recipe and recognize ingredients and essential actions

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 3-1 and Task Sheet 3-1 and divides students into groups.
2. Students work with their partners to study the recipe and list the ingredients and essential actions on Task Sheet 3-1.

Task Chain 2: Learning the sequences of making fruit freezees

1. The instructor asks each group to write the answers of Task Sheet 3-1 on the blackboard.
2. The instructor goes over the sequences of making fruit freezees with the class.

Task Chain 3: Designing a recipe and make fruit freezees

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 3-2 and Task Sheet 3-2 to every group.
2. The instructor asks students to choose the ingredients from Focus Sheet 3-2 and follow the direction on Focus Sheet 3-1 to make a new recipe.
3. Students will make their own fruit freezees

Formative Assessment:

Task Chain 1: Each group can list all the ingredients and essential actions of the recipe.

Task Chain 2: At least one student of each group can repeat the sequence of making fruit freezees correctly.

Task Chain 3: Each group can write a complete recipe and make their own fruit freezees successfully.

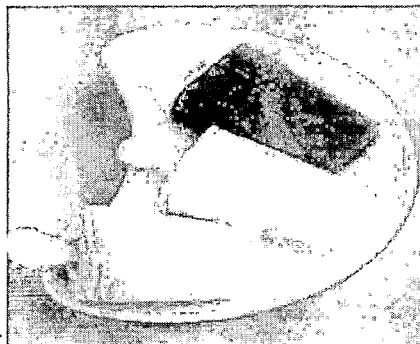
Summative Assessment:

Instructor assesses students by giving students homework which will be graded according to the standard on Assessment Sheet 3-1.

90-100	Excellent
80-89	Good job
70-79	Needs improvement
<69	Study harder

Focus Sheet 3-1

Recipe



- 1 8-ounce container nonfat
lemon yogurt
- 2 cups cubed, seedless watermelon
- 1 basket fresh strawberries, tops removed
- 1 medium banana, peeled and sliced
- 8 7-ounce paper cups
- 8 plastic spoons

Steps:

- 1. Place yogurt and fruit in a blender container. Cover tightly.
- 2. Blend until smooth. Pour into paper cups.
- 3. Freeze until thick and slushy, about 1 hour. Insert one spoon, handle up, into each cup of frozen fruit mixture.

To serve, remove freezer and let sit for about 10 minutes. Peel paper cup off each treat and eat, holding the spoon as a handle.

(From California Children's 5-a-day Power Play! Campaign)

Focus Sheet 3-2

Options of Ingredients

Fruit	Yogurt	other
orange	apple	milk
pineapple	banana	Oreo cookie
grape	blueberry	green bean
pear	cherry	red bean
cheery	lemon	
apple	peach	
banana	pineapple	
strawberry	vanilla	
watermelon	strawberry	
peach	original	
lemon	almond	

Task Sheet 3-1

List the Ingredients and Essential Actions

Read the recipe for making fruit freezees and write down all the ingredients and actions you need to use and do to make fruit freezees.

Ingredients	Actions
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.
5.	5.
6.	6.

Task Sheet 3-2

Make Your Own Fruit Freeze

My choice of ingredients:

Fruit	
Yogurt	
Other	

My recipe:

--

Assessment Sheet 3-1

Homework

Name: _____ Date: _____

Look for the recipe of your favorite dish and answer the following questions:

1. List all the materials you need to prepare. (30%)
2. List all the actions you need to do. (30%)
3. Please describe the complete directions for making this dish. (40%)

Lesson Four

Eat In or Take Out

Grade level: Adult: Intermediate fluency

Lesson Length: Forty minutes

Objectives:

Language Objective: 1. To listen to a conversation in a restaurant.

Content Objective: 2. To learn to read a menu and make an order

Learning Objective: 3. Acquire role-playing skills to perform an order-a-meal scenario.

Materials:

1. Focus Sheets 4-1, 4-2, and 4-3
2. Conversation tape
3. Task Sheet 4-1

Warm-up:

The instructor asks students about their experience of ordering meals in a restaurant.

Task Chain 1: Listening to conversations in a restaurant

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 4-1 and plays the conversation tape.
2. After each dialog, the instructor asks few comprehensive questions to students and identifies commonly used sentence patterns in the restaurant.

Task Chain 2: Studying a menu and make an order

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 4-2 and divides students into pairs.
2. Students work with their partners to make an order list by using the sentence patterns learned in Task Chain 1.

Task Chain 3: Acquiring role-playing skills to perform an order-a-meal scenario

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 4-3 and Task Sheet 4-1.
2. Students work with their partners and write a short conversation on Task Sheet 4-1.

3. Students follow the instruction on Focus Sheet 4-3 and the scripts on Task Sheet 4-1 to perform an order-a meal scenario in a restaurant.

Formative Assessment:

Task Chain 1: Two students can answer the comprehension questions correctly on each dialog.

Task Chain 2: Pairs of students finish their order list.

Task Chain 3: Every group completes the role-playing game.

Summative Assessment:

Students form their groups, write scripts, and perform a play in a restaurant setting for the next class. (Script 50 points, performance 50 points)

90-100	Excellent
80-89	Good job
70-79	Needs improvement
<69	Study harder

Focus Sheet 4-1

Conversations

(W--waiter/waitress, C--customer)

A. Take out

W: Hi. How may I help you?

C: Yes. I would like to have a/an _____ please.

W: Anything to drink?

C: Yes. Can I have a small/medium/large/extra-large_____.

W: For here or to go?

C: To go, please.

W: Your total is \$____. Thank you. Have a good day.

C: Thank you, and you too.

B. Eat In

W: May I take your order?

C: Yes, please. For the appetizer I would like
the_____.

W: And for the main course?

C: Hmm, I would like to have the _____, please.

W: Anything to drink?

C: Yes, please give me a cup of _____.

W: Would you care for some dessert?

C: Yes. I will have _____ and _____.

Focus Sheet 4-2

A Menu

Welcome to **SUSAN'S RESTAURANT**

Dinner is served daily from 5 to 10 P.M.
(Closed Monday)

Appetizers

Shrimp Cocktail..... \$1.75
Fruit Plate..... \$1.50
Chicken Wings..... \$2.00
Pate..... \$2.75

Soup

Clam Chowder..... \$1.75
Onion..... \$1.35
Soup Du Jour..... \$1.45

Salads

Tossed Green..... \$.75
Salad Bar..... \$2.89

Beverages

Coffee..... \$.40
Tea..... \$.40
Soft Drinks..... \$.50

Dinner included, soup or salad, two vegetables, French bread and butter, brown rice or baked potato or French fries, and dessert.

Entrees

A la Carte

Dinner

Baked Chicken.....	\$5.95	\$7.95
Sirloin Steak.....	\$6.95	\$9.95
Fillet of Sole.....	\$5.95	\$7.95
Prime Rib.....	\$7.95	\$10.95
Roast Beef.....	\$5.95	\$7.95
Pork Chops.....	\$5.95	\$7.95
Prawns.....	\$7.95	\$10.95

Desserts: Sherbet .80, Ice Cream .75, Pie 1.00

Ask our waitress about the Special of the Day

Source: Roddy, M. (1989). English day by day. Novato, CA:
Academic Therapy Publications, p. 54.

Focus Sheet 4-3

Role-playing Skills

There are several things you need to pay attention during the role-playing activity:

1. Do not show your back to your audience.
2. Make sure the volume of your voice is loud enough.
3. Properly control the speed of your speaking.
4. Make sure you speak clearly.
5. Be familiar with your script.
6. Take a deep breath before you get on the stage.

Task Sheet 4-1

Write Your Own Script

Brainstorm a scenario in a restaurant and work with your partner to make up a short conversation.

Assessment Sheet 4-1

Homework

Name: _____

Date: _____

Now, you and your partners will make up a formal script for a role-play. Find some time to practice together, and help the rest of the class to enjoy your performance.

A. Cast list

Student Name	Character

B. The Script

1

Lesson Five

How Do We Celebrate?

Grade Level: Adult: Intermediate fluency

Lesson Length: Forty minutes

Objectives:

- Content objective: 1. Students will learn about Thanksgiving and introduce a holiday with a special dish in their countries.
- Language objective: 2. To orally tell the background story about the holiday and explain the reason they eat the special dish on that day
- Learning objective: 3. To compare two holidays regarding food

Material:

1. Focus Sheet 5-1
2. Task Sheet 5-1 and 5-2
3. Assessment Sheet 5-1

Warm-up:

The instructor tells students a story about a holiday in his/her own culture and explains the activity.

Task Chain 1: Learning about Thanksgiving

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 5-1 and explains the origin of Thanksgiving and the significant of eating turkey.
2. The instructor distributes Task Sheet 5-1 and asks students to select one holiday with a special dish in their countries.
3. Students complete Task Sheet 5-1.

Task Chain 2: Speaking practice

1. The instructor divides students in groups.
2. The instructor asks students to take turns to tell the background story of the holiday and explain the meaning of the special dish to their groups.

Task Chain 3: Comparing two holidays

1. The instructor distributes Task Sheet 5-2 and asks students to write down the similarities and differences between their own holiday and Thanksgiving.

Formative Assessment:

Task Chain 1: Five students can answer comprehensive questions about Thanksgiving correctly and every student completes Task Sheet 5-1.

Task Chain 2: All students can express the main idea of their holidays properly.

Task Chain 3: Every student can find out at least three similarities and differences between their holidays and Thanksgiving.

Summative Assessment:

Students will be assigned homework (Assessment Sheet 5-1) and given grades (100 points).

90-100	Excellent
80-89	Good job
70-79	Needs improvement
<69	Study harder

Focus Sheet 5-1

Thanksgiving

Why Do We Eat Turkey for Thanksgiving?

Although juicy and tender butterball turkeys are the main cuisine of today's Thanksgiving celebrations, these birds were NOT the most popular centerpieces on the first Thanksgiving tables.

In 1621 when the Plymouth colonists and Wampanoag Indians celebrated the first Thanksgiving, they were gobbling up many more foods than just turkey. Since lobster, goose, duck, seal, eel, and cod were plentiful during this time, these foods were most likely the main courses of this first feast. Deer meat and wild fowl are the only two items that historians know for sure were on the menu of this autumn celebration.

So how did the turkey become the main mascot of modern-day Thanksgiving if we don't know for certain that turkeys were at this first feast?

One story tells of how Queen Elizabeth of 16th century England was chewing down on roast goose during a harvest festival. When news was delivered to her that the Spanish Armada had sunk on its way to attack her beloved England, the queen was so pleased that she ordered a second goose to celebrate the great news. Thus, the goose became the favorite bird at harvest time in England. When the Pilgrims arrived in America from England, roasted turkey replaced roasted goose as the main cuisine because wild turkeys were more abundant and easier to find than geese.

Source: <http://www.coolquiz.com/trivia/explain/docs/turkey.asp>

Task Sheet 5-1

My Holiday

Write down the information about your holiday.

1. The holiday I want to introduce is...
2. The special activity people do on this holiday is...
3. The traditional dish people eat on this holiday is...
4. The special dress people wear on this holiday is...
5. The origin of this holiday is...

Task Sheet 5-2

Compare Two Cultures

Compare Thanksgiving and the holiday you introduce to the class. Use the table below to summarize the similarities and differences between two holidays.

	My Holiday: _____	Thanksgiving
Similarities		
Differences		

Assessment Sheet 5-1

Homework: Know more about other cultures

Name: _____ Date: _____

A. Interview a classmate whose nationality is different from yours. Exchange information about each other's favorite holiday in his/her country and write a note about it. (50%)

1. Name of my classmate:

2. Name of the holiday:

3. Details of the holiday:

B. Compare two holidays and summarize the similarities and differences. (50%)

Lesson Six

Supermarket Shopping

Grade Level: Adult: Intermediate fluency

Lesson Length: Forty minutes

Objectives:

- Content Objective: 1. To identify categories of goods of supermarkets
- Language objective: 2. To listen to a conversation between a clerk and a customer
- Learning objective: 3. To acquire comparative shopping skills

Material Required:

1. Focus Sheets 6-1 and 6-2
2. A tape of a conversation in a supermarket
3. Task Sheets 6-1 and 6-2
4. Assessment Sheet 6-1

Warm-up:

The instructor asks several students to volunteer to talk about the experience of supermarket shopping in the United States.

Task Chain 1: Identifying categories of goods of supermarkets

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 6-1 and divides students in pairs.
2. Students work with their partner to complete Task Sheet 6-1.

Task Chain 2: Listening to a conversation between a clerk and a customer.

1. The instructor plays the tape of a conversation.
2. After the listening practice, the instructor summarizes the commonly used sentence patterns in a supermarket shopping with the class and asks students several comprehension questions.

- Task Chain 3: Acquiring comparative shopping skills
1. Students remain in pairs, and instructor distributes Focus Sheet 6-2.
 2. Students work with partners to complete Task Sheet 6-2.
 3. The instructor goes over the answers with whole class of students.

Formative Assessment:

- Task Chain 1: Every pair of students completes Task Sheet 6-1 correctly.
- Task Chain 2: Five students can answer comprehension questions properly.
- Task Chain 3: Every pair of students completes Task Sheet 6-2 correctly.

Summative Assessment:

Using Assessment Sheet 6-1, students will be able to answer the questions correctly (100 points).

90-100	Excellent
80-89	Good job
70-79	Needs improvement
<69	Study harder

Focus Sheet 6-1

Supermarket Shopping List

Here is your shopping list for your trip to the supermarket.

Butter	Tissues	Chunk light tuna	Ginger ale
Oregano	Diet cola	Oatmeal	Carrots
Marmalade	Lettuce	Cranberry juice	Cantaloupe
Fresh shrimp	Yogurt	Furniture polish	Olives
Swiss cheese	Cake	Whole wheat bread	Napkins
Egg noodles	Jellybeans	Can of pinto beans	Spaghetti
Toilet paper	Rice	Salad dressing	Brown sugar
Rubber gloves	Mouthwash	Ground chuck beef	Mineral water
Frozen vegetables	Deodorant	Saltine crackers	Vegetable oil
TV dinner	Cornflakes	Frozen orange juice	Peanut butter
Pork chops rolls	Fig bar cookies	Toothpaste	Air freshener

Source: Roddy, M. (1989). English day by day. Novato, CA: Academic Therapy Publications, p. 49.

Focus Sheet 6-2

Comparative Shopping

Here are advertisements from two supermarkets.

Bob's Market		Sunset Market	
Ground Chuck Beef "Incomparable!"	\$1.89/ lb.	Ground Beef Does not exceed 30% fat	\$.89/ lb.
Dixie Napkins 140 Count	\$.79	Softie Napkins Family Pack, 360 Ct. Save 20 cents	\$1.89
Apples 4 lbs. California Grown, sweet, Juicy Pippins and Golden Delicious	\$.99	Jonathan Apples Crisp and full of juice!	\$.39/ lb
D and T sugar from Hawaii 5 lb. pak	\$1.59	D and T sugar 5 lb bag	\$1.49
Mertson's Ketchup 32 oz. Bottle	\$1.39	El Mar Ketchup 44 oz.	\$1.99
Bell Tuna Chunk light, 6.5 oz. Save up to 20 cents!	\$.59	Chunk Tuna Captain John's water or oil 6 1/2 oz.	\$.69

Source: Roddy, M. (1989). English day by day. Novato, CA:
Academic Therapy Publications, p. 52.

Task Sheet 6-1

Categories of Goods

Daily Products	Beverages	Produce
Macaroni & Rice	Health Care	Cereals & sugar
Household Needs	Canned Goods	Oil, Salad dressing, spices
Frozen Food	Meat & Fish	Jams, Juice, Peanut butter
Baked Goods	Paper Products	Candy & Cookies

Source: Roddy, M. (1989). English day by day. Novato, CA: Academic Therapy Publications, pp. 49-50.

Task Sheet 6-2

Who Has the Better Deal?

Compare the price of two supermarkets and answer the following questions:

1. What are the differences between the two hamburger meats at the two markets?
2. Which napkins are cheaper per napkin?
3. Which store has the better deal on apples? Explain.
4. What's the difference between the two markets' sugar sales?
5. Which ketchup is a better buy? Explain.
6. What are the differences between the two stores' tunas?
7. You bought a bottle of ketchup, 5 lbs. of sugar, and three cans of tuna at Sunset Market. And your friend Jose bought the same items at Bob's Market. Who had a smaller bill?

Source: Roddy, M. (1989). English day by day. Novato, CA: Academic Therapy Publications, pp. 49-50.

Assessment Sheet 6-1

A Quiz

Name: _____ Date: _____

1. Name five categories of goods in a supermarket.
(30%)

2. You want to buy some chunk light tuna, lettuce,
and spaghetti for dinner. Which section should you
go to get them? (30%)

3. Fuji apple is \$.99 lb. at Bob's Market, and Sunset
Market sales them 4 lbs. for \$4.99. Who has the
better deal? Why? (40%)

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