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PROMOTING METALINGUISTIC AWARENESS THROUGH PEER
RESPONSE IN WRITING IN ELEMENTARY ENGLISH
AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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

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

by
Kuan-Ting Liu
September 2005

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Approved by:



Dr. Lynne Díaz-Rico, First Reader



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August 14, 2005
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ABSTRACT

It is important for teachers to inspire students' learning potential effectively and enhance their interest in learning. Students prefer to learn without being stressed and bored; therefore, how to manage a class creatively and provide lively instruction becomes a substantial challenge for teachers. It is up to teachers to make sure students' educational needs are met. This project serves as a resource to help teachers understand and meet the educational needs of second-language learners by promoting their metalinguistic awareness through peer response in writing in elementary English as foreign language.

In Chapter One, an overview of the role of English in contemporary Taiwan, a review of English teaching and methodologies in Taiwan, and challenges that current Taiwanese English teachers face are introduced. Chapter Two contains a literature review of key concepts that provide the basis for this project. Chapter Three proposes a theoretical framework that unites and explains the five concepts in Chapter Two. Chapter Four shows how to incorporate the theoretical framework into curricula. Chapter Five suggests formative and summative assessments of students based on the theoretical model. The Appendix

provides five lesson plans for both teachers' and students' reference.

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Special thanks to my dearest mother, Shu-Zhu Chen. Without her encouragement, I may not have gone abroad to study and experienced so many things. Mom, thank you, I love you.

DEDICATION

This project is dedicated in memory of my loving grandfather who departed for heaven. He was my mentor of life who taught me "Get from your family, society and country, and devote yourself to your family, society and country." Thank you, Grandpa; I want to tell you I made it!

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

The Role of English in Contemporary Taiwan

In the past, because of wars, market forces, and imperialism, English dominated other international languages. Nowadays, with the growth of the global economy, pervasive utilization of technology, sensitive international political issues, and the desire for information through the World Wide Web, the role that English plays in the 21st century is becoming more substantial than ever.

Taiwan, a democratic and highly developed country located across the Taiwan Strait from mainland China, also actively participates in all kinds of international organizations and is becoming an essential member of the global community. As Taiwan is an island country and lacks sufficient domestic energy sources, the economy of Taiwan is almost entirely dependent on international trade. Taiwan is not only a leading economic and trading center, with one of the busiest ports in the world, Kaohsiung, but also owns the largest OEM (Original Equipment Manufacturer) and ODM (Original Development Manufacturer)

companies that accept orders such as semiconductors, wafers, computers, and bicycles from around the world. Therefore, the demands for human resources in the field of foreign languages are becoming intense, especially for English-speaking talent. In order to supply this demand and keep up with the trend of internationalization, learning English has become a frequent activity in Taiwan. For example, there are a lot of English tutoring schools in Taiwan, and their function is to offer all kinds of intensive English programs to meet peoples' needs. Moreover, most of the university textbooks in Taiwan are English versions, because both professors and students want to learn first-hand information and knowledge as soon as possible. Furthermore, people who have better English ability can expand their worldview. In view of the facts above, English is undoubtedly the premier foreign language in Taiwan, and the role it plays is crucial and unrivaled.

History of English Teaching and Methodologies in Taiwan

In the decades before 1996, "examination guides the way of teaching," was the best description of English teaching in Taiwan. In order to get good grades in English on the National University Entrance Examination and to have a better opportunity to study at a prestigious

university, students seldom wasted their time on preparing for English listening and speaking, because the exam was a paper-based test. Therefore, students only put emphasis on improving their reading and writing skills, and English teachers tended to use the grammar-translation method to teach English. During six years of English instruction (from junior high school to senior high school), Taiwanese students memorized lots of vocabulary, phrases, idioms, sentence structures, and articles; however, most of them still lacked the ability to speak and listen in English.

The true purpose of learning a language is to be able to communicate. To this end, from 1996 to 2001, local governments started to expand English instruction for elementary schools. The English programs were designed to be more lively and interesting, to attract elementary students. The object of elementary English education was to focus on "learning by playing" and cultivate children to talk naturally. However, different local governments made English a compulsory course at different grade levels. For example, the elementary schools in Taipei City began to teach English in the first grade, but in Taipei County, English teaching began in the third grade. Gradually, when students from different areas went to the same junior high school, English teachers faced a

difficult situation educating students with different English abilities in the same class. To deal with this situation, in December, 2002, the Ministry of Education adjusted the English education policy and declared that English was required to begin in the third grade instead of other grades.

Despite the ubiquity of the grammar-translation methodology, English teaching methods in modern Taiwan are varied. English teachers have started to introduce all kinds of teaching methods from abroad, especially from America. In these approaches, the most pervasive and welcomed by teachers in Taiwan is CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning). In Taiwan, computers are as pervasive as televisions; therefore, English teachers can make good use of computers to arouse students' interest. Teachers not only attract students' attention by the vivid and colorful screens but also encourage them to surf language-learning information through the Internet.

Dilemmas of English Teaching in Taiwan's Elementary Schools

There is a Chinese proverb that goes, "Parents always hope their son and daughter become dragon and phoenix," which means that all parents hope their children will have a successful future--they have great ambitions for the

related to speed. So I used to combine teaching materials with games and told students that only by paying attention in the class could they win the game.

I am quite confident and enthusiastic about teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL), and I would like to focus my target teaching level on the third and fourth grades. I regard the third and fourth grades as critical periods in learning a foreign language, because the children who are about nine or ten years old have a basic foundation in their mother tongue. With this benefit, students have more ability to acquire a new language. As a prospective teacher of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Taiwan, I would like to meet the challenge and play an inspiring role to educate and encourage the students at the age of nine and ten to get interested in English, and lead them to achieve the success of learning an international language in an enjoyable way.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Peer Response in Second-Language Writing

Introduction

In the last two to three decades, there has been much debate and discussion over the value of group study in the fields of language teaching and the teaching of second-language (L2) writing. The pedagogy of communicative language teaching (CLT) and the use of peer collaboration in the writing process both expand student interaction beyond the teacher, and are predicated on the provision of a facilitative environment. Because student-centered methodologies depend on a reciprocal and supportive environment, they have gradually helped peer-response activities become popular in the L2 writing classroom. Peer-response activity, a kind of cooperative learning, takes advantage of the different perspectives available through the interaction of individuals and their ideas in reciprocal action. Johnson and Johnson (1986) concluded that "working collaboratively with classmates, compared with learning individualistically or competitively, increases the positiveness of students' mood states, thereby increasing their motivation to

achieve" (p. 12). However, because of occasional occurrence of student resistance to peer-response activities, a number of experienced L2 writing teachers have worked to increase the effectiveness of this particular process-writing tool. Therefore, the role of the teacher has become relatively important in the application of the peer-response process to the L2 writing context. L2 writing teachers should be conscious of the needs of students of diverse cultural or linguistic backgrounds when they are facing a wide variety of writing tasks. How are students to be grouped during peer response? How does one design a successful peer-response instructional plan to meet students' needs? How can students be guided and motivated when using peer response in L2 writing? To make good use of peer response and collaborative work in L2 writing classes, the sensitivity of the teacher is crucial.

The Definition of Peer Response

Peer response is normally referred to as peer feedback, peer review, or peer editing. Peer-response activity means students study together and provide feedback on one another's papers, assignments, or writing in both written and oral formats. Liu and Hansen (2002) indicated that because the term of "peer response" might

be easily misunderstood, it is helpful to define it clearly:

Peer response is the use of learners as sources of information and interactants [interactions] for each other in such a way that learners assume roles and responsibilities normally taken on by a formally trained teacher, tutor, or editor in commenting on and critiquing each other's drafts in both written and oral formats in the process of writing. (p. 1)

Through active engagement, students get the chance to learn and practice listening, speaking, reading, and writing by interacting with each other.

Theoretical Justifications of Peer Response in Writing

Every successful and effective teaching and learning strategy is backed by substantial theoretical justification and peer response in writing is no exception. There are four theoretical stances that support the use of peer-response activities in the writing classroom from both cognitive and psycholinguistic perspectives. These theoretical shows that peer-response activities help second-language learners develop "not only their L2 writing abilities but also their overall L2

language abilities through the negotiation of meaning that typically takes place during peer response" (Liu & Hansen, 2002, p. 2). The following four "stances" will be addressed as an advance organizer.

Process-Writing Theory. In the late 1960s and early 1970s, process-writing theory was applied to L1 writing, which had been focused more on form than meaning. In the process approach to L2 writing, writing is viewed "not as a product-oriented activity but rather one that is dynamic, nonlinear, and recursive" (Liu & Hansen, 2002, p. 3). Liu and Hansen (2002) claimed that "Typically, textbooks and courses following the process approach to writing encourage writers to engage in brainstorming activities, outlining, drafting (focusing on meaning), rewriting (focusing on organization and meaning), and editing (focusing on style and grammar)" (p. 3). Peer response also supports process writing with a focus on revision.

Collaborative Language Theory. Bruffee (1984), a leading proponent of collaborative writing, defined collaborative learning as the type of learning that takes place through communication with peers, and states that there are certain kinds of knowledge that are best acquired in peer-response activities. Bruffee (1984)

pointed out that while students individually may not have all the knowledge or resources available to successfully complete a task, "pooling the resources that a group of peers bring with them to the task" (Liu & Hansen, 2002, p. 4) may enable the group to complete a task that individuals may not be able to complete on their own. Moreover, Gere (1987) found that in writing groups, students negotiate meaning as they help each other revise papers.

Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).

Vygotsky (1978) believed that cognitive development is a result of social interaction in which an individual learns to extend her or his current competence through the guidance of a more experienced individual. Liu and Hansen (2002) indicated that "the space between the person's actual level of development (i.e., what can be done independently) and the potential level of development (i.e., what can be done with the help of someone else) is called the ZPD" (p. 5). Studying in a group, students can be "individually novices and collectively experts" (Donato, 1994, p. 46); they become a source for one another, then a guide; this finally benefits all members of the group.

Interaction and Second Language Acquisition (SLA). As students are engaged in group study, they learn how to negotiate meaning and gain additional practice in the target language; furthermore, students are pushed to produce comprehensible output. Long and Porter (1985) listed an additional number of psycholinguistic reasons for group work: (1) increased quantity of practice, especially in two-way communication tasks; (2) increased range of language functions utilized; (3) similar levels of accuracy in student production as in teacher-led activities; (4) increased error correction in group work (students almost never miscorrect); and (5) increased negotiation of meaning. Peer-response activities provide students more chances to interact with each other in the target language.

Pedagogical Considerations of Peer Response in Writing

Students engaged in the peer-response process take an active role when they interact with each other. Through peer-response activities, L2 students are motivated to practice expressing their ideas and thoughts, and they also develop the critical skills needed to analyze one another's writing.

Many L2 writing instructors have employed peer-response activities in their writing classes, with beneficial effects on motivation and attitude. However, they still have experienced constraints in using peer response. Liu and Hansen (2002) found that benefits and the constraints can be summarized in four categories: cognitive, social, linguistic, and practical. These four categories are compared and shown in Table 1.

Benefits of Peer Response Activities. Peer-response activities provide opportunity for students to build up audience awareness. Peer-response activities "develop in students the crucial ability of reviewing their writing with the eyes of another" (Zamel, 1982, p. 206). Instead of working independently on their own writing, students are continually talking about their writing, reinforcing knowledge they have already acquired but feel uncertain about, and filling in gaps in the understanding of what they have learned (Hirvela, 1999)

Use of peer-response activities helps students to acquire many social benefits as well. In the activities of peer response, students constantly receive "reactions, questions, and responses from authentic readers" (Mittan, 1989, p. 209); therefore, students can gain a clear understanding from each other gradually. Moreover, Leki

(1990) indicated that peer-response activities help students gain confidence and reduce apprehension by allowing them to see peers' strengths and weaknesses in writing.

Table 1. Benefits and Constraints in Using Peer Response

<u>Category</u>	<u>Benefits</u>	<u>Constraints</u>
Cognitive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exercise thinking • Take active role in learning • Engage in exploratory talk • Build critical skills • Demonstrate and reinforce knowledge • Build audience awareness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uncertainty concerning peer's comments • Lack of learner investment
Social	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enhance communicative power • Receive authentic feedback • Gain confidence and reduce apprehension • Establish collegial ties and friendship • Influence learners' affective state 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discomfort and uneasiness • Lack of security in negotiating meaning • Commentary may be overly critical
Linguistic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enhance metalinguistic knowledge • Explore linguistic knowledge • Gain additional language skill practice • Enhance participation and improve discourse • Find right words to express ideas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Too much focus on surface structure • Lack of L2 formal schemata • Difficulty in understanding foreign accent
Practical	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Applicable across student proficiency levels • Flexible across different stages in the writing process • Time efficient in some cases • Reinforces process writing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Time constraints • Counterproductive feedback • Lack of student preparation

(Adapted from: Liu & Hansen, 2002)

Talking about the linguistic benefits that the peer-response activities supply for students, Hirvela (1999) pointed out that through collaborative group production, students experience valuable opportunities to improve their ability to read and write, because the ongoing community orientation of this approach enables them to draw on the strengths and resources of their peers while sorting through their own growing knowledge of L2 writing. Students are able to practice the target language in authentic and meaningful communicative contexts as they interact with each other while completing collaborative tasks (Liu & Hansen, 2002). All in all, peer-response activities give students more ways to negotiate, express, discover, and explore ideas and meanings that relate to linguistic practice.

On a practical level, peer-response activities are flexible, as they take place at various stages of the writing process, such as prewriting, between-draft revision, and editing (Connor & Asenavage, 1994). They can reduce the writing teacher's workload and impart to teachers important information about every students' reading and writing abilities and their understanding of what constitutes good writing (Mittan, 1989).

Constrains of Peer-response Activities. There are four legitimate and recurring reservations concerning the use of peer-response activities in the teaching of L2 composition: uncertainty concerning peers' comments, lack of learner investment, superficial comments due to time constraints, and inappropriate interactions in commenting on peers' drafts (Liu, 1998). The nature of responding to peers' drafts sometimes generates a sense of discomfort and uneasiness among the participants. Generally speaking, the students could become rather defensive when their work is criticized, especially by their peers (Amores, 1997).

Grouping Students in Peer Response

All teachers share similar experiences that enable them to predict what will happen when students are asked to divide into groups. Those who know each other well are likely to solicit mutual membership, not only for the affection (comfort and freedom from anxiety), but also for the desire to be accepted by group members. People tend to get together with people who are similar, such as with similar linguistic and cultural backgrounds, and get peer support in the group. Liu and Hansen (2002) observed that social attraction can come from perceived similarities, proximity, and emotional ambiance.

Group Size. The size of a group is a variable factor that could affect the success of the peer-response activity. For certain types of tasks, such as brainstorming, a large group size means there is a wide range of abilities, experience, and skills available. Bigger groups can offer more opportunities for social interaction and are relatively easier for teachers to manage in class than multiple small groups. However, there are some negative repercussions on its dynamics. Wheelan and McKeage (1993) indicated that larger groups tend to be characterized by increased interpersonal conflict and are prone to subgrouping and clique formation. The bigger the group, the harder it is for group members to know each other well, and greater physical distance they have. Based on a peer-response study in an ESL composition class for graduate students at a Midwestern U.S. university, Liu (1998) concluded that a group of three works best among sizes of various group formations. The reason is that students in large groups tend to go through each other's papers only at the surface level, and leave much explanation underdeveloped, which makes peer response less effective. Liu (1998) also stated that decreased member involvement, participation, cohesiveness, and task motivation occur among students in larger groups. In

short, a smaller group size is preferable in peer-response writing activities, because students in small groups of three or four can actually go through each other's papers, and examine issues of syntax, rhetoric, grammar, and organization in a careful manner.

Gender and Age. Gender is a minor issue in peer-response activities. As far as dynamics are concerned, there is not much difference between a group of three men engaging in peer response and a group of three women, or any other mixed combination. On the other hand, age is more important, because it marks learners at different stages and English levels. Age also marks different stages of social experiences, character maturity, and psychological development. In peer-response activities, different age groups need different guidelines; for instance, high school students need different guidelines than do elementary school students. Furthermore, when an L2 writing teacher decides how much time should be allocated for certain peer-response activities, age is an important factor that should be considered. Different ages of students have different attention spans. Younger children's attention spans are relatively shorter than adults. Therefore, teachers can allow older students longer time to discuss and negotiate.

Heterogeneous Versus Homogeneous Groups. There are many ways to differentiate a heterogeneous group from a homogeneous group. One way is to look at the differences in the students' characteristics-- their interests, attitudes, personalities, abilities, competence, and proficiency levels (Liu & Hansen, 2002). Liu and Hansen (2002) stated that heterogeneous and homogeneous groups can also be distinguished by the setting in which the language is learned. In most EFL settings, L2 writing students are homogeneous in language and culture, and they share the same environment and the same native language. On the other hand, in most ESL settings, students do not have the same linguistic or cultural backgrounds, and the communication patterns in peer-response groups will bear some differences. Whether in ESL or EFL settings, learners' proficiency levels are always different in various skill areas. Therefore, no language classroom is purely homogeneous.

Liu and Hansen (2002) pointed out that dealing with heterogeneity presents a challenge for L2 writing teachers, especially in forming peer-response groups. To mix students with different linguistic abilities is a commonly practiced option and could benefit weaker students, but at the same time it could make stronger

students wonder what they can get out of peer-response activities.

Instructing Students in Peer Response

Berg (1999), based on her own teaching experiences, developed 11 guidelines for ESL teachers to use in training and instructing students in peer response. Each is supported by her personal experiences and her observations as a teacher. They are summarized as follows:

1. Create a comfortable classroom atmosphere that promotes trust among students by conducting a number of in- and out-of-class "getting-to-know-you" activities.
2. Establish the role of peer response in the writing process and explain the benefits of having peers, as opposed to just teachers, respond to students' writing.
3. Highlight the common purpose of peer response among professional and student writers by examining the acknowledgments in textbooks and other publications, and discussing how both professional and students often ask others to read their work.
4. Demonstrate and personalize the peer-response experiences by displaying several drafts of a

text written by someone the students know that demonstrate how peer comments helped improve the writing.

5. Conduct a collaborative, whole-class-response activity using a text written by someone unknown to students, and stress the importance of revising the clarity-and rhetorical-level aspects rather than sentence-level errors.
6. Address issues of vocabulary and expressions by comparing inappropriate comments with appropriate ones.
7. Familiarize students with a response sheet by showing samples and explaining its purpose as a tool designed to help them focus on important areas of the writing assignment.
8. Involve students in a response to a collaborative writing project by having them use the peer-response sheet to respond as pairs or groups to a paragraph written by another group of students. Based on the responses, have the pairs or groups then revise their original collaborative paragraphs.
9. Allow time for questions and expressions of concern by talking to students about their

writing, the peer responses, the revisions they made, the difficulties in judging classmates' comments, and lack of confidence in their revision abilities.

10. Provide revision guidelines by highlighting good revision strategies and explaining that peer response helps authors understand the difference between intended and perceived meaning.
11. Study examples of successful and unsuccessful peer response using videotapes or printed samples to examine level of student engagement, language used, and topics discussed.

Liu and Sadler (2000) replicated these guidelines in an undergraduate ESL composition class at a Southwestern U.S. university. Based on their experiences, they added four points to Berg's:

12. To increase the responsibility of students in peer response, instructors should read peer comments based on peer-response sheets and give students credit for their comments.
13. Students should be given ample opportunities to familiarize themselves with what to comment on (e.g., peer-response sheets) and also how to make comments (e.g., in on-line reviewing, the

features they can use on a computer). This is especially crucial when software such as MOO or CommonSpace is used.

14. Teachers should provide students with their comments by using the same peer-response sheets later in the process so as to allow students to make revisions based on peers' comments without the intervention of the teacher. Students will be able to see the differences (not necessarily good or bad) not only in what is commented on but also how comments are made, which raises awareness of the varieties of comments and commenting strategies.
15. Students should also be given opportunities to clarify their peers' comments and exchange opinions with them before revising their drafts. This is usually done through oral peer response or on-line synchronous peer-response sessions. Meanwhile, teachers should encourage their students to talk with them about their reactions toward their peers' comments on their drafts, which provides a chance to get clarification, confirmation, or reinforcement through

Table 2. Guidelines for Preparing Students for Peer Response

Affective	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Create a comfortable environment to assist students in establishing peer trust. 2. Encourage peer support. 3. Establish the role of peer response in classrooms. 4. Allow sufficient time to familiarize students with the peer-response procedures and format, especially with computer software. 5. Give peer comments before those from the teacher.
Cognitive	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Highlight the purpose of peer response. 2. Stress the importance of peer response for revision by using drafts and peer responses to demonstrate the effects of peer response on revision. 3. Use task-specific peer-response sheets catering to the needs of learners at different proficiency levels. 4. Model the peer-response process for the whole class by using videos or simulations. 5. Provide concrete revision guidelines based on peer responses. 6. Practice asking questions that encourage negotiation of meaning.
Socio-cultural	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Increase the awareness of the nature of intercultural communication in group work. 2. Invite students to reflect on their own experiences of and perceptions toward peer-response work. 3. Introduce peer-response strategies, such as turn-taking and interaction.
Linguistic	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Introduce pragmatic and useful expressions in peer response. 2. Use examples to show what is inappropriate in peer response. 3. Instruct students in asking the right questions.

Source: Adapted from: Liu & Hansen, 2002

Summary

Peer response is a popular teaching strategy in the second-language writing class. Applying peer-response activities in L2 writing classes not only can motivate students' learning interests be motivated, but also can provide students with a greater chance to interact with each other, perform comprehensible output, and gain mutual benefit. Although peer response has many advantages in the L2 writing classes, the teacher plays several important roles when peer response is applied. Teachers have to create a comfortable environment to assist students in establishing peer trust, and take into consideration each student's English levels while grouping. Additionally, teachers have to guide students in a host of affective, cognitive, sociocultural, and linguistic aspects. To successfully apply peer-response activities in L2 writing classes, teachers should equip themselves in these facilitative techniques and enjoy meeting the challenge of helping students make enhanced progress in writing in English.

Communicative Language Teaching

Introduction

Communicative language teaching (CLT) has become a fashionable term in recent decades to cover a variety of developments in syllabus design and teaching materials. The so-called "communicative movement" has become influential in foreign language and second-language teaching since the early 1970s. The basic goal of language learning is to have communicative ability; therefore, approaches such as situational language teaching and the audiolingual method are widely used in the field of CLT. Moreover, since the 1970s, the implications of communicative ability have been explored more thoroughly and explicitly than before. The implications can be classified into two main perspectives: language and language learning.

Implications for Language. CLT opens up a wider perspective on language. It makes language learners consider language not only from the point of view of structure (grammar and vocabulary), but in light of the communicative functions that language performs, to consider not only language forms, but also what people do with these forms. Moreover, in order to achieve a communicative perspective, students can combine the new

functional view of language with the traditional structural view, and learn to use language as a means of communication.

Implication for Language Learning. CLT also opens up a perspective on language learning. It makes language teachers aware that it is not enough to teach learners how to manipulate the structures of the foreign language; teachers must help students to develop strategies for relating language structures to their communicative functions in authentic situations. In addition, teachers need to provide students with ample opportunities to use the language for communicative purposes. Moreover, they also need to develop students' ability to take part in the process of communication through language, rather attempting to perfect their mastery of language structures.

Once the preliminary implications of CLT are understood, the following literature review will become clearer. Beginning with the definition of CLT, its features, pedagogical implication, and instantiation in Taiwan are explored.

The Definition of Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative language teaching (CLT) suggests communicative language; the classroom context features

activities that teach students how to react in an authentic real-world situation. CLT refers to both processes and goals in classroom learning. The central theoretical concept in CLT is "communicative competence," a term introduced into discussions of language use and second or foreign language learning in the early 1970s (Hymes, 1971; Savignon, 1971). Competence is defined in terms of "expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meaning and looks to both psycholinguistic and sociocultural perspectives in second-language acquisition (SLA) research to account for its development" (Savignon, 2002, p. 1). Savignon (1971) used the term "communicative competence" to characterize the ability of language learners to interact with other speakers and make meaning, distinct from their ability to recite dialogues.

Features of Communicative Language Teaching

A remarkable feature of CLT that was pointed out by Richards and Rodgers (1986) is its learner-centered view of second-language teaching. According to Savignon (1991), every individual student possesses unique interests, styles, needs, and goals. Therefore, it is recommended that teachers develop materials based on students' demonstrated needs. Additionally, Nunan (1991) listed five basic characteristics of communicative language teaching:

1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
2. The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.
3. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on the language but also on the learning process itself.
4. An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.
5. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom. (p. 279)

CLT emphasizes the use of authentic materials in teaching language (Widdowson, 1996). It also encourages teachers to give learners an opportunity to respond to genuine communicative needs in real-life situations. This is to help learners develop strategies for understanding language which is actually used by native speakers (Canale & Swain, 1980).

By getting the idea of five basic characteristics of CLT, teachers should design learner-centered curriculum

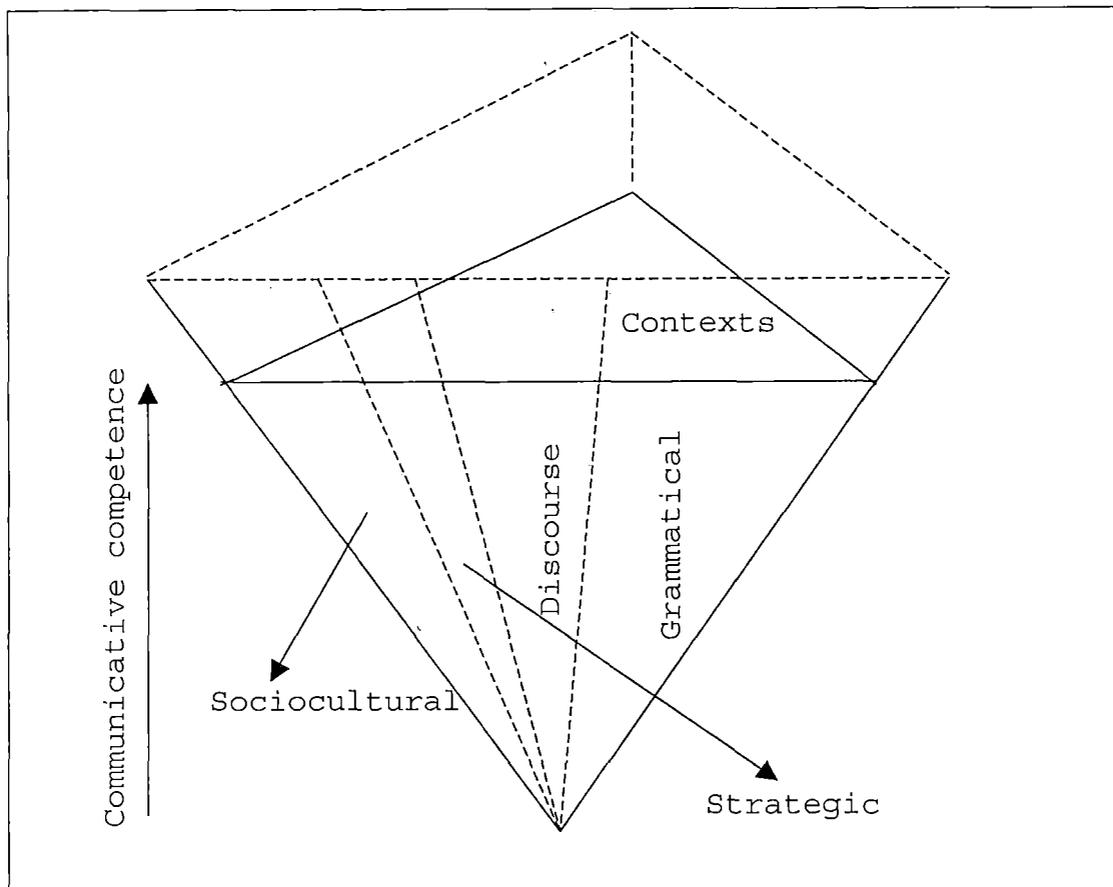
based on authentic texts that provide opportunities and activities for students to discuss and communicate.

Components of Communicative Competence

Adapted from the familiar "inverted pyramid" classroom model proposed in Savignon (1983), the current model shows that through practice and experience in an increasingly wide range of communicative contexts and events, learners gradually expand their communicative competence, which comprises grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociocultural competence, and strategic competence (Figure 1).

The relative importance of the various competences depends on the overall level of communicative competence; however, each component is essential, and all of them are interrelated. They cannot be developed or measured in isolation. When an increase occurs in one component, it interacts with other components to produce a corresponding increase in overall communicative competence.

Grammatical Competence. Grammatical competence refers to sentence-level grammatical forms. It is "the ability to recognize the lexical, morphological, syntactical and phonological features of a language" (Savignon, 1997, p. 41), and to make use of those features to interpret and form words and sentences. Savignon (1997) pointed out that



Source: Adapted from Savignon (1983).

Figure 1. Components of Communicative Competence

grammatical competence does not link to any theory of grammar and does not include the ability to state rules of usage. The way to demonstrate grammatical competence is not to state rules but to use rules in the interpretation, expression, or negotiation of meaning.

Discourse Competence. Savignon (1997) claimed that discourse competence is not concerned with isolated words or phrases but with the interconnectedness of a series of utterances or written words or phrases to form a text. The

text might be a poem, an e-mail message, a telephone conversation, or a novel. The identification of isolated sounds or words contributes to the interpretation of the meaning of the text.

Two familiar concepts that arise in the discussions of discourse competence are text coherence and cohesion (Savignon, 1997). Text coherence is the relation of all sentences or utterances in a text, and local connections or structural links between individual sentences provide cohesion. Halliday and Hasan (1976) are widely recognized for their identification of various cohesive devices used in English, and their work has influenced materials for teaching English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL).

Sociocultural Competence. A broader view of what Canale and Swain (1980) identified as sociolinguistic competence extends well beyond linguistic forms and is an inter-disciplinary field of inquiry having to do with the social rules of language use. Sociocultural competence requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the role of the participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction. Savignon (1983) stated that sociocultural competence includes a willingness to engage in the active

negotiation of meaning along with a willingness to suspend judgment and take the possibility of cultural differences in conventions of use into consideration.

Strategic Competence. Communicative competence is always relative. With practice and experience, language learners gain competence in grammar, discourse, and sociocultural adaptability. Relatively, the importance of strategic competence thus decreases; however, Savignon (1983) pointed out that the effective use of coping strategies is important for communicative competence in all contexts and distinguishes highly effective communicators from those who are less so.

Grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociocultural competence, and strategic competence are the components of communicative competence. By getting the idea of the components of communicative competence, teachers get better sense of how to expand their students' communicative competence by providing them wide range of communicative contexts and events.

Caveats of Applying Communicative Language Teaching

Brown (1994) warned that there are certain caveats in the field of language teaching when it comes to discussing CLT. He warned against the practice of the following:

1. Giving "lip service" to the principles of CLT (because "no one these days would admit to a disbelief in principles of CLT; they would be marked as a heretic") without actually grounding one's teaching techniques in those principles, or making sure one indeed understands and practices according to the characteristics that make CLT what it is.
2. Overdoing certain CLT features, for example engaging in real-life authentic language to the exclusion of helpful devices such as controlled practice, or vice versa. Moderation is needed in combination with common sense and a balanced approach.
3. The numerous interpretations of what CLT actually "is." CLT is often a catch-all term, and does not reflect the fact that not everyone agrees on its interpretation or application. Teachers need to be aware that there are many possible versions, and it is intended as an "umbrella" term covering a variety of methods. (p. 78-80)

To learn from other people's experience and warnings is the short cut to success. As the caveats of applying CLT are presented in this section, teachers can avoid making mistakes or misusing CLT, and can use CLT more confidently.

Communicative Language Teaching in Taiwan

Competent English users are in great demand in Taiwan, where English serves as a link between people from different cultures and countries as well as a tool for knowledge and information exchange in technology and business. In order to raise Taiwanese communicative competence in English, the Ministry of Education of Taiwan (MOE) made changes in English education policy (Wang, 2000), and decided to begin English instruction at the elementary-school level in 2001. In addition, the MOE published new curricula for English teaching in both junior and senior high schools, which exhibit features of communication-based teaching and guide materials development and classroom practice.

The textbooks for the junior high schools that were published in 1998 show great improvement (Chen & Huang, 1999). All the textbooks have colorful pictures and short daily dialogues. Lessons are arranged according to themes and functions of communication. Speaking and listening

skills are focused on teaching. New textbooks developed for senior high school learners have been in use since the fall of 1999. Senior high schools have the right to select textbooks that fit the needs of both learners and teachers.

Changes have also been made in assessment, including making examination content practical, authentic, and relevant to learners' daily lives. A listening component has also been added to junior high school exams. In Taiwan, teachers and students believe that the test content guides teaching and learning; therefore, these changes in test design are intended to have positive effects on English language teaching, and leave more time for listening and oral practice.

The new curricula for teaching English in Taiwan embody goals for communicative competence in speaking, writing, listening, reading, and culture awareness. Therefore, in order to enhance learners' communicative competence, CLT is more appropriate than other methodologies in developing the ability of "interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning" (Savignon, 1997, p. 262). Moreover, promoting meaningful and authentic communication can meet learners' communicative needs and raise their interest in learning

English. Through authentic use of English, communicative competence is developed in a meaningful way.

In recent years, the MOE has encourage English teachers to apply lively and interactive pedagogies to students to strengthen their ability in speaking. CLT sheds light on curriculum design and implementation for most English teachers. Instead of always depending on developed techniques and methods, teachers with knowledge of CLT will find inspiration for designing their own methods and materials, contributing to communication-based teaching.

Summary

Communicative language teaching (CLT) has been a very popular pedagogy since 1970s, and it remains welcomed by language teachers and learners around the world. CLT is the generally accepted norm in the field of second-language teaching and it suggests communicative language and language acquisition. The approach proposes ways for learners to internalize a second language and to experiment in a classroom context. Therefore, the classroom context is used to create activities to teach students how to react in an authentic world situation.

CLT is a challenge for English teachers in Taiwan because most of Taiwanese students are too shy to speak a

foreign language with their classmates, especially to speak out loud in the classroom. The teachers' duty is not only to design interesting and authentic lesson plans which are based on CLT, but also to play a role as a motivator to encourage students to talk in English. To apply CLT effectively in English learning classes, teachers should provide more incentives and inspire students to talk as much as they can; moreover, teachers should establish a stress-free and embarrassment-free environment, and encourage students to express their opinions actively.

Non-Native-English-Speaking Teachers in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

Introduction

Culture and language make profound impressions on humans, and it is hard to deny that culture and language shape us in definite and different ways throughout life. In the field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), the teaching of culture has been increasingly emphasized in recent years, but the subject of the congruence of the English as second language (ESL) teacher's cultural background and experiences with that of his/her students has been less evident. Milambiling (1999) pointed out that the purported superiority of the native

speaker as a language teacher has overshadowed, at least until recently, the advantages that non-native-English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) might have when teaching students from the same or other non-native background.

According to Milambiling's (1999) point of view as a professional in a TESOL teacher training program in a Midwestern university, the resources that non-native speakers bring to the task of teaching ESL have been underestimated and underutilized. Many of the non-native speakers who are learning to be teachers will actually be more successful at teaching English than would native speakers in the same teaching situations. The reasons are that the NNESTs have had the experience of learning English themselves, and they also understand and may inhabit "thought worlds" that are similar to their students. Auerbach (1993) described situations with immigrants where teachers and tutors who share the background and at least some of the experiences of the learners are better able to reach and help those learners:

Whereas non-native speakers of English with nontraditional educational backgrounds can be trained in literacy/ESL pedagogy, it is not clear that the reverse is true--that the

understandings that come through shared life experience and cultural background can be imparted through training. These are qualities which may be truly intrinsic to non-native speakers. (p. 28)

Cook (1999) claimed that the emphasis on the native speaker in language teaching can mean that language learners are faced with a virtually unattainable goal--to speak and understand a second language in exactly the same ways that a native speakers does. He also pointed out the "comparative fallacy" in which non-native speakers are referred to as succeeding or failing in their language learning when they measure up to or fail to meet native-speaker standards. Cook recommended that "language teaching should place more emphasis on the student as a potential and actual L2 [second language] user and be less concerned with the monolingual native speaker" (p. 196). Furthermore, for the case of EFL, Lung (1999) suggested that instead of bringing in native-speaking teachers from New Zealand, Australia, the U.K., and the U.S., that local teachers who received better training be acknowledged for their "clear understanding of the needs and background of the students, including cultural and linguistic factors" (p. 8).

Status of the Non-Native-English-Speaking Teacher

The term non-native-English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) has created a division among professionals in the English language teaching (ELT) profession. Maum (2002) believed that it is necessary to distinguish between native and non-native-English-speaking teachers, because their different strengths should be recognized. However, those who oppose the dichotomy feel that differentiating among teachers based on their status as native or non-native speakers perpetuates the dominance of the native speaker in the ELT profession and contributes to discrimination in hiring practices.

Native-English speakers without teaching qualifications are more likely to be hired as ESL teachers than qualified and experienced NNESTs, especially outside the United States (Canagarajah, 1999; Rampton, 1996). But Phillipson (1996) claimed that teaching credentials should be required of all English teachers, regardless of their native language. This would shift the emphasis in hiring from who the job candidates are to what they can do, and allow for more democratic employment practices.

There is no doubt that native speakers of a language have a feel for its nuances, can speak it fluently, and are good at using its idiomatic expressions. However,

Phillipson (1996) used the phrase "the native speaker fallacy" to refer to unfair treatment of qualified NNESTs. Furthermore, he pointed out the Makarere tenet was flawed, because people do not become qualified to teach English merely because it is their mother tongue. Much of the knowledge that native speakers bring intrinsically to the classroom can be learned by NNESTs through teacher training. Phillipson (1996) indicated that non-native speakers can learn to use idioms appropriately, to appreciate the cultural connotations of the language, and to determine whether a given language form is correct. In addition, there are many ways in which NNESTs are at an advantage in teaching English.

Strengths of Non-Native-English-Speaking Teachers

Phillipson (1996) considered NNESTs to be potentially the ideal ESL teachers, because they have gone through the process of acquiring English as an additional language. NNESTs have experience in learning and using a second language, and their personal experience has sensitized them to the linguistic and cultural needs of their students. A keen awareness of the differences between English and students' mother tongue has developed in many NNESTs, especially those who have the same first language as their students. By this sensitivity, they are able to

anticipate students' linguistic problems and learning needs.

The other strength that Medgyes (1996) added is that NNESTs can be good learner models, because they have gone through the experience of learning English as a second (or third or fourth) language. They have had to adopt language-learning strategies during their own learning process, and they are likely to convert useful strategies into useful pedagogies and apply them more empathetically to their students' linguistic challenges.

Challenges for Non-Native-English-Speaking Teachers

Although the majority of English teachers in the world are not native speakers of English (Matsuda & Matsuda, 2001), NNESTs still struggle for equal treatment in the ELT profession. They have to face a number of challenges, including those related to accent and credibility in the workplace.

Accent. In the United States and other countries, the issue of accent has been the cause of employment discrimination in some ESL programs. Lippi-Green (1997) found that teachers with non-native accents were perceived as less qualified and less effective when they were compared with their native-English-speaking colleagues.

Canagarajah (1999) also pointed out that native speakers of various international varieties of English, such as Indian or Singapore English, were considered less credible and less competent teachers than those who come from "countries of the Inner Circle" (Kachru, 1985), such as the U.K., the U.S., Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. Therefore, Lippi-Green (1997) pointed out that this questioning of teachers' ability and credibility based on their accent is a form of linguistic discrimination.

Credibility in the Workplace. By the inevitable trickle-down effect of the native-speaker fallacy, both parents and students raise issues of NNESTs credibility in the ELT classroom. In Taiwan, there are more and more intensive English program (IEP) institutions and bilingual kindergartens who use native-English-speaking teachers (NESTs) as a means of attracting students. In reality, speakers of more than one language not only have a sophisticated awareness of language, but also have the ability to relate to students' needs (Phillipson, 1992). Teachers who share the same language and cultural background as their students usually have an even greater advantage. Auerbach, Barahona, Midy, Vaquerano, Zambrano, and Arnaud (1996) found that NNESTs displayed an acute

sensitivity to their students' needs and have better ability to develop an effective curriculum and pedagogy.

In the English-teaching profession, NESTs grapple primarily with establishing their professional identities as ESL teachers, while NNESTs often have the extra pressure of asserting themselves as competent English speakers (Maum, 2002). Kamhi-Stein (2002) claimed that NNESTs' self-identification as teachers, immigrants, and language learners profoundly affects how they construct their classrooms and instruction. She found that NNESTs draw on the commonalities among linguistic and ethnic groups, and these commonalities can become a means of collaboration in the class. NNESTs tend to use instructional materials developed in countries outside the Inner Circle to offer a variety of perspectives. They also like to make good use of teachers' and students' immigration and second-language learning experiences as teaching sources.

Solutions. In 1998, TESOL, an international professional association that represents teachers of English to speakers of other languages, approved the formation of the NNEST (Non-Native English Speakers in TESOL) Caucus (Maum, 2002). This recognition has given non-native teachers more visibility in the profession and

has helped create a professional environment for all TESOL members, regardless of native language and birth place. The formation of the NNEST Caucus gives qualified non-native English teachers more chances to contribute in meaningful ways to the field of English language education by virtue of their own experiences as English learners.

The United States universities have seen a large influx of NNESTs into TESOL master programs in recent years (Matsuda, 1999). In order to meet the needs of these students, some programs have begun to include issues of concern in the curriculum, such as crosscultural classes and topics of interest to NNESTs. Kamhi-Stein, Lee, and Lee (1999) pointed out that a major advantage of this multicultural English-teacher-training approach is that it gives NNESTs a voice in their program and provides opportunities for native and non-native English speakers to learn from each other. Furthermore, Matsuda and Matsuda (2001) claimed that graduate students in this program can share teaching ideas and information, and provide moral support for each other. By sharing their strengthes and insights from their various linguistic, cultural, and educational backgrounds, the graduate students found that they benefited and grew professionally both as individuals and as a group.

Advantages of Non-Native-English-Speaking Teachers in English as a Foreign Language

The most obvious advantage of NNESTs in EFL is both students and teachers speak the same language. This advantage is in the opportunity of using the L1 to facilitate some specific difficulties in learning the L2, such as using the L1 to explain some points that it would be hard to explain in the L2. Cook (1999) agreed with this opinion and considered learners' L1 a valuable instrument in presenting meaning. That is why Widdowson (1994) strongly objects to the assumption that a NEST is always better than a NNEST.

If English is taught as a foreign language in a non-English-speaking country where all learners share the same first language, the teacher who speaks this L1 has the advantage of being better prepared to cope with those specific problems of his/her students that originate from incompatibilities or differences in the target and native language (Tang, 1997). Moreover, Tarnopolsky (2000) believed that the advantages of a NNEST in EFL lie in the ability to make recourse to the students' mother tongue where it can facilitate, accelerate, and improve the learning process and also in the ability to better

understand those students' problems in English that originate from L1 and L2 differences.

Another advantage of NNESTs in EFL is interlingual awareness. The interlingual awareness of students, the result of interlingual comparisons, fosters the use of transfer strategies. The ideas may be summarized by Schweers (1997) who asserted that:

Interlingual awareness is a learner's awareness of and sensitivity to relationships that exist between L1 and L2 at all levels. The more interlingually aware learners are, the more frequently they will use the transfer strategy. Furthermore, interlingual awareness and transfer use can be increased through the use of modules that draw the learners' attention to areas of similarity and difference. (p. 10)

NNESTs can purposefully develop their students' interlingual awareness whereas NESTs can not do so to the same degree. Moreover, Tarnopolsky (2000) pointed out that developing intercultural awareness in the EFL teaching and learning process seems even more important than developing interlingual awareness. Comparing students' personal contact with the target culture with their own culture seems to be the only way to give students some

intercultural awareness. Nevertheless, although NESTs tend to say a lot about their home culture, they may have less ability to compare it to students' home culture.

One more psychological advantage was pointed out by Cook (1999), who stated that "students may feel overwhelmed by native-speaker teachers who have achieved a perfection that is out of the students' reach. Students may prefer the fallible nonnative-speaker teacher who presents a more achievable model" (p. 200).

To conclude the above discussion, Tarnopolsky (2000) indicated that highly qualified and competent NNESTs have the following five advantages when English is taught as a foreign language (outside the country where it is spoken) in a monolingual group and when these NNESTs share their students' mother tongue and home culture:

1. They can use their students' mother tongue whenever and wherever it can facilitate and accelerate the process of learning English.
2. They are much better equipped to help their students to cope with those learning problems that depend on L1 and L2 differences and that can be solved effectively only when the teacher has a

clear idea about the essence of these differences.

3. They are much better equipped for developing their students' interlingual awareness conducive to their acquiring those transfer strategies that are an important prerequisite for target language learning.
4. They are much better equipped for developing their students' intercultural awareness that is the only way of learning target culture (especially target non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns) in the conditions where students have no or very little direct contact with target cultural communities.
5. They present a more achievable model to their students, not overwhelming them with the native-speaker's perfection. (p. 35)

To fully incorporate all these advantages of being a NNEST, the teacher must have appropriate methodology and materials at his or her disposal. If specific methodologies and teaching materials to be used by

competent and qualified NNESTs are created, it will greatly improve EFL teaching in their countries.

Disadvantages of Non-Native-English-Speaking Teachers in English as a Foreign Language

In addition to those advantages mentioned above, Tarnopolsky (2000) also concluded three disadvantages NNESTs have to face in EFL. The first is a foreign accent and other more or less serious imperfections in English that the best of NNESTs often cannot get rid of it during their career, even if they have visited or studied in English-speaking countries for a long time. To achieve nativelike perfection in a foreign language not only takes years of practice but also the goal is seldom fully attained--practically never, if language is learned in adulthood (Walsh & Diller, 1981). Generally speaking, L2 adult learners as a rule stop short of nativelike success in a number of areas, especially in pronunciation.

The second disadvantage is that it is very difficult for NNESTs to be aware of all the recent developments in English. All languages are living organisms that undergo constant change. Even if a NNEST acquired his or her English in an English-speaking country, after going back to home country and teaching for 10 years, he or she will find the language considerably changed, especially in

vocabulary. Many NNESTs do not ever get the chance to go to English-speaking countries even once in their lifetimes. Moreover, the same can be said of cultural awareness. It is especially true concerning nonverbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns. NNESTs may find it difficult to properly prepare their students for contact with target-language cultural communities upon coming to an English-speaking country. They cannot make their students immune to cultural shocks.

The last disadvantage is tied to limited availability of the latest and most advanced English teaching materials and methods developed in English-speaking countries. Tarnopolsky (2000) indicated that organizations such as the British Council do a lot to disseminate the materials and methods, but their efforts cannot reach all the NNESTs and there are many other limitations.

How to Counter Disadvantages of Non-Native English Speaking Teachers in English as a Foreign Language

As to the first disadvantage of imperfections in English of a NNESTs, Tarnopolsky (2000) suggested they may be considerably reduced and become quite minor in the course of practicing, upgrading one's qualification, contacting native speakers during the teaching career, participating in in-service training (especially it is

organized by English-speaking countries), reading and watching films in English, and listening to English radio. Tarnopolsky (2000) especially pointed out that teachers' constant study of the latest professional literature is the paramount important ways of reducing drawbacks of NNESTs in EFL.

To deal with disadvantages of NNESTs in EFL, Tarnopolsky (2000) provided two feasible solutions. The first solution is to take full advantage of the presence of NESTs in the countries where English is taught as a foreign language. These NESTs can play roles as instructors and consultants for NNESTs and supply them with abundant information about culture, communicative behavioral patterns, tendencies, and latest developments in the fields of EFL/ESL teaching. The second feasible solution is to take advantage of modern technology. Through the Internet, continuous NESTs in-service training courses provide NNESTs with audio-visual interactive training programs and consultative service concentrating on the following:

1. latest developments in the English language itself;

2. cultural issues--with the main emphasis on communicative behavioral patterns (verbal, non-verbal and lifestyle);
3. latest and most advanced developments in ELT;
4. latest and most advanced teaching materials for ELT. (Tarnopolsky, 2000, p. 15)

To be efficient, such networks should be multiple and aimed at specific groups of NNESTs. For instance, an in-service training program for teachers teaching English to students between ages of 12 to 16 in a given-country with a specific culture and mother tongue would require specificity in the training curriculum.

Summary

In EFL setting, compared with NESTs, the biggest advantage of NNESTs is that they share the same first language with their students. NNESTs who share their monolingual students' mother tongue and culture can facilitate making comparisons between L1 and L2 and developing students' interlingual and intercultural awareness. Qualified and well-trained NNESTs can contribute in meaningful ways to the field of English language education by virtue of their own experiences as English language learners and their training experiences

as teachers. The formation of the NNEST Caucus in TESOL, the development of innovative curricula in teacher training programs in U.S. universities, and collaborative efforts between NESTs and NNESTs are helping to give NNESTs a voice in their profession consonant with their position as equal partners in the field of English language teaching.

Metalinguistic Awareness

Introduction

There are different views in current second language acquisition (SLA) literature as to whether the role that awareness plays in L2 learning is crucial for subsequent processing of L2 data (e.g., Tomlin & Villa, 1994). During the last three decades, considerable research has been conducted on students' (especially young children's) understanding of language. Metalinguistic awareness and other related terms, such as linguistic awareness, language awareness, and print awareness have been used to label this research. In recent years, a growing number of cognitive psychologists have shown a great interest in instructional design, and have tested out their ideas by developing prototype teaching models well-grounded in cognitive learning theory (Anderson, 1987). The study of

metalinguistic awareness has attracted much attention from developmental psychologists, developmental psycholinguists, and educators (Pratt & Grieve, 1984). Because it is of great concern by researchers in many fields, especially language educators, metalinguistic awareness has been seen as an important self-awareness ability that teachers can help students develop in the ESL/EFL class. Tunmer and Herriman (1984) gave metalinguistic awareness a clear definition:

Metalinguistic awareness may be defined as the ability to reflect upon and manipulate the structural features of spoken language, treating language itself as an object of thought, as opposed to simply using the language system to comprehend and produce sentences. To be metalinguistically aware is to begin to appreciate that the stream of speech, beginning with the acoustic signal and ending with the speaker's intended meaning, can be looked at with the mind's eye and taken apart. (p. 12)

Although metalinguistic awareness is related in meaning to the term "metalanguage," it is important to distinguish between the two. While metalanguage refers to language used to describe language, including terms like phoneme,

word, phrase, etc., Tunmer and Herriman (1984) concluded that "metalinguistic awareness refers to awareness of the instantiations of these terms, but not to knowledge of the terms themselves" (p. 12). Therefore, a metalinguistically aware student may perform well on a task involving the manipulation of phonemes without knowing what the term "phoneme" means.

Preliminary Distinctions Relating to Metalinguistic Awareness

In developing a conceptual framework for the emergence of metalinguistic awareness, it is essential to distinguish it from four concepts that have evolved from generative linguistics, which are tacit knowledge, linguistic competence, linguistic intuitions, and explicit formulation. Tacit knowledge refers to the unconscious knowledge that the speaker of a language has the set of rules that determines the grammatical acceptability of the sentences of that language (Tunmer & Herriman, 1984). A major task of the linguist is to develop a system of rules, such as grammar, that represent the speaker's knowledge of language; Chomsky called this linguistic competence. This knowledge is unconscious, because speakers are not aware of the rules when they produce and comprehend utterances. Moreover, Tunmer and Herriman

(1984) pointed out that not only are speakers unable to observe how the rules are utilized during ongoing speech, but they are typically unable to bring these rules into consciousness when reflecting on what they said or heard.

As to linguistic intuitions, "speakers generally are unable to provide explicit formulations of the rules underlying their judgments" (Tunmer & Herriman, 1984, p. 14). Because linguists have to infer the rules from the judgments that speakers make, as well as the utterances, linguistic intuitions are an important part of the data that linguists use in constructing a theory of linguistic competence.

Although linguistic intuitions involve metalinguistic abilities, they must not be equated with each other (Tunmer & Herriman, 1984). This is a particularly important point to bear in mind when evaluating studies that concern the development of metalinguistic abilities. It is possible that a student can perform metalinguistic awareness (when appropriate tasks are used) without providing explicit language structure.

In this section, by telling the differences between metalinguistic awareness and generative linguistics (tacit knowledge, linguistic competence, linguistic intuitions, and explicit formulation), teachers not only have a clear

concept about metalinguistic awareness, but also get a better sense when they want to develop and apply it to students.

Views of the Development of Metalinguistic Awareness

Tunmer and Herriman (1984) identified three views on the nature and development of metalinguistic awareness in children:

View 1. Metalinguistic awareness develops concomitantly with language.

View 2. Metalinguistic awareness develops in middle childhood and is related to a more general change in information processing capabilities that occurs during this period.

View 3. Metalinguistic awareness develops after the child begins formal schooling and is largely the result of learning to read.

(p. 17-32)

The first view holds that the development of metalinguistic awareness is part of the language-acquisition process, while the other two views see it as separate from the acquisition itself. The third view holds that the awareness of language is largely an

effort of learning to read. Tunmer and Herriman (1984) claimed that on the basis of empirical research, the most supportable view is the second one, namely, that metalinguistic awareness is a developmentally distinct kind of linguistic functioning that emerges during middle childhood, and the one that is related to a more general change in information-processing capabilities that occurs during this period.

Evidence in support of this view comes from several studies. Hakes, Evans, and Tunmer (1980), and Tunmer and Nesdale (1982) both claimed that research on the development of phonological awareness has shown that most five-year-old children and many six- and seven-year-olds are unable to segment spoken words into phonemes, even though four-week old infants can discriminate minor differences in speech sounds. Similarly, in the study of the development of young children's awareness of the word as a unit of spoken language, Tunmer, Pratt, and Herriman (1984) found most children below six years of age were unable to segment meaningful phrases into their constituent words, and could not respond on the basis of various acoustic factors, which means it is difficult for them to tell some similar sounds correctly, such as [d] and [t], [b] and [p]. Tunmer and Herriman (1984) indicated

that "rather than appreciating the arbitrary nature of the relationship between the meaning of words and their phonological realizations, young children tend to view words as inherent properties of objects, much like color, shape and size" (p. 28). Moreover, Hakes, Evans, and Tunmer (1980) reported a related finding: they asked children ranging from four to eight years of age to judge the acceptability of grammatical and ungrammatical sentences. While the older children tended to judge acceptability on the basis of the sentence's syntactic and semantic characteristics, the younger children were generally unable to dissociate the meaning of a sentence from its form.

According to the conceptualization of the first view, metalinguistic awareness is an integral part of the process of language acquisition and is acquired early in life. Spontaneous speech repairs and language play are seen as the primary evidence in support of this position. In contrast, the standpoint of the second view is that the development of metalinguistic awareness occurs during middle childhood, which means the period from approximately four to eight years old. It is considered to reflect a new kind of linguistic functioning which is influenced greatly by the cognitive-control processes

which begin to emerge during this period. Compared with spontaneous speech repairs and language play that provide evidence for the first view, the metalinguistic awareness corresponding to the second view is considered to be characterized by controlled and intentional processing (such as being able to segment a sentence into words, and words into phonemes), but by automatic processing related to a general and natural change in information processing. For the third view, the development of metalinguistic awareness is thought to be largely the result of exposure to formal schooling, especially learning to read. Compared with the second view, it claims that evidences of metalinguistic awareness are in a variety of controlled responses, such as the reading class in school.

Three views on the nature and development of metalinguistic awareness in children were discussed in this section. The first holds that the development of metalinguistic awareness is part of the language acquisition process, while the other two see it as separate from the acquisition of language itself. Tunmer and Herriman (1984) claimed that the second view is the most supportive, because "metalinguistic awareness is a developmentally distinct kind of linguistic functioning that emerges during middle childhood, and one that is

related to a more general change in information processing capabilities that occurs during this period" (p. 35).

The Development of Metalinguistic Abilities

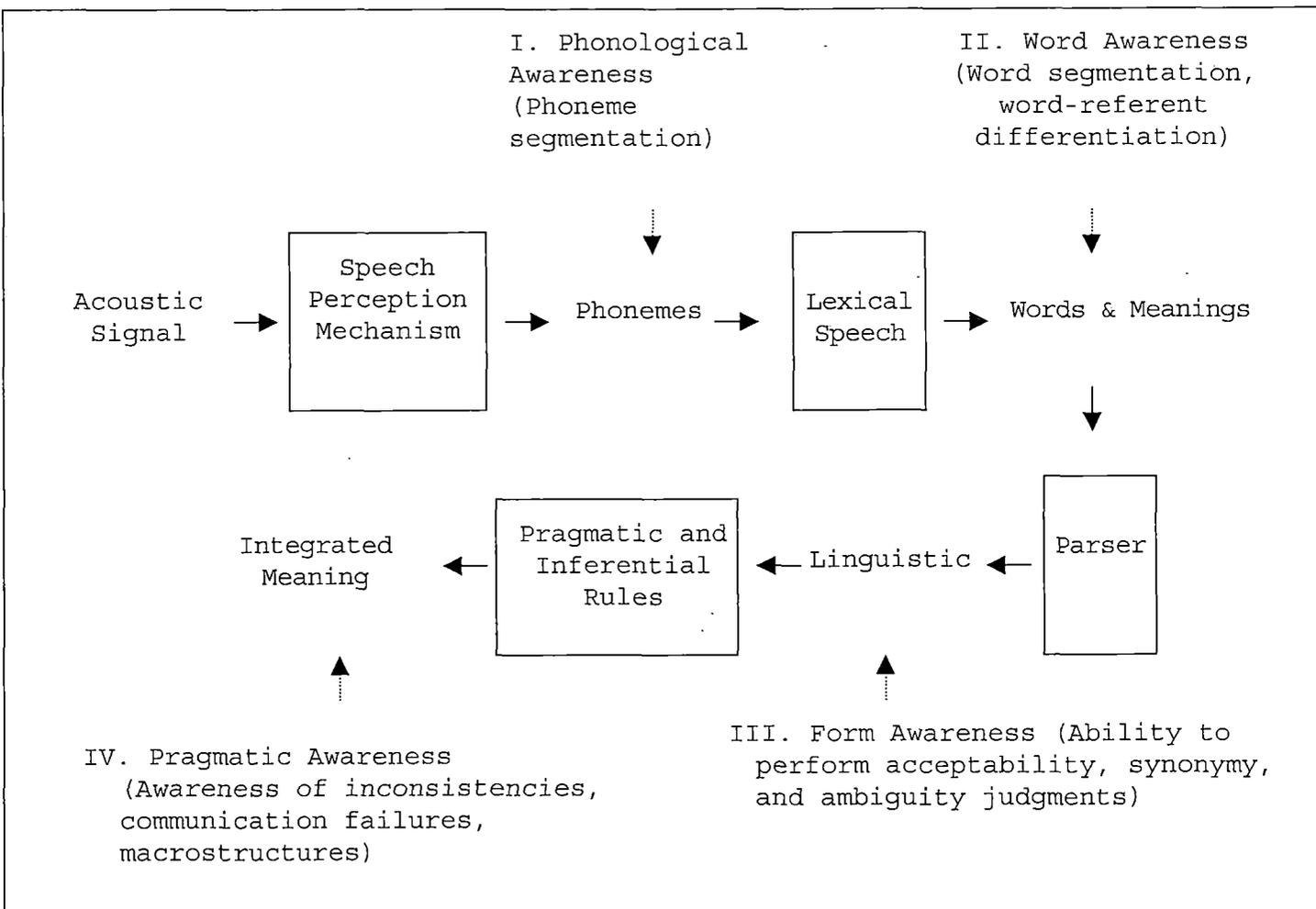
Emerging metalinguistic abilities include detection of structural and lexical ambiguities, appreciation of linguistic jokes, segmentation of words into phonemes and sentences into words, separation of words from their referents, judgment of the semantic and grammatical well-formedness of word strings, detection of inconsistencies and communication failures, and so on (Tunmer, Pratt, & Herriman, 1984). The ways that metalinguistic abilities are developed can be divided into two processes. Tunmer and Bowey (1984) claimed these as follows:

Automatic processes are to be contrasted with "control" or "executive" processes, which entail an element of choice in whether or not the operations are performed, as well as relative slowness and deliberateness in the application of such operations. Control processing characterizes the kind of linguistic functioning associated with metalinguistic abilities, since the latter involve deliberately reflecting on the structural features of language per se by means of a conscious analytic ability. (p. 149)

The phrase "structural features" refers to the notion that a word is built up from phonemes, and a sentence is built up from words.

The relationship between language processing and metalinguistic abilities can be expressed in terms of a psychological model of sentence comprehension, which is outlined in Figure 2. This simplified model specifies a set of linear, independent processors, with the output of each becoming the input to the next. Although there is a high frequency of interaction among the different mechanisms, this would not be incompatible with the existence of the various "way-stations" depicted in Figure 2 that contain the outputs, or products of the mental mechanisms.

For present purposes, the model is useful in providing the basis for classifying the various manifestations of metalinguistic awareness. In four broad categories, phonological awareness and word awareness refer to the awareness of the subunits of spoken language. Form awareness refers to the structural representation of the literal, or linguistic, meaning associated with an utterance; and pragmatic awareness refers to the relationships that obtain among a set of propositions,



Source: Adapted from Tunmer & Browey (1984).
 Figure 2. Type of Metalinguistic Awareness Classified
 According to a Model of Sentence Comprehension

which includes the literal and intended meanings as members.

Bilingualism and Metalinguistic Awareness

Largely as a result of Leopold's (1961) and Vygotsky's (1962) early work, subsequent research on the relationship between bilingualism and metalinguistic awareness has concentrated on bilingual children's awareness of the arbitrary nature of language, as reflected in their ability to separate words from their meanings. Leopold (1961) stated that bilinguals developed an earlier separation of word sound from word meaning, because their performance indicated an awareness that a single referent can have more than one phonological realization. Furthermore, bilingual children process syntactic rules with "special flexibility" (Tunmer & Myhill, 1984, p. 181), which arises from their having two referent symbols for many objects, actions, and attributes, leading them to learn at a very age that words are arbitrary, rather than intrinsic labels of objects. Tunmer and Myhill (1984) also pointed out that bilinguals reported more verbal transformations (especially in their early age) than monolinguals, which could be taken to indicate that bilinguals had developed a more skilled speech perception mechanism to cope with the demands of interpreting two

language systems. These results may not show bilingualism necessarily proves advantageous in all areas of language functioning; however, it does appear to be helpful in the more advanced language skills which require flexibility and the separation of the referent from its label.

Unlike monolinguals, the bilingual children engaged in what Lambert and Tucker (1972) called "incipient contrastive linguistics," a process which they described as one of "comparing and contrasting two linguistic systems" (p. 207). The most interesting observation from Lambert and Tucker's study showed that the bilingual children proceeded to make an analysis of the words and structure of each language. For example, they seemed to realize that "Bonjour" could be broken down into "bon" and "jour", which take on similar functions as "good" and "day." This process of comparison became more systematic as the children then began to notice difference in word order, gender, and so on in each language. Moreover, as Leopold (1961) claimed, the bilingual children showed a great interest in this process of comparison, which seemed to help them to their linguistic development by providing intrinsic motivation.

Briefly speaking, becoming bilingual by whatever means can be viewed as a way of developing the child's

metalinguistic awareness with consequent beneficial effects on the students' performance in both languages. Students who are good at two or more languages have advantageous effects; their metalinguistic awareness acts as a positive motivator to help them attain academic achievement.

Summary

The issues addressed in this section are drawn from the literature on the topic of metalinguistic awareness from the last three decades. By distinguishing between metalinguistic and metalanguage, and getting the idea of preliminary definitions of metalinguistic awareness, teachers who are interested in applying metalinguistic awareness in their ESL/EFL classes can attain a clearer concept in order to make full use of it. Furthermore, language teachers can get a concrete idea of when is the crucial time to develop students' metalinguistic awareness, and have a clearer idea of how this awareness might be developed.

Moreover, research suggests that bilingualism can produce positive effects on cognitive growth. Therefore, it is believed by language educators that greater support should be given to implementing bilingual education programs, so students who are in EFL settings can maintain

their first language and enable them to enjoy the potential benefits of bilingualism, as well as facilitate their learning of the second language. In the longterm, prospect, bilingualism will increase students' metalinguistic ability, reading achievement, and subsequent academic progress.

Using Think-Aloud Procedures to Assess Language Awareness

Introduction

Education in the past decades has featured growing interest in the crosslingual use of reading strategies. Research in this area has relied on the use of the think-aloud technique, in which readers verbalize their thought processes while reading a text (Wade, 1990). Developed by Newell and Simon (1972), the think-aloud procedure was first used as a research tool to study cognitive problem-solving activities in experimental psychology. It has also been used in descriptive research on the writing process (Afflerbach, Bass, Hoo, Smith, Weiss, & Williams, 1988), the reading process, and reading strategies (Fehrenbach, 1991).

In addition to use as a research tool, think-alouds have moved from the realm of data collection into instruction (Fawcett, 1993). Think-aloud has been used as

an instructional tool for teaching problem-solving strategies (Hayes, 1981), composition (Scardamalia, Bereiter, & Steinbach, 1984), and reading (Palinscar & Brown, 1984).

Recent research in comprehension and metacognition suggests that reading is a complex process that involves reasoning and problem solving. To this end, process-oriented measures can provide valuable information about learners' thought process (Valencia & Pearson, 1987; Wittrock, 1987).

Process-oriented descriptions are usually obtained through two types of verbal reports: (a) retrospective, obtained after the reading task is completed; or (b) introspective reports and think-alouds, obtained during reading (Block, 1986). Unlike retrospective reports, introspective reports provide a more direct view of the reading process, and have the advantage of allowing the teacher and the researcher to learn about some of "what is actually going on in a learner's mind" (Block, 1986, p. 464). Thinking aloud differs from other forms of introspective report because readers report their thoughts and behaviors without theorizing about these behaviors (Block, 1986).

On this point, researchers addressing metalinguistic awareness happen to agree completely. Tunmer and Herriman (1984) concluded that "metalinguistic awareness refers to awareness of the instantiations of these [linguistic] terms, but not to knowledge of the terms themselves" (p. 12). Think-aloud protocols provide a direct view of a reader's mental activity, "a kind of window into those processes which are usually hidden" (Block, 1986, p. 464); therefore, think-aloud is a useful method to be used by teachers or researchers to assess students' metalinguistic awareness in an ESL/EFL class.

This section reviews the literature about think-aloud in the field of research as a tool for data collection, as well as its use in instruction. The next section will discuss theoretical underpinnings of think-aloud, and its use as specific methodology to increase language awareness both of the word, the phrase, and language beyond the phrase level. Lastly, three levels of language awareness will be introduced.

Theoretical Underpinnings of Think-Aloud

Theorists (e.g., Cummins, 1981) hypothesized that bilingual students are able to transfer knowledge from their L1 to a second language when they become proficient in that language (Gersten, 1996). Krashen (2002) included

reading in this equation, stating that "once you can read in one language, this knowledge transfers rapidly to any other language you learn to read. Once you can read, you can read" (2002, p. 5). Jiménez, García, and Pearson (1996) used think-alouds in an attempt to evoke cognitive and metacognitive strategies from their bilingual participants.

One of the most important events in the development and refinement of protocol analysis was the publication of Ericsson and Simon's Protocol Analysis: Verbal Reports as Data in 1984 (revised in 1993). This volume included a definitive review of the evidence that validated the use of thinking aloud on the basis of information-processing theory. Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) stated that Ericsson and Simon's work became the standard reference on think-aloud methodology. One of the most impressive parts of their book is they delineated and described introspective, concurrent, and retrospective think-alouds.

Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) commented that the careful description of shared characteristics (e.g., all verbal reports are given by subjects related to performing particular tasks) and the important differences (e.g., concurrent reports are given on-line whereas retrospective reports are not) allowed Ericsson and Simon to respond to

critics of verbal self-reports who disparaged the methodology as subjective and inaccurate.

In this section, the standard reference on think-aloud methodology, Ericsson and Simon's Protocol Analysis: Verbal Reports as Data is introduced. By reviewing this book, teachers who want to apply think-aloud to their classes can attain a clearer idea of information-processing theory and focus on two constructs in that theory of special importance: long-term memory and short-term memory.

Think-Aloud as Specific Methodology

When teachers attempt to apply think-aloud as specific methodology to their students to evaluate their awareness of language, they have to learn how to collect and manage students' self-reports. Understanding Ericsson and Simon's viewpoint with respect to methodology definitely provides a perspective on what defines a more or less adequate verbal report of a student's cognitive processing and response. Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) adapted and conducted Ericsson and Simon's (1984/1993) conclusions about how self-reports should be collected. They are categorized in Table 3.

Table 3. How to Collect Self-Reports

<u>Component</u>	<u>Definition</u>
Focus	Think-aloud data should reflect exactly what is being thought about.
Automatization	As students learn new procedures and become facile with the procedures, their processing becomes progressively automatized.
Type of content	Some types of information are more likely to be represented in protocols than other types.
Generalization of description	Asking subjects to provide a generalized description of their processing across trails is particularly problematic.
Training	The directions given to think-aloud subjects and the testing situation should be such as to discourage participants from providing descriptions or explanations of their processing.
Specificity of training	Directions to think-aloud can be rather open ended, or they can direct participants to report a specific type of information that they have in working memory.
Individual differences in thinking	There are also individual differences in thinking, because of individual learning experiences.
Codability	An important concern with any dependent variable is that it be reliably codable.
Understanding of task	An important part of demonstrating that a researcher understands the processing that occurs in a particular task situation is for the researcher to be able to predict what students will self-report as they attempt a task.

Source: Adapted from Pressley and Afflerbach (1995).

Ericsson and Simon (1984/1993) reflected that there is great diversity in the directions used to elicit think-alouds, including frequent use of directions inconsistent with their own recommendations. They were quite explicit that self-reports collected with such directions often would not attain the quality of processing that would occur naturally in the absence of such think-aloud instructions.

This section gives teachers clear directions of how to make good use of think-aloud to collect students' self-reports. After these reports are collected, teachers need to evaluate the information and adjust their teaching content and strategies to guide students by using think-aloud procedures to address learning problems. The process of collecting students' think-aloud self-reports can effectively inspire language awareness in students. If students become familiar with think-aloud procedures, their language awareness will process relatively automatically. When think-aloud data reflect exactly what students think about, teachers can assess students' language awareness more easily and figure out a better strategy to meet each student's need.

Achieving Metalinguistic Awareness

Language Awareness of the Word or Phrase Level. An important aspect of linguistic awareness is achieving lexical meaning. When a student encounters an unknown word or phrase, it does not necessarily result in efforts after meaning. If a student believes the word or phrase is not essential to determining meaning, he or she can elect to skip the word. Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) pointed out that "If initial attempts to determine the meaning of an unknown word/phrase fail to yield a reasonable candidate meaning, readers sometimes skip a problematic word" (p. 70). However, if the word or phrase seems important, Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) suggested "the reader can consciously attend to the word/phrase more, ponder its meaning in light of context clues, or reflect on its potential meaning by attempting to relate the word/phrase to the currently hypothesized macrostructure" (p. 70).

The following are the steps that suggested by Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) for both teachers and students who want to develop or assess language awareness on the level of word or phrase by think-aloud protocols:

1. Evaluating the importance of an unknown word or phrase to the overall meaning of the text before

deciding whether to expend effort to determine the unknown word or phrase's meaning

2. Paying greater attention to the unknown word or phrase
3. Using context clues to interpret a word or phrase, such as backtracking
4. Generating a candidate meaning for unknown word/phrase, with subsequent evaluation of the reasonableness of the sentence containing the word/phrase with that meaning inserted
5. Generating hypotheses about the confusing word (or concept)/phrase followed by attempts to determine the adequacy of the hypothesis through additional reading beyond the sentence containing the word/phrase
6. Forgetting about the word and continuing to read
7. Using a dictionary. (p. 69-70)

Language Awareness beyond the Word or Phrase Level.

Good readers are effective planners, with those plans informed by their personal reading goals, which in turn affect their monitoring as they read (Bereiter & Bird, 1985). Thus the personal reading goals reflect awareness in deciding what to look for in a text. However, there are potential difficulties in understanding text, and most

readers are frustrated by contradictions between what they believe the text means and new information in the text inconsistent with the hypothesized overall meaning. Such contradiction produces a number of reactions, "from simply continuing to read, confident that it will all become clear later, to abandoning the current overall interpretation in pursuit of one that would be consistent with all of the information encountered in the text thus far" (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995, p. 73). These reactions depend on both reader and text factors. Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) claimed that text factors play a role in that if the reader perceives that the problem is simply poor writing, there is little incentive for the reader to attempt to figure out the meaning of the text.

The following are the alternatives in text comprehension that Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) suggested for both teachers and students who want to develop or assess language awareness beyond the level of word or phrase by think-aloud protocols:

1. Although aware of the comprehension difficulty, the student may do nothing:
 - If the reader feels this part of text is not important to understand,

- If reader feels ambiguity/lack of clarity is due to his or her own effort or ability, or
 - If reader feels ambiguity/lack of clarity is due to author failure.
2. Once aware of a comprehension difficulty, a reader may do one of the following:
- State the failure to understand,
 - Read slowly and carefully,
 - Suspend judgment about the meaning,
 - Pause from reading to scan the text to find the source of difficulty,
 - Carefully analyze information presented in text thus far,
 - Read the last section,
 - Formulate a question that captures the perplexity to make clear what information to look for in subsequent text,
 - Look ahead to see if there is information later in text that might resolve the comprehension difficulty, or

- Re-attend to parts of the text most likely to be understood reliably because reader's prior knowledge is well developed with respect to information in these sections.
3. Once several potential interpretations of text are recognized, interpretations that obviously are not consistent with one another, the reader may respond in one of the following ways:
- Carefully analyze the text to decide between these alternatives and subsequently rejecting some of them;
 - Construct inferences to account for the perceived discrepancies in meaning in the text;
 - Recognize that the theme that is currently confusing cannot be reconciled with other interpretations made thus far and thus bring in new information based on prior knowledge in an attempt to resolve difficulty in understanding;

- Attempt to formulate a new macroproduction about this text is about, one consistent with all the information presented in the text thus far as understood by the reader.
4. If a part of text cannot be understood completely, the reader may shift focus to other parts of the text, or to question that have not been considered but also need to be resolved.
 5. If a text cannot be understood, the reader may attempt to think of an analogy that would make the meaning clear,
 6. If a reading-related goal is determined to be unattainable, the reader may adjust the goal.
 7. The reader may look up some of the references cited in the write-up (i.e., source documents), or at least look to the reference list to find out what work informed the current writing; or seek other information from other sources.
 8. The reader may read on without figuring out an interpretation when a convincing

interpretation cannot be discerned from the text.

9. The reader may distort some of the information in the text in order to construct an interpretation that is consistent with a tentative hypothesis.
10. Distraction
 - The reader may think about things other than reading, or
 - Fall asleep either mentally or actually.
11. The reader may simply give up on understanding the text and quit reading.
(p. 71-73)

Three Levels of Language Awareness

Language awareness in Leow's (2000) study was generally based on Tomlin and Villa's (1994) definition, together with Carr and Curran's (1994) and Allport's (1988) criteria for the presence of awareness to measure whether learners demonstrated awareness by online data (data gathered concurrently while learners were interacting with the L2). This is Leow's (2000) definition of language awareness.

1. A show of some behavioral or cognitive change due to the experience of some cognitive content or external stimulus,
2. A report of being aware of meta-awareness, or
3. Some form of metalinguistic description of the underlying rule. (Adapted from Leow, 2000, p. 560)

From the analysis of the think-aloud protocols, Leow (1997) identified three levels of awareness:

1. Participants did not provide a report of their subjective experience or verbalize any rule ([+] cognitive change, [-] meta-awareness, [-] morphological rule formation)
2. Participants did report their subjective experience but did not provide any verbalization of the rule ([+] cognitive change, [+] meta-awareness, [-] morphological rule formation)
3. Participants provide both a report and a verbalization of rule formation ([+] cognitive change, [+] meta-awareness, [+] morphological rule formation). (p. 560)

Leow's (1997) findings included the following conclusions. First, meta-awareness appeared to correlate with an increased usage of hypothesis testing and morphological rule formation (conceptually driven processing), whereas absence of meta-awareness appeared to correlate with an absence of such processing. Second, learners demonstrating a higher level of language awareness performed significantly better than those with a lower level of language awareness on both the recognition and written production of the targeted forms. So if teachers can make good use of think-aloud procedures, students can be enhanced to a higher level of language awareness and have a better performance in learning language.

Summary

In a think-aloud, students are asked to give verbal self-reports, which can include the retelling of a story or the description of thinking processes during reading or writing. Sometimes referred to as "read alouds," or "talk throughs," they are often utilized with elementary and middle school students to assess reading comprehension (Gillet & Temple, 1994). Think-aloud protocols have been shown to have merit: "The teacher who listens to a student thinks aloud while reading gains insights not available

from traditional reading lessons" (Barnett, 1989, p. 157). Students aware of what they are doing and what they can understand through the process of think-aloud can teach themselves. Furthermore, they can also develop a language awareness of their own personal learning processes, which helps them improve listening skills, foster positive attitudes, encourage imagination, and develop reading maturity.

Summary

This chapter has presented a literature review of key concepts that provide the basis for this project. The next chapter proposes a theoretical framework that unites and explains the five concepts in Chapter Two.

CHAPTER THREE

THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Introduction

In the review of related literature in Chapter Two, several key linguistic, cognitive, and pedagogical concepts have been presented. These five key topics consist of peer response in L2 writing, communicative language teaching (CLT), non-native English speaking teachers (NNEST) in TESOL, metalinguistic awareness, and using think-aloud procedures to assess language awareness. These five fundamental concepts can be synthesized into a teaching model. The model illustrates how these five concepts can not only be applied individually, but also synthetically. The goal of this theoretical model is to develop language learners' metalinguistic awareness through peer response in writing. In this chapter a theoretical model (Figure 3) is presented that combines these five concepts and delineates their mutual relationship.

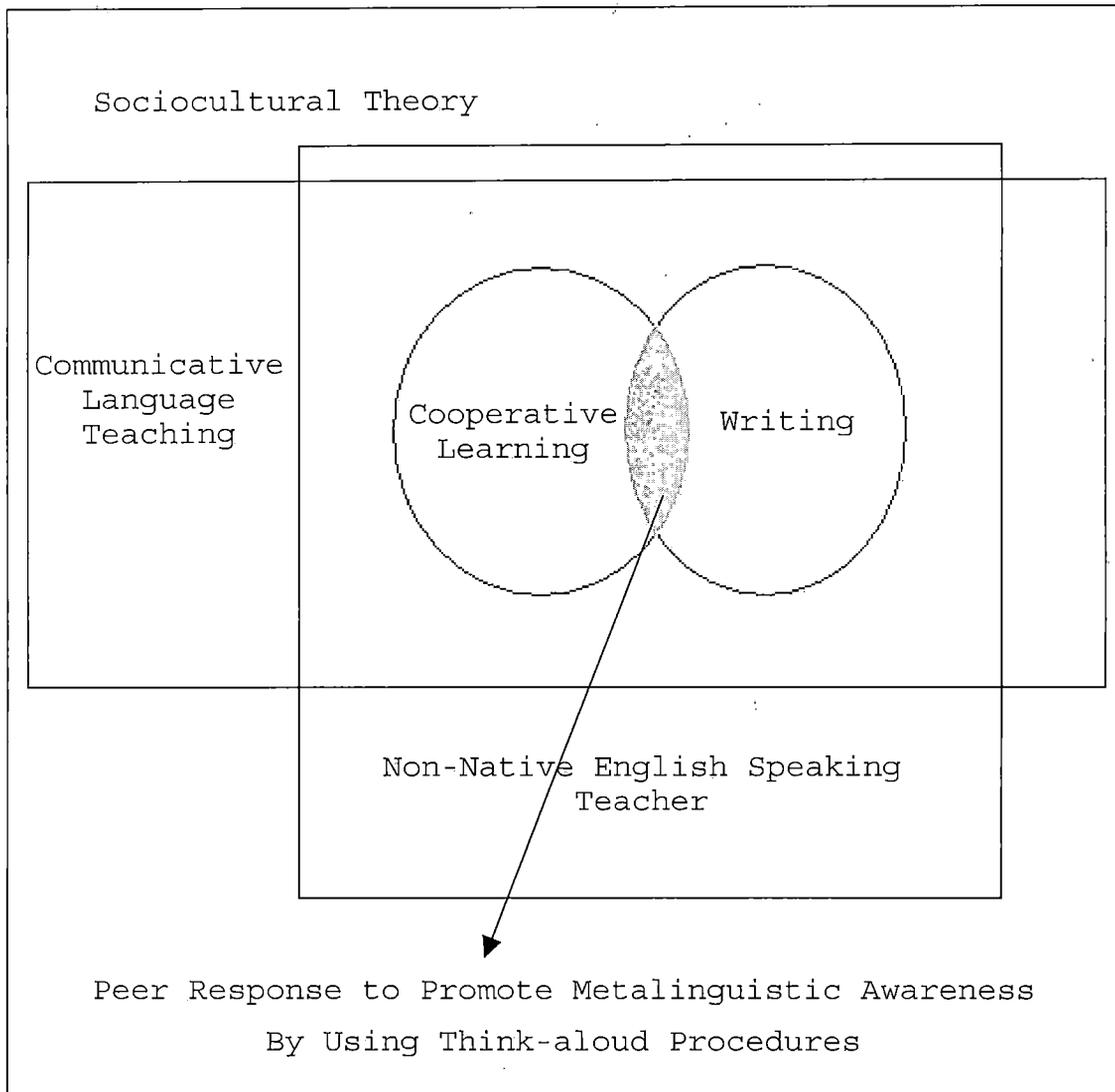


Figure 3. Theoretical Framework

The Interrelationship between Socio-Cultural Theory and Non-Native-English-Speaking Teachers in English-as-a-Foreign-Language Learning

The substructure that supports language learning in the theoretical model of this project is sociocultural theory. Current conceptualizations of sociocultural theory draw heavily on the work of Vygotsky (1986), as well as

later theoreticians, such as Wertsch (1991). Tharp and Gallimore (1988) pointed out that "This view [the sociocultural perspective] has profound implications for teaching, schooling, and education" (p. 6). Therefore, the main idea behind sociocultural theory is that knowledge is socially constructed and language learning is developed out of social interactions.

Moreover, Adamson and Chance (1998) claimed that "...there are two particularly noteworthy aspects to a Vygotskian approach to social interactions. First, it is fundamentally cultural" (p. 21). This implies that culture effects a child's learning process profoundly. In EFL classrooms, non-native-English-speaking-teachers (NNESTs) can provide abundant cultural teaching materials and resources to students. By integrating culture and foreign language learning, the content objective becomes more authentic, and students are more likely to accept the language that they are not familiar with. This therefore is the reason why NNESTs play such an important role in language teaching within sociocultural theory.

The Interrelationship between Sociocultural
Theory and Communicative Language Teaching
in English-as-a-Foreign-Language Learning

Based on Vygotsky's theory of sociocultural learning,
Tharp and Gallimore (1988) pointed out,

Vygotsky argues that a child's development
cannot be understood by a study of the
individual. We must also examine the external
social world in which that individual life has
developed. Through participation in activities
that require cognitive and communicative
functions; children are drawn into the use of
these functions in ways that nurture and
"scaffold" them. (p. 7)

Kublin, Wetherby, Crais, and Prizant (1989) also
stated that "Vygotsky described learning as being embedded
within social events and occurring as a child interacts
with people, objects, and events in the environment"
(p. 287). Language is a communication tool; without this
function, it becomes meaningless. Therefore, the most
natural way to acquire a language is through communication
and interaction with people. To meet this end,
communicative language learning (CLT) serves as a
qualified teaching method that help a student to acquire a
language in the way of interacting with classmates and

teachers. It is the reason that explains why sociocultural theory is the foundation for CLT in the model presented in Figure 1.

The Core of the Theoretical Model

Figure 1 shows clearly that cooperative learning and writing are situated in the overlapped part of sociocultural theory and NNEST. This represents the core concept of this model. Both cooperative learning and writing play important roles in language learning, and they can be applied to the language-learning environment within the context of CLT and sociocultural theory.

The overlapped part of cooperative learning and writing is the subject of this model: peer response to promote metalinguistic awareness by using think-aloud procedures. According to the literature review of Chapter Two, think-aloud procedures can effectively raise students' metalinguistic awareness. Think-aloud procedures provide a direct view of a reader's mental activity; therefore, the learner's awareness toward a certain language can be clearly displayed.

Furthermore, a practicable way to apply peer response to metalinguistic awareness is for teachers to make a checklist as a peer-response worksheet, and pair up

students; and then ask them check each other's writing to see if the partner meets the language awareness on the list. By doing so, students not only heighten their metalinguistic awareness through peer response, but also have another chance to read using think-aloud procedures.

Summary

It is the educators' responsibility to understand thoroughly how the process of design works. By doing so, he or she can develop improved teaching methods based on a practicable models for the benefit of students.

This chapter provides a theoretical framework to explain how the five key concepts connect and interact with each other. This theoretical model provides EFL teachers a clear framework for promoting students' metalinguistic awareness through peer response in writing.

CHAPTER FOUR

CURRICULUM DESIGN

Introduction

The curriculum is designed based on the review of literature in Chapter Two and the theoretical model in Chapter Three. The unit plan is designed for fourth-grade intermediate Taiwanese EFL students to promote their metalinguistic awareness through peer response in writing. All content is related to Taiwan, such as Taiwanese culture, cuisine, and festivals. Because lessons are designed for EFL students in Taiwan, all classes are taught by Taiwanese English teachers (NNESTS). This will not be mentioned specifically in the following sections.

Sequence of the Unit Plan

In Taiwanese elementary schools, each class is fifty minutes; therefore, the time frame of every lesson plan in this project is designed for fifty-minute instruction. Every lesson involves three objectives: a content objective, a language objective, and a learning-strategy objective. Each objective corresponds to one task chain. The content objective shows the topic of the lesson; the language objective focuses on language skills that

students will develop; the learning-strategy objective implies the teaching of a cognitive skill.

Furthermore, warm-up sheets, focus sheets, work sheets, and assessment sheets are included in the unit plan. The warm-up sheet serves as a trigger or ice breaker that raises students' interest at the beginning of the class. The topic texts are printed on the focus sheets; they will be passed out before the instructor teaches students how to use think-aloud procedures to read. Work sheets are used for composition, group work, or as a peer-response checklist. Students are required to accomplish tasks on work sheets by themselves or working with their partners. At the end of the class, assessment sheets are used to evaluate what students have learned from the lesson.

Content of the Unit Plan

The curriculum contains five lessons. In all the lessons, students are asked to apply think-aloud procedures to read topic texts. Except Lesson One, every lesson develops one kind of metalinguistic awareness, and all activities are learner-centered and based on group learning and CLT. Lesson Four contains a peer-response checklist, which is used for students to heighten

metalinguistic awareness in L2 writing. Five key concepts of this project are interwoven in these five lesson plans (see Table 4).

In Lesson One, the content objective is to have students use think-aloud procedures to read Focus Sheet 1-2: The Location, Climate, and Population of Taiwan. For the language objective, through communicative language teaching, students will be able to study together and learn from each other about speaking in English. As for the learning-strategy objective, through communicative language teaching, students will develop think-aloud skills. The key concepts applied in this lesson involve CLT and think-aloud procedures.

Table 4. Interrelationship between Key Concepts and Lesson Plans

Key Concepts	Lesson One	Lesson Two	Lesson Three	Lesson Four	Lesson Five
Communicative language teaching	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Non-native-English-speaking teachers	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Peer response in writing				✓	
Metalinguistic awareness		✓	✓	✓	✓
Think-aloud procedures	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

In Lesson Two, the content objective is to have students use think-aloud strategies to read Focus Sheet 2-2: Recreation in Taiwan. For the language objective, through communicative language teaching, students will study together and discuss questions on Work Sheet 2-3. As for the learning-strategy objective, students will raise print awareness by dealing with the problems in Work Sheet 2-4. The key concepts applied in this lesson involve CLT, metalinguistic awareness, and think-aloud procedures.

The content objective of Lesson Three is that students will utilize think-aloud procedures to read Focus Sheet 3-2: Taiwanese Cuisine. The language objective is that students will be able to use graphic organizers in CLT to enhance their listening and speaking skills. The learning-strategy objective is to develop students' word awareness. Students will be encouraged to think about how words are different between Mandarin and English. The key concepts applied to this lesson involve CLT, metalinguistic awareness, and think-aloud procedures.

In Lesson Four, the content objective is that students are requested to use think-aloud procedures to read Focus Sheet 4-2: Taiwanese Culture. The language objective is that students will be able to use Work Sheet 4-4, a checklist, to evaluate each other's Work Sheet 4-3,

and promote metalinguistic awareness through peer response. The learning-strategy objective is to develop students' sentence awareness by having them think about the differences and similarities between Mandarin sentences and English sentences. The key concepts applied to this lesson involve CLT, peer response, metalinguistic awareness, and think-aloud procedures.

The content objective of Lesson Five is that students will strengthen reading ability by using think-aloud procedures to read Focus Sheet 5-2: Festivals in Taiwan. The language objective is that students will help each other practice reading. The learning-strategy objective is to develop students' phrase awareness. The key concepts applied to this lesson involve CLT, metalinguistic awareness, and think-aloud procedures.

Summary

This chapter has elucidated the purpose of the curriculum design, the sequence of the unit, and the contents of the five lessons. In the next chapter, the assessment of the unit will be discussed.

CHAPTER FIVE

UNIT ASSESSMENT PLAN

Introduction

Because of the rapid change of time and technology, and the research results of educators, the types of assessment change as well. From traditional paper-based assessment to modern oral (communication) based, performance-based, and computer-based assessment, there are various types of assessment. However, no matter how many types of assessment there are, there is only one rationale and one goal: to evaluate students' learning achievements and provide feedback to both teacher and student. According to the feedback, not only can teachers adjust their instruction content and methods, but also students can introspect about their learning effectiveness and identify to which part of the lesson they should pay more attention.

Formative and summative assessment, teacher observation, and peer-response checklists are used in this project to evaluate students' performance. Each of them will be introduced on the following sections.

Types of Assessment in the Instructional Unit

Formative Assessment

Each instructional plan contains three formative assessments and one summative assessment. The function of formative assessment is to evaluate students' performance in each task of the lesson. There are three task chains in each lesson, and formative assessment plays the role of monitor to provide students helpful feedback during the process of each task chain.

For example, the formative assessment of the first task chain in Lesson One is to meet the content goal, that all students learn the location, climate, and population of Taiwan. When the teacher introduces how to use think-aloud procedures to read Focus Sheet 1-2, he or she should make sure at the same time that students are familiar with the strategies of using think-aloud as a reading tool to help themselves solve reading problems and enhance their reading ability.

To sum up, during formative assessment, teachers need to teach the lesson, discover students' learning problems, and give them immediate help, rather than dealing with their problems after class.

Summative Assessment

The purpose of summative assessment is to examine what students have learned as a whole at the end of the class. Take summative assessment of Lesson Three as an example. It tests students' knowledge of Taiwanese cuisine by applying a T-chart to compare food culture between Taiwan and Mainland China; moreover, it also tests students' word awareness by asking them to state what words are different between Mandarin and English, and how prefixes and morphemes work in English words.

One obvious difference between summative assessment and formative assessment is that summative assessment provides grades and rubrics for teachers, students, and parents' reference. Compare with the Western grading system (A, B, C...), the hundred-point system is the most pervasive grading system in Taiwan, in which 90-100 stands for "excellent," 80-90 stands for "good," 70-80 means a student needs improvement, and 60-70 means there is a need to study harder. Grades below 60 means the student does not meet the minimum benchmark and requires the teacher to give extra encouragement and pay more individual attention to that students' learning situation.

Teacher Observation

Teacher observation is applied to five lesson plans of this project. It is important for a teacher to walk around the classroom to observe students' performance and involvement when students are in groups for discussion. By teacher observation, not only can the teacher give students help immediately, but also signify that students have to talk in the target language (English) through the whole activity. It is particularly crucial in the EFL setting, because students tend to speak in their primary language, and thus students lose their opportunity to practice communicating in English.

Using a Peer-Response Checklist

In Lesson Four, Work Sheet 4-4 serves as a peer-response checklist. The purpose of this work sheet is to give students a chance to learn how to give their classmates reflection on writing. In this activity, the teacher pairs students off, and asks them make good use of Work Sheet 4-4 to assess Work Sheet 4-3. Students check through the list to see if their partner meets all requirements. By performing this activity, students' metalinguistic awareness is promoted through peer response.

Summary

All assessments share the same goal, which is to help students figure out their weakness, and provide teachers feedback to adjust their teaching strategies. Assessment is designed to help students to evaluate themselves and achieve academic success.

Conclusion

This project proposes instruction that integrates peer response in L2 writing, communicative language teaching, non-native-English-speaking teachers in TESOL, metalinguistic awareness, and use of think-aloud procedures to assess language awareness. It is hoped that this project can serve as an inspiration and resource for English teachers to promote their students' metalinguistic awareness through peer response in writing in elementary English as foreign language, and help them achieve greater academic success in learning English.

APPENDIX
INSTRUCTIONAL PLAN--USING PEER RESPONSE
TO PROMOTE METALINGUISTIC AWARENESS

List of Instruction Plans

Instructional Plan One: About Taiwan105
Instructional Plan Two: Recreation in Taiwan116
Instructional Plan Three: Taiwanese Cuisine127
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Instructional Plan Five: Festivals in Taiwan150

Instructional Plan One About Taiwan

Teaching Level: Intermediate, 4th grade EFL students

Time Frame: 50 minutes

Objectives:

Content Goal: Students will learn about the location, climate, and population of Taiwan

Language Goal: Through communicative language teaching, students will be able to study together and learn from each other about speaking in English

Learning-Strategy Goal: Students will develop think-aloud skill

TESOL Standards:

Goal 1: To use English to communicate in social settings

Standard 2: Students will interact in, through, and with spoken and written English for personal expression and enjoyment

Materials:

Warm-up Sheet 1-1: What Does This Map Stand For?

Focus Sheet 1-2: The Location, Climate, and Population of Taiwan

Focus Sheet 1-3: Brief History of Taiwan

Work Sheet 1-4: Think-aloud Strategies

Assessment Sheet 1-5: The Location, Climate, and Population of Taiwan

Warm-up:

The instructor hands out Warm-up Sheet 1-1 and requests students to divide into groups of three. The instructor asks each group to discuss and think about what the map stands for. After five minutes, the instructor leads students to discuss what they know about Taiwan. During the discussion, the instructor can encourage students to express their idea actively.

Task Chain I: The Location, Climate and Population of Taiwan

1. The instructor passes out Focus Sheet 1-2 and asks students to skip through it to see if there are any words that they are not familiar with.

2. The instructor asks students to take turns reading the article.
3. After reading, the instructor asks students, "Do you have any question about this article?" Then the instructor helps them solve problems.
4. The instructor takes the lead of introducing the location, climate, and population of Taiwan and helps students to learn more about it.

Task Chain II: Using CLT to Teach Taiwanese History

1. The instructor pairs students off and passes out Focus Sheet 1-3.
2. The instructor asks students to discuss the topic of Taiwan history with each other according to the content of Focus Sheet 1-3.
3. The instructor walks around among groups to make sure students talk in English extensively.
4. After five minutes, the instructor encourages students to present their opinions individually.
5. The instructor leads the discussion and comes to a conclusion.

Task Chain III: Using Think-aloud Procedures to Read

1. The instructor pairs students off and passes out Work Sheet 1-4.
2. The instructor introduces how to use think-aloud strategies to read and understand an article.
3. The instructor asks each group to use think-aloud procedures to read Focus Sheet 1-3.
4. While one group member applies think-aloud procedures to read, the instructor asks the other students to use Work Sheet 1-4 to check if his/her partner makes good use of all strategies.
5. After students finish reading, the instructor asks students, "Are you facing any problem when using think-aloud procedures to read?" Then the instructor helps them solve problems.

Final Assessment:

Formative:

The instructor should always pay attention to students' performance during lecturing, and help and encourage them immediately. During Task Chain I, the instructor has to make sure each student understands the content of the article and enjoys learning all the things about Taiwan. During Task Chain II, the instructor walks around among groups to see if all

students discuss Focus Sheet 1-3 in English. During Task Chain III, the instructor checks students' Work Sheet 1-4, and makes sure they know how to make good use of it.

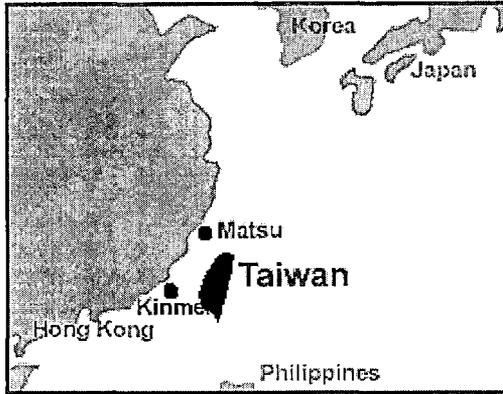
Summative:

At the end of the lesson, the instructor gives students Assessment Sheet 1-5 to evaluate their comprehension of the content. This assessment is to test students' reading ability and how many think-aloud strategies can they use.

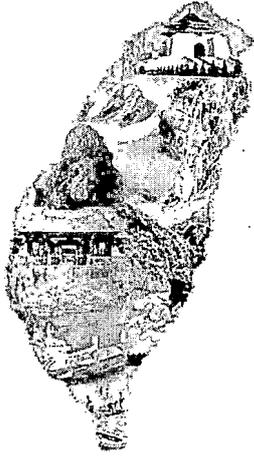
Scores	Representative
90-100	Excellent
80	Good job
70	Needs improvements
60	Needs much improvements

Warm-up Sheet 1-1
What Does This Map Stand For?

What is this map? What do the black areas stand for?
Please discuss this map with your group members and write
down your opinion.



Focus Sheet 1-2
The Location, Climate, and Population of Taiwan



Taiwan, a leaf-shaped island straddling the Tropic of Cancer, is a mere 160 km across the Taiwan Straits from Mainland China's Fujian Province.

Taiwan has been known to the West as "Formosa," a name derived by 16th Portuguese mariners who, on first sighting the island, named it "Ilha Formosa," "island beautiful."

Since the Nationalist Government moved to Taiwan in 1949 it has undertaken a vigorous program of reconstruction. During the decades that followed, Taiwan has developed into a major economic power of the Asia-Pacific region. Taiwan's success story continues as it is one of Asia's most developed countries and the world's 14th largest trading nation.

Location

Taiwan is located in the western Pacific Ocean 160 km (100 miles) off the southeastern coast of the Chinese mainland. Taiwan is a convenient gateway to Asia.

Taiwan is a mountainous island with a great range of terrain, from tropical beaches up to spectacular 3,952 meter peaks--second to the Himalayan Mountains in northeast Asia.

Taiwanese territory also incorporates many small offshore island chains.

Focus Sheet 1-2 (Con't.)
The Location, Climate, and Population of Taiwan



Climate

Taiwan's subtropical climate has generally warm, northern-hemisphere summers (June-September) and winters (November-March). Summers can be hot and wet, although rainfall is often limited to afternoon and evening storms. Winter temperatures are mild and the only snowfall is on the mountain peaks.

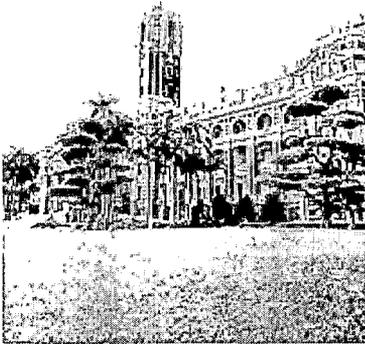
Population

Taiwan has a current population of just over 22 million. The most heavily populated city is Taipei with more than 2.7 million people. Other large cities are Kaohsiung with 1,435,000 residents, Taichung with 860,000, and Tainan with 708,000.

- Source: 1. http://www.taiwantourism.org/about_taiwan.html
2. http://www.taiwantourism.org/practical_information.html

Focus Sheet 1-3
Brief History of Taiwan

The history of Taiwan is one of endless change, and the continuous arrival of new cultures bringing new traditions, ideas and philosophies.



There has been human habitation on the island for the past 10,000 years. The earliest aboriginal tribes most likely originated from other parts of Asia, such as the Philippines. Taiwan has historically been on the periphery of the great Chinese Empire and in the 15th Century the first immigrants arrived from Fujian in China.

They were followed by a northern Chinese people called the Hakka, who had fled persecution in their home counties. These two groups were to spread and create a new Taiwanese society.

In 1517 Portuguese sailors landed and named the island "Formosa" meaning "Beautiful," followed by the Dutch, who invaded in force in 1624.

They retained a colony on Formosa until 1661 when they were expelled by the armies of Ming general Cheng Chengkung. The island became a Manchu territory in 1682, then a province of Fujian called "Taiwan," and in 1887, a Chinese province.

Following the Sino-Japanese War of 1894 Taiwan was claimed by the Japanese, who ruled with an iron fist for 50 years until their eventual defeat in the Second World War in 1945.

Focus Sheet 1-3 (Con't.)
Brief History of Taiwan

Taiwan was returned to Chinese control at the end of World War II and was occupied by the Kuomintang (KMT), the United Ruling Party of China. In 1949 the coming of communism saw a split between the KMT under the leadership of Chiang Kaishek and the new People's Republic of China.

Chiang Kaishek and the KMT moved to Taiwan with their own flag and constitution, creating modern Taiwan in the process.

Source: http://www.go2taiwan.net/taiwan.nsf/pages/history_AHAN-654N4N

Work Sheet 1-4
Think-aloud Strategies

There are seven useful think-aloud strategies that can help you improve your reading ability. Do your partner and you make good use of these strategies when applying think-aloud procedures to read?

✓	Think-aloud Strategies
	1. Evaluating the importance of an unknown word or phrase to the overall meaning of the text before deciding whether to try to determine the unknown word or phrase's meaning
	2. Paying greater attention to unknown words or phrases
	3. Using context clues to interpret a word or phrase, such as backtracking
	4. Generating a possible meaning for the unknown word/phrase, then trying the word or phrase in the sentence to see if it makes sense
	5. Guessing about confusing word (or concept)/phrase, then seeing if the guess works by additional reading beyond the sentence containing the word/phrase
	6. Forgetting about the word and continuing to read
	7. Using a dictionary

Assessment Sheet 1-5
The Location, Climate, and Population of Taiwan

I. How much do you know about Taiwan? (30 points)

1. Where is Taiwan located?

2. Please describe the climate in Taiwan.

3. How many people live in Taiwan?

II. Read the following paragraph to your teacher. Please pay attention to your pronunciation and fluency. (30 points)

Taiwan was returned to Chinese control at the end of World War II and was occupied by the Kuomintang (KMT), the United Ruling Party of China. In 1949 the coming of communism saw a split between the KMT under the leadership of Chiang Kaishek and the new People's Republic of China.

Chiang Kaishek and the KMT moved to Taiwan with their own flag and constitution, creating modern Taiwan in the process.

Rubrics	Points
Pronunciation (15 pt.)	
Fluency (15 pt.)	
Total Points	

Assessment Sheet 1-5 (Con't.)
The Location, Climate, and Population of Taiwan

III. Please use think-aloud procedures to read Focus Sheet 1-3 to your teacher. If you make good use of four out of the following seven think-aloud strategies, you can get full points of this section. (40 points)

✓	Think-aloud Strategies
	1. Evaluating the importance of an unknown word or phrase to the overall meaning of the text before deciding whether to try to determine the unknown word or phrase's meaning
	2. Paying greater attention to unknown words or phrases
	3. Using context clues to interpret a word or phrase, such as backtracking
	4. Generating a possible meaning for the unknown word/phrase, then trying the word or phrase in the sentence to see if it makes sense
	5. Guessing about confusing word (or concept)/phrase, then seeing if the guess works by additional reading beyond the sentence containing the word/phrase
	6. Forgetting about the word and continuing to read
	7. Using a dictionary

Instructional Plan Two
Recreation in Taiwan

Teaching Level: Intermediate, 4th grade EFL students

Time Frame: 50 minutes

Objectives:

Content Goal: Students will learn about the recreation resorts in Taiwan

Language Goal: Students will be able to communicate and discuss with each other (CLT)-speaking and writing

Learning-Strategy Goal: Students will develop print awareness

TESOL Standards:

Goal 1: To use English to communicate in social settings

Standard 3: Students will use learning strategies to extend their communicative competence

Materials:

Warm-up Sheet 2-1: How Much Do You Know about Recreation in Taiwan?

Focus Sheet 2-2: Recreation in Taiwan

Work Sheet 2-3: CLT

Work Sheet 2-4: Print Awareness

Assessment Sheet 2-5: Print Awareness and Recreation in Taiwan

Warm-up:

The instructor hands out Work Sheet 2-1 and requests students to divide into groups of three. The instructor asks each group to discuss the five questions on the sheet and write down their opinions. After five minutes, the instructor leads the discussion. During the discussion, the instructor can encourage students to think about what they like to do during leisure time.

Task Chain I: Recreation in Taiwan

1. The instructor passes out Focus Sheet 2-2.
2. The instructor reminds students how to use think-aloud procedures to enhance their reading and comprehension ability.
3. The instructor asks students read Focus Sheet 2-2 by think-aloud procedures.

4. After students finish reading, the instructor explains the whole article to students, and asks them if they have further questions.
5. The instructor asks students "Do you have any idea or experiences about recreation in Taiwan that are not included in this article?"
6. The instructor guides students to talk more and encourages them to express their opinions.

Task Chain II: Communicative Language Teaching

1. The instructor passes out Work Sheet 2-3 to students, and asks students divide into groups of three.
2. The instructor asks students to discuss the questions on Work Sheet 2-3 with their group members.
3. The instructor walks around each group and encourages students to express their opinions actively.
4. The instructor reminds students to help each other write down their conclusions on Work Sheet 2-3
5. The instructor invites some students to present their conclusions on the stage.
6. The instructor conducts the closing discussion.

Task Chain III: Print Awareness

1. The instructor hands out Work Sheet 2-4 and teaches students how to use this work sheet to develop their print awareness. The instructor also tells students the print differences between Mandarin and English.
2. The instructor asks students to work on Work Sheet 2-4 and find out what is the problem in each sentence.
3. After they finish writing, the instructor asks students to discuss their experiences with at least two neighboring classmates.
4. While discussing, the instructor walks around the classroom and makes sure all the students write correct answers.
5. After five minutes, the instructor listens to several students' opinions and conducts the closing discussion.

Final Assessment:

Formative:

The instructor should always pay attention to students' performance during lecturing, and help and encourage them immediately. During Task Chain I, the instructor has to make sure each student understands the content of the article and learns about the recreation resorts in Taiwan. During Task Chain II, the instructor walks around each group and checks if students express their opinions actively and help each other write down their conclusions. During Task Chain III, the instructor needs to pay attention to see if students get the idea of the print differences between Mandarin and English.

Summative:

At the end of the lesson, the instructor gives students Assessment Sheet 2-5 to evaluate their comprehension of the content. This assessment is to test how much students learned about the recreation resorts in Taiwan, and to check their print awareness.

Scores	Representative
90-100	Excellent
80	Good job
70	Needs improvements
60	Needs much improvements

Warm-up Sheet 2-1

How Much Do You Know about Recreation in Taiwan?

What do you know about recreation in Taiwan? Discuss with your teacher and your partners.

1. Have you been to any attraction in Taiwan before?

2. Which attraction in Taiwan do you like most?

3. What kind of recreation do you like most?

4. Do you like to go hiking? Why or why not?

5. Do you like to go swimming? Why or why not?

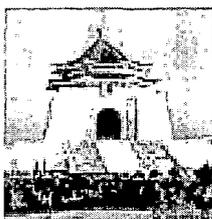
Focus Sheet 2-2 Recreation in Taiwan

Main Attractions

Though "Ilha Formosa," the beautiful island of Taiwan, is just 144 km wide and 395 km long, there are endless attractions to interest visitors from around the world.

The National Palace Museum. The National Palace Museum houses the world's largest collection of Chinese art and crafts. Spanning over China's nearly 5,000 year history and accumulated over a thousand years since the early Sung dynasty by Chinese emperors and royal families, the museum collection includes ceramics, porcelain, calligraphy, painting and ritual bronzes, jade, lacquer wares, curio cabinets, enamel wares, writing accessories, carvings, embroidery and rare books. The quality of its collections remains the best of the best in the field of Chinese art. Only the best items from the imperial collection are preserved in Taiwan. Even so, the treasure is still far too large to display completely at one time. While many popular pieces remain on permanent display, much of the collection is regularly rotated making each visit unique. The National Palace Museum is one of the most important museums and significant research institutions in the world. It is a "must-see" for foreign visitors.

Chiang Kai-shek Memorial Hall. The Chiang Kai-shek Memorial Hall, built in 1980, along with the Shin Kong Life Tower is one of the most prominent buildings in the Jungjeng District of Taipei. It is the island's most impressive monument to the great Chinese hero, the late President Chiang Kai-shek. The memorial hall's enormous marble edifice towers rise over landscaped gardens, graceful pavilions and placid ponds. A 25-ton bronze statue of the late president stands solemnly in the middle of the monument and looks out over the city from the main building. On the first floor is the Jungjeng Arts Gallery that not only displays documents of the Chinese revolution and war but also features, from time to time, exhibitions of cultural art. An elegant Ming-style arch at the main entrance is flanked by two classical-style buildings: the National Theater and the National Concert Hall. The square between the two buildings



Focus Sheet 2-2 (Con't. 1)
Recreation in Taiwan

is a popular gathering place on special festive days such as the Taipei Lantern Festival which is held at the end of the Chinese New Year season.

Yangmingshan National Park. YangMingShan National Park is located in the north of Taiwan north of Taipei City. The park covers a land area of approximately 11,456 hectares and includes the mountain regions of the PeiTou and ShihLin districts of Taipei Municipality as well as the TanShui, ShanChi, ShihMen, ChinShan and WanLi districts of Taipei County. The entire region is situated in the TaTun Volcanic Range at the northern edge of the island.

Sun Moon Lake. The beauty and peace of Sun Moon Lake's emerald waters amid jade mountains have made this scenic place Taiwan's most popular honeymoon resort. Attractions include a panoramic view of the lake from the massive Wen Wu Temple (dedicated to both Confucius and the God of War), the butterfly museum, a small aborigine village, other temples, boat cruises, hiking trails, a golf course and spectacular views from the Tzu En (Filial Devotion) Pagoda.

Source: <http://www.taiwantourism.org/attractions.html>

Focus Sheet 2-2 (Con't. 2)
Recreation in Taiwan



Shopping

Taiwan is an excellent shopping destination, with everything from ultra-modern shopping malls to traditional markets offering a wide array of goods.

Taiwan's ready access to Asia makes it an ideal place for the bargain hunter, with large scale shopping centers and malls for clothing, electronic goods, cosmetics and much more.

In many cities and large towns, night markets are a popular choice for shoppers. These open air street markets come to life in the cool of the evening, with stalls and vendors selling a remarkable range of products-there are plenty of bargains to be had.

Source: http://www.go2taiwan.net/taiwan.nsf/pages/shopping_AHAN-652D7N

Work Sheet 2-3
CLT

Discuss with your group partners the following questions:

1. What famous attractions in Taiwan interest visitors from around the world?

2. Have you been to the National Palace Museum? Do you like it or not?

3. Does Taiwan supply any excellent shopping destination for tourists?

Work Sheet 2-4
Print Awareness

What happened to these words and sentences? Please discuss with your partner.

1. Iliketogotoschoolandstudyeveryday.

What is wrong? _____

2. peTer IS mY bEsT fRIEnd.

What is wrong? _____

3. I

l

o

v

E

What is wrong? _____

Y

o

u.

4. .yrtnuoc dnalsi na si nawiaT

What is wrong? _____

5. i am taiwanese.

What is wrong? _____

Assessment Sheet 2-5
Print Awareness and Recreation in Taiwan

I. What happened to these words and sentences? Please explain, and revise them. (60 points)

1. Englishisaninternationallanguage.

What is wrong? _____

Correct sentence: _____

2. .rennam doog sah dluohs eonyrevE

What is wrong? _____

Correct sentence: _____

3. i LiKE To go SHopPiNg.

What is wrong? _____

Correct sentence: _____

Assessment Sheet 2-5 (Con't.)
Print Awareness and Recreation in Taiwan

II. According to the context of "Recreation in Taiwan," please check if the following sentences are true or false. (40 points)

1. In many cities and large towns, night markets are a popular choice for shoppers.
True _____ False _____
2. Taiwan is a poor shopping destination; all tourists dislike it.
True _____ False _____
3. The National Palace Museum houses the world's largest collection of Chinese art and crafts.
True _____ False _____
4. YangMingShan National Park is located in the south of Taiwan, north of Tainan City.
True _____ False _____

Instructional Plan Three Taiwanese Cuisine

Teaching Level: Intermediate, 4th grade EFL students

Time Frame: 50 minutes

Objectives:

Content Goal: Students will learn about Taiwanese cuisine

Language Goal: Students will be able to use graphic organizers in communicative language teaching (CLT) to enhance learning quality—listening and speaking

Learning-Strategy Goal: Students will develop word awareness

TESOL Standards:

Goal 1: To use English to communicate in social settings

Standard 3: Students will use learning strategies to extend their communicative competence

Materials:

Warm-up Sheet 3-1: K-W-L Chart

Focus Sheet 3-2: Taiwanese Cuisine

Work Sheet 3-3: Apply Graphic Organizers to CLT

Focus Sheet 3-4: Word Awareness

Assessment Sheet 3-5: Taiwanese Cuisine

Warm-up:

The instructor hands out Warm-up Sheet 3-1 and requests students to divide into groups of three. The instructor asks each group to discuss what they know and what they want to know about Taiwanese cuisine. After five minutes, the instructor leads the discussion. During the discussion, the instructor can encourage students to talk about their favorite Taiwanese food.

Task Chain I: Taiwanese Cuisine

1. The instructor passes out Focus Sheet 3-2.
2. The instructor reminds students how to use think-aloud procedures to enhance their reading and comprehension ability.
3. The instructor asks students to read Focus Sheet 3-2 using think-aloud procedures.

4. After students finish reading, the instructor explains the whole article to students, and asks them if they have further questions.
5. The instructor asks students "Do you have any idea or experiences about Taiwanese cuisine that are not included in this article?"
6. The instructor guides students to talk more and encourages them to express their opinions.

Task Chain II: Apply Graphic Organizers to CLT

1. The instructor passes out Work Sheet 3-3 to students, and asks them to divide into groups of three.
2. The instructor introduces several useful graphic organizers to students and explains how graphic organizers enhance their learning.
3. The instructor asks each group to use a Venn diagram to organize information about Taiwanese and Chinese cuisine.
4. When groups organize information, the instructor encourages students to talk more with their partners.
5. After five minutes, the instructor asks each group to exchange their diagram with other groups and encourages them to discuss the differences between their diagrams.
6. The instructor leads the discussion, and asks every group to state their opinions.

Task Chain III: Word Awareness

1. The instructor hands out Focus Sheet 3-4 and tells students this focus sheet is used to raise their word awareness.
2. The instructor introduces how words are different between Mandarin and English.
3. The instructor asks students to think of more examples about how prefix, suffix, and morpheme work in English words.
4. The instructor explains how English verbs change according to their tenses.
5. The instructor encourages students to think more about the difference between Mandarin and English words.

Final Assessment:

Formative:

The instructor should always pay attention to students' performance during lecturing, and help and encourage them immediately. During Task Chain I, the instructor has to make sure each student understands the content of the article and learns about main characters about Taiwanese cuisine. During Task Chain II, the instructor walks among the groups and checks if students interact in English well and they can make good use of a Venn diagram to compare two subjects. During Task Chain III, the instructor can encourage students to think about word differences between Mandarin and English.

Summative:

At the end of the lesson, the instructor gives students Assessment Sheet 3-5 to evaluate their comprehension of the content. This assessment is to test how much students learned about Taiwanese cuisine and to check their word awareness.

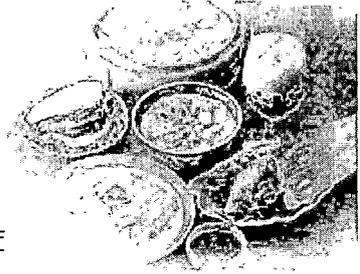
Scores	Representative
90-100	Excellent
80-90	Good job
70-80	Needs improvements
60-70	Needs much improvements

Warm-up Sheet 3-1
K-W-L Chart

(K) What do you <u>know</u> about Taiwanese cuisine?	(W) What do you <u>want</u> to know about Taiwanese cuisine?	(L) What have you <u>learned</u> from this class?

Focus Sheet 3-2 Taiwanese Cuisine

Taiwan not only has its own cuisine, but has also embraced the best of mainland Chinese cooking. Visitors to Taiwan can experience Chinese food from all of the regions of China, including roast duck, smoked chicken, lamb hotpot, fish in wine sauce, beef with green peppers, and scallop and turnip balls of the north, and camphor-tea duck, salty fried chicken with spices, honey ham, stir-fried shrimp, dry-fried eggplant, and spicy bean curd of the south.



As the island's economy has developed rapidly in recent years, its culinary culture has expanded beyond the traditional Chinese foods to Chinese-style fast-food chains and other Asian cuisines such as Thai and Indonesian.

Taiwan has also developed an interest in international cuisine and there are now restaurants offering food from around the globe.

Visitors to Taiwan will find their taste buds tantalized at every turn as they discover the very best of Chinese cuisine, from traditional to modern.

Taiwanese food

Traditional Taiwanese cooking is relatively simple and light, using fresh ingredients and natural flavors. Taiwan is well known for its "tonic food," made by blending different types of medicinal ingredients, many of which have to be sourced and prepared seasonally throughout the year.

Focus Sheet 3-2 (Con't.)
Taiwanese Cuisine

Hakka food

The Hakka people of Taiwan have their own unique cuisine, using a great deal of dried and pickled ingredients in their dishes. Meals are usually flavor-rich and very filling, with plenty of spice.

Cantonese food

Cantonese or Chaozhou cuisine originates in Southern China, and is well known for its meticulous methods of preparation and its wide variety of cooking styles--frying, roasting, steaming and boiling of a remarkable range of common and exotic ingredients. Specialties include dim sum, shark fin soup, abalone, squid and much more.

Sichuan food

Sichuan and Hunan cuisine is a favorite with anyone who loves spicy food. Strong, hot, and full of flavor, Sichuan dishes include smoked duck, dried chili beef and fish in spicy bean sauce.

Beijing food

This Northern Chinese cuisine combines the features of Qing Dynasty court dishes, Moslem cuisine, and Mongolian tastes, with steamed bread, dumplings and wheat noodles used rather than rice.

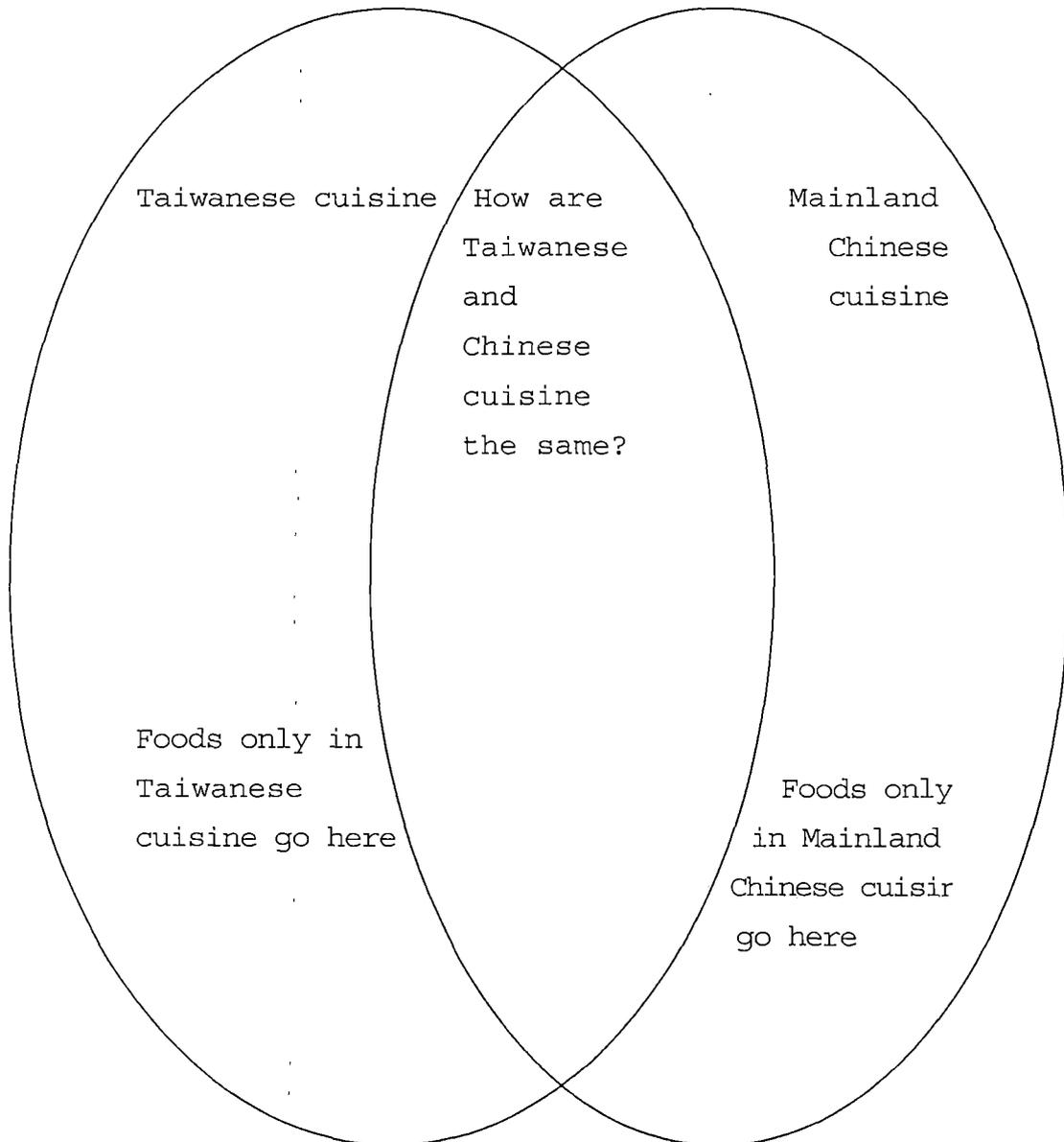
Jiangzhe food

Jiangzhe or Shanghainese cooking originated in the lower reaches of the Yangtze River and the Southeastern coastal areas of China. As a result the predominant ingredient is seafood, with plenty of shrimp, crabs, eels, and fish.

Source: http://www.go2taiwan.net/taiwan.nsf/pages/cuisine_AHAN-652K56

Work Sheet 3-3
Apply Graphic Organizers to CLT

Graphic organizers are visual frames used to represent and organize information. They can also present ideas visually and clearly. Making good use of graphic organizers can enhance learning. A Venn diagram is used to compare two topics, and it can show the difference and similarity between the two. Try to compare Taiwanese cuisine with Mainland Chinese cuisine by using a Venn diagram.



Focus Sheet 3-4
Word Awareness

Let's discover how words are different between Mandarin and English.

Consist

English: English has 26 letters. An English word consists of letters. A word consists of at least one vowel and one consonant.

Ex: he, "h" is consonant, "e" is vowel

Mandarin: Characters consist of strokes.

Prefix

English: A group of letters that is added to the beginning of a word to change its meaning and make a new word.

Ex: tie → untie

understand → misunderstand

Mandarin: No prefixes

Suffix

English: Letters can be added to the end of a word to form a new word.

Ex: boy → boys

kind → kindness

Mandarin: No suffixes

Focus Sheet 3-4 (Con't.)
Word Awareness

Morpheme

English: The smallest meaningful unit of language, consisting of a word or part of a word that cannot be divided without losing its meaning.

Ex: gun → one morpheme

gunfighter → three morphemes, which contains "gun," "fight," and "-er"

Mandarin: No morphemes

Verb Tense

English: Any forms of a verb that show an action or state in the past, present, present perfect, or future time.

Ex: do → did → done → will do

go → went → gone → will go

Mandarin: Mandarin verbs do not have tense.

Assessment Sheet 3-5
Taiwanese Cuisine

I. Please use a T-chart to compare food culture between Taiwan and Mainland China. (40 points)

Same	Different

Rubrics	Points
Correct words (15 pt.)	
Correct sentence (15 pt.)	
Content (10 pt.)	
Total Points	

Assessment Sheet 3-5 (Con't.)
Taiwanese Cuisine

II. Word awareness. (60 points)

1. What are word differences between Mandarin and English? (20 points)

2. Please give two examples about how prefixes work in English words. (20 points)

3. Please give one example about how morphemes work in English words. (10 points)

4. "Verbs in Mandarin do not have tense; therefore, verbs in English have no tense, either." Please answer "True," or "False," and state your opinion. (10 points)

**Instructional Plan Four
Taiwanese Culture**

Teaching Level: Intermediate, 4th grade EFL students

Time Frame: 50 minutes

Objectives:

- Content Goal: Students will learn about Taiwanese culture
- Language Goal: Students will promote metalinguistic awareness through peer response
- Learning-Strategy Goal: Students will develop sentence awareness

TESOL standards:

- Goal 2: To use English to achieve academically in all content areas.
- Standard 3: Students will use appropriate learning strategies to construct and apply academic knowledge.

Materials:

- Warm-up Sheet 4-1: K-W-L Chart
- Focus Sheet 4-2: Taiwanese Culture
- Work Sheet 4-3: Composition
- Work Sheet 4-4: Promoting Metalinguistic Awareness through Peer Response
- Focus Sheet 4-5: Sentence Awareness
- Assessment Sheet 4-6: Sentence Awareness and What I Have Learned about Taiwanese Culture

Warm-up:

The instructor passes out Work Sheet 4-1 and asks students to divide into groups of three. The instructor asks students, "What do you know about Taiwanese culture? What do you want to know about Taiwanese culture?" If students do not quite follow the instructor, the instructor explains in Mandarin. The instructor encourages students to discuss with partners. After five minutes, the instructor leads students to talk about Taiwanese culture. During the discussion, the instructor gets some idea of what students know about Taiwanese culture. After this warm-up activity, the instructor can adjust his/her instruction according to students' response. This activity

gives students chances to think about what they have to focus on in the class.

Task Chain I: Taiwanese Culture

1. The instructor passes out Focus Sheet 4-2.
2. The instructor reminds students how to use think-aloud procedures to enhance their reading and comprehension ability.
3. The instructor asks students to read Focus Sheet 4-2 using think-aloud procedures.
4. After students finish reading, the instructor explains the whole article to students, and asks them if they have further questions.
5. The instructor asks students "Do you have any idea or experiences about Taiwanese culture that are not included in this article?"
6. The instructor guides students to talk more and encourages them to express their opinions.

Task Chain II: Promoting Metalinguistic Awareness through Peer Response

1. The instructor hands out Work Sheet 4-3, and explains how to work on it.
2. After finishing Work Sheet 4-3, the instructor pairs off students and hands out Work Sheet 4-4.
3. The instructor explains that Work Sheet 4-4 is used to evaluate Work Sheet 4-3. The instructor also introduces how Work Sheet 4-4 can be used to promote students' metalinguistic awareness in L2 writing.
4. The instructor checks each group and makes sure all students know how to work on Work Sheet 4-4.
5. The instructor keeps reminding students to give each other helpful feedback.

Task Chain III: Sentence Awareness

1. The instructor passes out Focus Sheet 4-5.
2. The instructor introduces sentence awareness to students.
3. The instructor introduces how sentences are similar between Mandarin and English.
3. The instructor asks students to think of more examples about how Mandarin and English sentences are the same.
4. The instructor explains sentence differences between Mandarin and English.

5. The instructor encourages students to think more about the difference between Mandarin and English sentences.

Final Assessment:

Formative assessment:

The instructor should always pay attention to students' performance during lecturing, and help and encourage them immediately. During Task Chain I, the instructor has to make sure each student understands the content of the article and learns about Taiwanese culture. During Task Chain II, the instructor walks around to each group and checks if students know how to make good use of Work Sheet 4-4 to assess each other's writing and develop their own metalinguistic awareness. During Task Chain III, the instructor encourages students to think about sentence differences and similarities between Mandarin and English.

Summative assessment:

At the end of the lesson, the instructor gives students Assessment Sheet 4-6 to evaluate their comprehension of the content. This assessment not only tests students' knowledge about Taiwanese culture, but also tests their sentence awareness.

Scores	Representative
90-100	Excellent
80	Good job
70	Needs improvement
60	Needs much improvements

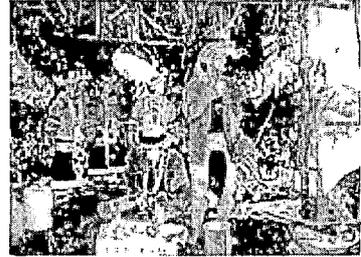
Warm-up Sheet 4-1
K-W-L Chart

(K) What do we <u>know</u> about Taiwanese culture?	(W) What do we <u>want</u> to know about Taiwanese culture?	(L) What have we <u>learned</u> from this class?

Focus Sheet 4-2
Taiwanese Culture

Taiwanese Natives

The aboriginal cultures of Taiwan represent 2% of the population of the island. There are 12 aboriginal tribes—the Amis, Atayal, Bunun, Paiwan, Puyuma, Rukai, Thao, Saisiyat, Tsou, Kavalan, Truku and Yami.

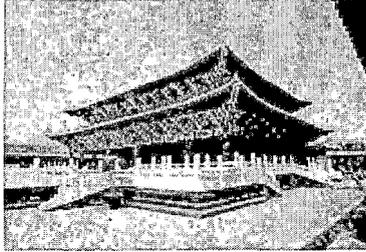


Traditional culture has been greatly influenced by the predominant Chinese culture of the island, but due to a relatively small number of intermarriages and a pride in tradition and ritual, the tribes have remained relatively homogenous and culturally pure.

The best places to encounter aboriginal culture are Wulai, Orchid Island, the areas surrounding Taroko Gorge, Wutai and at the Shunyi Aboriginal Museum in Taipei.

Focus Sheet 4-2 (Con't. 1)
Taiwanese Culture

Beautiful Temples



Taiwan has more than 5000 temples, ranging in size from single room shrines to vast multi-story complexes. All of these temples are not simply museums or relics of bygone era, but active places of worship.

The oldest temple in Taiwan is found in Makung, in the Pengu Islands, and has been in existence for over 300 years.

There are three main varieties of temple in Taiwan: Buddhist, Taoist and Confucius temples, reflecting Taiwan's religious make-up.

During the 50 year Japanese occupation of Taiwan there was widespread persecution of Taoism--seen as the embodiment of Chinese culture--which meant that Taoists had to secretly worship in Buddhist temples.

This wonderful example of tolerance and acceptance gave birth to Taiwan's unique blend of Buddhist and Taoist beliefs and the physical merging of the two temples into single structures.

Individual Taoist and Buddhist temples and separate, simpler Confucius temples are also found, although in some temples, Confucian portraits are found alongside Buddhist and Taoist shrines, merging all three faiths into a single place of worship.

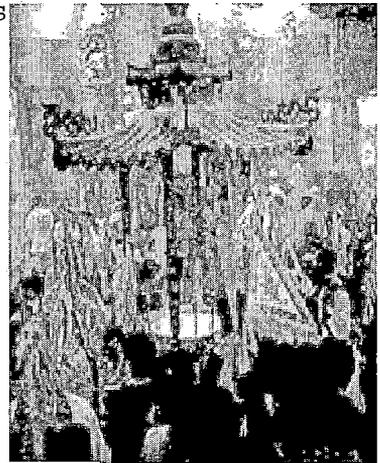
Traveling through Taiwan you will find temples at every turn, each one a unique place that plays a vibrant role in the life and soul of modern Taiwan.

Focus Sheet 4-2 (Con't. 2)
Taiwanese Culture

Diverse Religions

Taiwan is a highly tolerant society and is greatly diversified in terms of religious faith. Like China, Taiwan has 3 major religions--Buddhism, Taoism, and Confucianism. Other religious practices include Christianity, Mormonism, the Unification Church, Islam, and Hinduism, as well as native sects such as Yiguandao.

Most of the island's traditional places of worship combine all three of the major religious traditions. The Japanese occupation of the island saw widespread persecution of Taoism--seen as the embodiment of Chinese culture--which meant that Taoists had to secretly worship in Buddhist temples, leading to the creation of Taiwan's uniquely united yet divergent faith.



Source: <http://www.go2taiwan.net/taiwan.nsf/home>

Work Sheet 4-4

Promoting Metalinguistic Awareness through Peer Response

Does your partner's writing meet the following requirements? Does he or she have metalinguistic awareness? Please give your partner helpful feedback and suggestions to improve his or her writing skills.

Metalinguistic awareness	(✓) Meet (X) Unmeet	Reason
1. Print awareness		
2. Word awareness		
3. Phrase awareness		
4. Sentence awareness		

Focus Sheet 4-5
Sentence Awareness

There are differences and similarities between Mandarin sentences and English sentences. Let's learn some basic concepts about them.

	<u>English Sentence</u>	<u>Mandarin Sentence</u>
Similarities	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Both of these two kinds of sentences convey complete ideas and meanings. 2. Subject, verb, and object are three basic elements that comprise a complete sentence. 3. Some punctuation marks in these two kinds of sentences are the same, such as comma, colon, semicolon, parenthesis, exclamation mark, and question mark. 	
Differences	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The first letter of the first word of a sentence should be capitalized. 2. quotation mark: " " period: . 3. There is a space separating each word in a sentence. 4. Verbs agree with sentence tense 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. There is no upper and lower case problem in Mandarin sentences. 2. quotation mark: 「 」 period: 。 3. There is no space separating each word in a sentence. 4. Verbs never change

Assessment Sheet 4-6

Sentence Awareness and What I Have Learned about Taiwanese Culture

I. Sentence awareness. (50 points)

1. What are sentences differences between Mandarin and English? (20 points)

2. Please give one example of the similarity between Mandarin and English sentences. (10 points)

3. "There is no space separating each word in English sentences, just like Mandarin sentences." Please answer "True," or "False," and state your opinion. (20 points)

Instructional Plan Five
Festivals in Taiwan

Teaching Level: Intermediate, 4th grade EFL students

Time Frame: 50 minutes

Objectives:

Content Goal: Students will learn about festivals in Taiwan

Language Goal: Students will help each other practice reading

Learning-Strategy Goal: Students will develop phrase awareness

TESOL Standards:

Goal 1: To use English to communicate in social settings

Standard 3: Students will use learning strategies to extend their communicative competence

Materials:

Warm-up Sheet 5-1: How Much Do You Know about Festivals in Taiwan?

Focus Sheet 5-2: Festivals in Taiwan

Focus Sheet 5-3: The Legend of the Moon Festival

Focus Sheet 5-4: Phrase Awareness

Assessment Sheet 5-5: Phrase Awareness and Festivals in Taiwan

Warm-up:

The instructor hands out Work Sheet 5-1 and requests students to divide into groups of three. The instructor asks each group to discuss the five questions on the sheet and write down their opinions. After five minutes, the instructor leads the discussion and keeps asking students questions step by step, deeper and deeper, in order to raise their interest toward festivals in Taiwan.

Task Chain I: Festivals in Taiwan

1. The instructor passes out Focus Sheet 5-2.
2. The instructor reminds students how to use think-aloud procedures to enhance their reading and comprehension ability.
3. The instructor asks students read Focus Sheet 5-2 using think-aloud procedures.

4. After students finish reading, the instructor explains the whole article to students, and asks them if they have further questions.
5. The instructor asks students "Do you have any idea or experiences about Taiwanese festivals that are not included in this article?"
6. The instructor guides students to talk more and encourages them to express their opinions.

Task Chain II: The Legend of the Moon Festival

1. The instructor passes out Focus Sheet 5-3 and asks students divide into groups of two.
2. The instructor asks students read Focus Sheet 5-3 to each other.
3. The instructor reminds students to pay attention on their reading fluency and pronunciation.
4. After students practice reading to each other, the instructor invites some students read aloud in front of the class.
5. The instructor gives some advice about students' reading skill and asks them practice more by themselves.

Task Chain III: Phrase Awareness

1. The instructor hands out Focus Sheet 5-4 and asks students to read it by themselves first.
2. After 5 minutes, the instructor introduces Focus Sheet 5-4 to students and asks them to think about how phrases are different between Mandarin and English.
3. The instructor encourages students to try to create dialogues by using phrases on Focus Sheet 5-4.
4. The instructor asks some students come to the stage, and act out several dialogues that they have created.

Final Assessment:

Formative:

The instructor should always pay attention to students' performance during lecturing, and help and encourage them immediately. During Task Chain I, the instructor has to make sure each student understands the content of the article and becomes interested in Taiwanese festivals. During Task Chain II, the instructor walks around each group and checks if students pay attention on each other's reading fluency and pronunciation. During Task Chain III, the instructor may check if students get the idea of

the phrase differences between Mandarin and English. Moreover, students can use phrases correctly when trying to create dialogues.

Summative:

At the end of the lesson, the instructor gives students Assessment Sheet 5-5 to evaluate their comprehension of the content. This assessment is to test how much students learned about Taiwanese festivals and to check their phrase awareness.

Scores	Representative
90-100	Excellent
80-90	Good job
70-80	Needs improvements
60-70	Needs much improvements

Warm-up Sheet 5-1

How Much Do You Know about Festivals in Taiwan?

What do you know about festivals in Taiwan? Discuss with your teacher and your partners.

1. How many Taiwanese festivals can you name?

2. Which festival do you like most?

3. Please give a reason why you like it.

4. Which festival do you dislike?

5. Why you dislike that festival?

Focus Sheet 5-2
Festivals in Taiwan

Taiwan is a cultural treasure trove, and all year around festivals, cultural events, and ceremonies are held in towns and cities all over the island. With a lunar calendar used to decide dates, you can plan to be in the right place at the right time to witness any of these spectacular events.

Chinese New Year (public holiday)

As in Mainland China, New Year is celebrated on the first day of the first new moon of the year. This is a serious cause for celebration, with an official three-day holiday period often extended into a week of revelry and fun. Street parties, fireworks, and music dominate proceedings.

Lantern Festival

On the 15th day of the first moon, the towns of Yenshui, Luerhmen and Peikang literally erupt with color and spectacle as the lantern Festival begins. Visitors from all over Taiwan--and the world--gather for a loud and explosive celebration of Chinese fireworks.

Dragon Boat Festival (public holiday)

On the fifth day of the fifth moon, a major day of racing is held across the island. Long, beautifully decorated Chinese dragon boats, each with a crew of expert oarsmen, race for local and national titles. This spectacular event is watched live and on TV by most Taiwanese people, who also regard this day as a time to prepare and eat steamed rice zongzi dumplings.

**Focus Sheet 5-2 (Con't.)
Festivals in Taiwan**

Ghost Month

For the entire seventh moon, ghosts dominate the island of Taiwan. Sometimes called the Mid-Summer Ghost Festival - this entire month is a period when it is believed that the spirits of the dead walk the earth. This is a long-held Chinese Taoist belief, which has its roots with the birthday of the Chinese Guardian of Hell. It is believed he celebrates this day by decreeing an amnesty in the underworld, allowing all of the lost souls in hell to rise and return to earth for one month before being sent back.

During this month many special celebrations are held, with sacrifices and offerings laid out to feed and appease the wandering lost souls. The gates of tombs and graveyards are left open to allow the dead access to the world, and lanterns are floated in the sea to guide back the souls of those lost beneath the waves.

On the first and 15th day of the month, colorful ceremonies to honor the ghosts are held in public places and in Taoist temples. All over Taiwan, Ghost Month is regarded with a great deal of superstition, and it is believed to be unlucky to travel, marry, or hold a funeral during this time, before the ghosts once again depart the earth, and return to the fires of hell.

Moon Festival (public holiday)

The Moon Festival is a time to celebrate the celestial light of the moon. During this annual holiday, which falls on the 15th day of the 8th moon, there are plenty of spectacular fireworks displays throughout the night, and bakeries everywhere sell traditional "moon cakes." This is also known as the Mid-Autumn festival.

Source: [http://www.go2taiwan.net/taiwan.nsf/pages/
Festivals_AHAN-654NM3](http://www.go2taiwan.net/taiwan.nsf/pages/Festivals_AHAN-654NM3)

Focus Sheet 5-3
The Legend of the Moon Festival



Originally named the Mid-Autumn Festival, the Moon Festival is one of the most important traditionally; it is celebrated on the fifteenth day of the eighth lunar month in observance of the bountiful autumn harvest. Although old rituals are no longer followed, families continue to gather for a day to relax and enjoy a holiday that is celebrated by Chinese communities around the world.

Once upon a time there was a famous archer, Hou Yi, who with his arrows was able to slay mankind's worst enemies, ferocious beasts that inhabited the earth. Yi was married to Chang-O, a beautiful but inquisitive woman who had been an attendant of the Queen Mother of the West before her marriage. Now at this time, there were 10 suns that took turns circling the earth-one every 10 days. One day, all 10 of the orbs circled, together, causing the earth's surface to burn and threatening mankind. The wise emperor of China summoned Yi and commanded him to kill but one of the suns. This Yi proceeded to do. Upon the completion of his task, Yi was rewarded with a pill, the elixir of life, and advised: "make no haste to swallow this pill, but first prepare yourself with prayer and fasting for a year." Being a wise man, Yi took the pill home and hid it under a rafter while he began healing his spirit, In the midst of this; Yi was summoned again by the emperor.

Source: <http://www.etweb.fju.edu.tw/reading/unit9/facts/fsMoon.htm>

Focus Sheet 5-3 (Con't.)
The Legend of the Moon Festival

While her husband was gone, Chang-O noticed a beam of white light beckoning from the rafter. She followed it and a fragrant perfume, discovered the pill and swallowed it. Immediately, Chang-O found she could fly. Just at that moment her husband returned home, and realized what had happened and began to reprimand his wife. Chang-O flew out the window into the sky. Yi sped after her, bow in hand, and the pursuit continued halfway across the heavens. Finally, Yi had to return to the earth because of the force of the wind.

His wife reached the moon and there, breathless, she coughed and part of the pill fell from her mouth. Now, the hare was already on the moon and Chang-O commanded the animal to take pestle and mortar and pound another pill so that she could return to earth and her husband. The hare is still pounding.

As for Yi, he built himself a palace in the sun as Yang (the sun and the male principle), Chang-O as Yin (the moon and the female principle).

Once a year, on the 15th day of the full moon, Yi visits his wife. That is why the moon is full and beautiful on that night.

Focus Sheet 5-4
Phrase Awareness

Phrase means a group of words that are often used together and that have special meaning. In Mandarin, we have a lot of four-word idioms. How about English phrases? Do some phrases in Mandarin correspond with English phrases? Here are some good examples that we can use in everyday contexts. Let's learn about them!

<u>Mandarin</u> <u>Phrases</u>	<u>English Phrases</u>
惡有惡報	A bad penny always comes back.
物以類聚	Birds of a feather flock together.
兩敗俱傷	Diamond cuts diamond.
入境隨俗	Do in Rome as the Romans do.
天助自助	Heaven helps those who help themselves.
三思後行	Look before you leap.
半斤八兩	The pot called the kettle black.
眼見爲憑	Seeing is believing.
逆來順受	Take the rough with the smooth.
隔牆有耳	Walls have ears.

Assessment Sheet 5-5
Phrase Awareness and Festivals in Taiwan

- I. Create your own dialogue by using the following phrases. (60 points)

Example: Walls have ears.

Bill: Hush! Sue: For what? Bill: Mind what you are saying. Walls have ears.

1. A bad penny always comes back.

2. Take the rough with the smooth.

3. The pot called the kettle black.

4. Do in Rome as the Romans do.

5. Birds of a feather flock together.

6. Diamond cuts diamond.

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