Socially situated English-as-a-foreign-language instruction to achieve emergent biliteracy in Taiwan

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SOCIALLY SITUATED ENGLISH-AS-A-FOREIGN-LANGUAGE
INSTRUCTION TO ACHIEVE EMERGENT
BILITERACY IN TAIWAN

A Project
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by
Tzu-Chen Su
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ABSTRACT

English education has been developing vigorously in Taiwan for many decades. In the Educational Reform Action Program, English officially became the required curriculum at the elementary level. Currently, many parents believe that children who possess English abilities have a better chance of succeeding in their future career.

Promoting children’s biliteracy in the English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) context is the purpose of this project. It integrates several learning approaches: child-centered learning, mediated learning, socially situated learning, and task-based learning. When children are immersed in a biliterate environment, they have motivation to learn overly because the content of learning can meet their needs. Teachers are not overly directive; conversely, they provide effective assistance when children’s learning occurs in the zone of proximal development (ZPD). Utilizing cultural content and task-based instruction can enhance children’s biliteracy. Finally, they become independent learners who enjoy being immersed in a biliterate environment.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First of all, I would like to sincerely thank my advisor, Dr. Lynne Díaz-Rico, who has always encouraged me, and provided me with many insightful ideas in writing this project. I would also like to express my appreciation to Dr. Bonnie Piller, who has offered many useful suggestions and contributions to this project.

I would like to deeply thank my dear husband and son, who have given me endless love and support, so that I could move toward my dream. I would like to thank my family members and close friends in Taiwan. Their encouragement and consideration has given me the strength to overcome the various challenges associated with this project. Finally, I would like to especially thank my father. His work ethic, his love for learning, and his enthusiastic attitude toward life has greatly influenced me. His example has given me the faith, and strength, to study in a foreign country.
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

English is one of the most popular languages in Taiwan today. Much information, whether in technology, medicine, business, or journalism, is communicated in or published in English. As information is computerized and globalized, conceptions and views in Taiwan have been gradually broadened by Western culture towards a greater openness. The state reinforces the public conception that the ability to speak and write in English is a basic requirement. Possessing adequate English abilities has become a criterion to evaluate the capability of individuals.

The History of English Teaching and Methodologies

Although Mandarin is the official language in Taiwan, the government and society have been involved in English education for many decades. English is a compulsory course at both the junior and senior high school levels. English has become a main subject because it plays a significant role in most college entrance examinations in Taiwan. However, the content of the subject is rigid and uninteresting for most students. Most teachers emphasize a
heavy load of vocabulary and grammar rules in order for students to succeed on various examinations, but they seldom allow students to speak and write in class. Therefore, even if students achieve excellent scores on paper examinations, they may lack fluency and confidence to communicate with native-English speakers. Most students do not realize the real purpose of learning English. For them, English is just a score on a test. In fact, English is a nightmare to most students, because of the pressure to achieve proficiency within an environment of rigid and dull pedagogy.

Target Teaching Level

My target teaching level is the elementary school, grades k-6th grade because the number of English learners at the elementary level has increased gradually during the recent decade. Most parents believe that the earlier children learn English, the better results they will achieve. More and more children attend cram schools to learn English, but these schools are rife with teachers who are under prepared, and the quality of teaching is uneven. Therefore, when the Ministry of Education in Taiwan implemented the Educational Reform Action Program in 1999, English was designed to be a required component of the 5th-6th grade curriculum. Native-English speakers
were permitted to teach in elementary schools. Since then, some schools also have made English an optional course in the 3rd grade curriculum, or even the 1st grade. As the reform program is carried out, learning English at a younger age will become more prevalent; likewise, the demand for qualified English teachers in elementary schools, currently enormous, will continue to increase. The Current State of Teaching at the Target Level

Because of the Educational Reform Action Program, educators have started to improve English teaching and methodologies in order to enhance the practicability of English, consistent with the real world. English classes at the elementary level are more active, and instruction is more flexible than in past decades. The ability to listen and speak English is the first goal; the ability to read and write is the second objective. The fifth and sixth grade students study English for eighty minutes per week; however, other grades spend forty minutes once a week in English as an optional class. Native-English teachers are the lead teachers in the English classroom; by contrast, non-native English teachers play auxiliary roles to complement potential shortenings of native-English teachers. However, the current state of
English teaching in Taiwanese elementary schools faces several challenges.

**Insufficient Number of Qualified Teachers.** Because the government does not have training programs that produce competent English teachers, and clear policies to evaluate and recruit them, not only is the teaching quality decreasing, but the disparity of teaching resources between cities and countryside is also increasing. Only a minority of cities provides enough qualified teachers to teach English in elementary schools. On the other hand, although methodologies are better than the past several decades, teachers now require more professional knowledge than ever before to employ advanced teaching methodologies.

**Students at Disparate Levels are Placed Together.** Students coming from various levels learn English in the same class. As a result, it is very difficult to meet each student’s needs; on the other hand, the problem of multilevel classes makes it all too easy to diminish students’ interests and motivation in learning English.

**Insufficient Class Time.** Unsatisfactory learning outcomes in attaining English proficiency may be due to insufficient time allotted for English class. Students simply may not have sufficient contact time in English.
Chaotic Policies and Uncertain Goals. At present, the government has not as yet established definitive policies and goals. For example, elementary schools use textbooks of disparate quality; moreover, these are not aligned with English texts at the junior high school level. Also, the grade level in elementary schools in which English should be required is still a controversial issue.

Previous Career Experience and Career Goals

I was a substitute teacher of fourth-grade students for one year and an assistant teacher at an English cram school during another year. I learned that teaching actually involves unending challenges and requires full dedication. Meanwhile, because the demand for English teachers in the elementary schools is suddenly increasing in Taiwan, I want to contribute my professional knowledge and enthusiasm in the English teaching field. Teaching in remote districts is important because there are people who strive in all walks of life who need access to innovative teachers methods.

Purpose of the Project

The purpose of this project is to develop children’s biliteracy in the English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) context through various learning approaches:
child-centered learning, mediated learning, socially situated learning, and task-based learning. These approaches provide a learning environment that is very different from traditional approaches in Taiwan.

Promoting emergent learners' biliteracy is the goal of the project. Instructional units provide practical strategies for teachers to utilize in reading and writing programs. Children are always regarded as the center of biliteracy education; meanwhile, teachers should act as mediators to assist children’s learning.

Content of the Project

This project consists of five chapters. Chapter One introduces the background of English education for children in Taiwan and addresses several problems with English programs in that context. Chapter Two explores five concepts by means of literature reviews: emergent biliteracy practices, child-centered literacy, task-based learning with young learners, mediated learning, and socially situated reading practices.

Chapter Three provides a theoretical model that integrates the five key concepts of Chapter Two to illustrate important elements supporting children’s learning in biliteracy. Chapter Four connects the
instructional units and the theoretical model. Chapter Five provides an assessment design to help teachers and children evaluate the results of learning.

Significance of the Project

Child-centered instead of teacher-directed instruction should be implemented in order to promote children's biliterate proficiency. The role of teachers is crucial even though they act as mediators rather than as sources of information. If teachers can provide appropriate support, task-based activities, and socially situated reading, children will enjoy being immersed in a biliterate environment.
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Emergent Biliteracy Practices

Distances in the world are becoming closer, and relations among peoples of diverse countries are becoming more frequent and more complicated. Being bilingual is not only required for many peoples’ livelihoods, but also for greater understanding of diverse cultures. Nowadays, biliteracy education is very popular in Taiwan. However, what is biliteracy and how does biliteracy benefit students? In this section, the definition and advantages of biliteracy are addressed, accompanied by teaching strategies. In addition, two-way bilingual immersion education and the 50-50 content model are discussed. Drawing on Cummins’s (1984) common underlying proficiency hypothesis, the next section discusses the relationship in language systems between English and Chinese. Finally, bilingual books are discussed as an effective tool because they are useful for promoting emergent learners’ proficiency of biliteracy.

The Definition of Biliteracy

Biliteracy is “a term used to describe children’s literate competencies in two languages, to whatever
degree, developed either simultaneously or successively” (Dworin, 1998, p. 3). Ernst-Slavit and Mulhern (2003) also stated that biliteracy is the ability to read and write in two or more languages.

Many children who are biliterate speak English as the second language. Therefore, Dworin (1998) stated that most biliterate studies emphasized “the process of transfer from a native language to English literacy” (p. 3). In other words, the goal of biliteracy is usually focused on promoting children’s English proficiency. He suggested that the perspective of biliteracy should emphasize on developing both languages rather than only one of languages.

Dworin (1998) pointed out that biliteracy can enhance students' intellectual development because two or more languages connect symbol systems and the social world. Students create knowledge within two literate worlds that provide ample resources for thinking and learning. Meanwhile, he emphasized that bilinguals have better cognition than monolinguals. Gomez, Freeman, and Freeman (2005) argued that native-English students studying in biliteracy programs perform better than others who only study in English. Even though some students come from working-class backgrounds, like Latino students, they play
crucial intellectual and linguistic roles in the classroom (Moll, 1988).

Furthermore, biliterate students can extend the broader range of cultural resources, such as “library resources, mass media, the Internet, [and] the many forms of popular print” (Dworin, 1998, p. 6). Students can use these tools to take on culturally relevant projects because understanding two languages provides opportunities to connect various cultural contexts (Dworin, 1998).

In short, biliteracy allows students to learn two languages. Biliterate students have better performance in intellection and cognition than monolinguals. They can take advantage of two languages to explore various views and cultures.

Principles for Emerging Biliteracy in Classrooms

Laliberty and Berzins (2000) suggested teachers should provide a socioculturally supportive learning environment, encourage students to use the languages of study without reluctance, and invite parents to be involved in students’ learning. In addition, Hornberger (1990) emphasized that teachers should motivate students through classroom-based shared experiences, establish clear task-focused purposes, and enrich the biliteracy environment.
A Socioculturally Supportive Learning Environment.

Laliberty and Berzins (2000) suggested that teachers speak to each student in both languages at the beginning of class in order to ease his/her tension and understand the proficiency level in either language. Also, students need more opportunities to interact with each other. They can discuss, express opinions, and listen to various views. The social interaction can help "students feel respected, at ease, and free to take risks" (p. 14), and even promote their positive self-image. In addition, Dworin (1998) emphasized that teachers should provide authentic activities to develop students' biliteracy: for example, letter writing, parents' shared reading, and story reading with friends.

A Natural Biliterate Environment. Hornberger (1990) suggested that establishing a well-stocked and well-organized library for both languages in the classroom is very important. So, students can immerse in an environment of enriched biliteracy. Goodman, Goodman, and Flores (1979) pointed out information around the learning environment should be biliterate, such as bulletins, posters, and directions. When students see signs, they can read both languages that convey equally valued position. In addition, teachers establish a positive climate to
encourage students to be bilingual. For instance, teachers can emphasize that being bilingual is lucky because it is like having two brains (Laliberty & Berzins, 2000).

Parents’ Involvement. Laliberty and Berzins (2000) urged, “Communication with parents is a key factor in building a positive link between the school and the home” (p. 16). They suggested that teachers could provide specific ways for parents to help their children, such as reading book logs and providing ideas for writing. In addition, Faltis (1993) proposed a multi-level approach to bridge the gap between parents and the school, featuring four levels of teacher and parental involvement. The first level is to establish contact with parents and earn trust between teachers and parents. The second level is to broaden the information to parents by personal contact, like a weekly newsletter and telephone calls. The third level is to invite parents to participate in various activities in the classroom. The fourth level is to empower parents to become more involved in activities. For example, they can be tutors after school in order to supplement the resources of a biliteracy program.

Motivational Opportunities and Purposeful Instruction. Hornberger (1990) suggested that teachers should motivate students through learning experiences. By
providing opportunities for sharing with other students, teachers can reduce the conflicts of culture and linguistics. For instance, teachers can plan an annual camp trip that is linked to the content of subjects throughout the year.

Teachers can implement task-focused purposes to develop students’ biliteracy. Tasks should be defined clearly and correction should be offered immediately. Teachers may use either language to correct mistakes rather than being limited in one language. The correction should be focused on the purpose of the task. Other errors not related to the task should be disregard (Hornberger, 1990).

Biliteracy Programs

Two-way bilingual immersion education is one of the more popular bilingual programs. By 2002, there were over 250 schools to implement these programs in the United States (Pírez, 2004). On the other hand, the 50-50 Content Model (Gómez, 2000), focused on learning bilingually through dividing language acquisition by academic subjects, brings an innovative concept to bilingual education.

Two-way bilingual immersion education is an approach that promotes language-minority and-majority students to
learn languages from each other simultaneously (Pérez, 2004). The goal is to develop the high levels of "bilingualism, biliteracy, and biculturalism" (p. 11) and also protect minority languages. In other words, students are able to possess full proficiency in their primary language and high levels of proficiency in a second language (Gómez, Freeman, & Freeman, 2005).

Currently, there are many programs that differ from two-way bilingual immersion education, like the 90-10 model and the 50-50 model. Although these programs are implemented in various ways, Gómez, Freeman, and Freeman (2005) pointed out common characteristics. Usually, some students are native-English speakers and others are other-language speakers. All students learn both languages through subject content. Meanwhile, students learning in bilingual programs show better performances than they do in monolingual programs (Pérez, 2004; Gómez, Freeman & Freeman, 2005).

On the other hand, programs differ in various characteristics, such as demographics of student population and instructional time. Some programs consist of approximately half native-English speakers and half non-English-native speakers, or students come from various ethnicities. Conversely, some programs only have one group
consisting of those who speak the same language (Gómez, Freeman & Freeman, 2005).

As regards to instructional time, Gómez, Freeman, and Freeman (2005) stated that the 90-10 model refers to students in a two-way immersion program who spend 90 percent of the time in their native language and 10 percent of the time in the second language in the early grades. The portion of learning English increases gradually until equaling the other portion. The 50-50 model is usually used in schools that have a limited number of bilingual teachers, so that students learn each language within a half-day, on alternate days, or on alternate weeks. However, two-way bilingual immersion education in the United States usually intends to reach English-only goals rather than bilingual because of the mainstream preference by parents to want English only. Meanwhile, the programs cannot be implemented in areas that do not have sufficient students who speak English natively and who want to participate in a two-way program. However, the 50-50 Content Model (Gómez, 2000) can make up for the drawbacks of two-way bilingual immersion education.

The 50-50 Content Model was developed by L. Gómez and R. Gómez (Gómez, 2000). The instruction in both languages
rotates by subject rather than time. Students learn each academic subject only in one language first, and then transfer the knowledge to the other language. For instance, students study math in English, and science and social studies in Spanish.

Conceptual refinement, vocabulary enrichment lessons, and bilingual grouping are the central components in the model. After each lesson, teachers provide conceptual refinement for second-language learners of each subject for about 15-20 minutes. Meanwhile, the enrichment lessons focus on language rather than conceptual development in order to help students to develop academic proficiency in either language. Also, students are grouped in pairs or small groups. Each student utilizes proficiency of his/her native language to support each other in pairs or groups for all subjects (Gómez, Freeman & Freeman, 2005).

**Emergent Biliteracy Between English and Chinese**

Cummins (1984) developed a common underlying proficiency hypothesis to explain the relationship of two languages. Common underlying proficiency contains two parts: one is the deep level, and the other is the surface level. The deep level means the first and second language share the same properties; that is, "what the participant knows about literacy in general, knowledge that applies to
either language” (Buckwalter & Lo, 2002, p. 276). However, at the surface level, both languages contain distinct properties, such as pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. Students can understand the specific differences in each language.

Buckwalter and Lo (2002) applied the common underlying proficiency hypothesis to research simultaneous biliteracy in English and Chinese. Both languages use various writing systems at the surface level, but they share the same concept at the foundational level (see Figure 1).

Buckwalter and Lo (2002) found that their subject, an emergent bilingual five-year boy, was aware of that two the writing systems were different because English uses the alphabet and phonics, and Chinese uses characters that have a single meaning in one word. Apparently, learning English does not influence literacy development in Chinese at the surface level.

On the other hand, the emergent bilingual student grounded the concept of literacy in both languages. The student understood the printed format, correspondence between written and spoken words, and conventional print. Therefore, Buckwalter and Lo suggested that establishing
Figure 1. Surface Level and Foundational Level Emergent Literacy Awareness


In sum, although English and Chinese have very different writing systems, children still can develop literacy positively in either language. Learning both English and Chinese does not cause a negative effect. Therefore, Buckwalter and Lo (2002) suggested that
teachers provide children opportunities to read books in both alphabetic and non-alphabetic languages. Also, they suggested that it is very important to enhance children's basic literacy understanding in either language.

Using Bilingual Books

Ernst-Slavit and Mulhern (2003) emphasized that skills and strategies in reading can transfer from the first language to the second, although the writing systems and grammar may be different. After establishing the concepts of print, students learn how to separate the stream of print into segmental words or characters in order to understand how print carries meaning. Furthermore, when students read the second language in bilingual books, the first language on the same page can promote their confidence and comprehension in reading because bilingual books deliver clear information to students through students' first language.

Ernst-Slavit and Mulhern (2003) provided useful strategies for using bilingual books (see Table 1).

However, there are some problems that teachers need to address. Some bilingual books do not equally position the two languages on the page, using unequal font size, boldness, or spacing. Sometimes, the quality of typing between two scripts is very different. In addition,
Table 1. Summary of Strategies for Using Bilingual Books in the Classroom

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>Introducing a new topic</td>
<td>Literature that relates thematically to a new unit or lesson can serve well to acquaint a beginning English language learner with the topic at hand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting transfer of reading in L1 to L2</td>
<td>Children who are able to read in their L1 and have learned some oral English benefit from taking turns with an English speaker in reading aloud a bilingual book.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting independent reading</td>
<td>A book in the native language might serve well to soothe feelings of frustration and exhaustion common among L2 learners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using L1 version as preview</td>
<td>Students can read or have someone read to them the L1 version of a book in order to understand its content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using L1 version as review</td>
<td>After a book has been read and discussed in the L2, students can use the L1 version to write about the topic, review issues discussed, or further their understanding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading two versions for self-assessment</td>
<td>Young ESL students enjoy finding out how much English they are learning by counting the words they understand before and after the book is read in the L1 and discussed in the L2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparing and contrasting cognates</td>
<td>Comparing and contrasting words in L1 with English words can contribute to increases in word recognition, vocabulary development, phonic analysis, and structural analysis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving home-school connections</td>
<td>Family members can be actively involved in the education of L2 students, even if their English skills are limited, when books in L1 are available.</td>
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<td>-----------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting family literacy programs</td>
<td>A great way to start a family literacy program for parents of ESL students is by assisting them in locating books in the L1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raising all children's awareness of multiculturalism</td>
<td>Bilingual books and materials in languages other than English can raise all children's awareness through exposure to different languages and scripts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helping teachers learn another language</td>
<td>Bilingual books can help teachers and others learn some words in students' native languages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouraging reading for pleasure</td>
<td>One way for students to obtain sufficient amounts of written input is through pleasure reading, whether in L1 or L2.</td>
</tr>
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Teachers need to pay more attention to translation when choosing bilingual books. Translation should match the meaning of words and storyline, and cohere with the style of language that is used as well (Ernst-Slavit & Mulhern, 2003).

Bilingual books provide a good way to read both languages together. Students utilize the knowledge about literature to decode text and transfer to another language. Teachers can use some useful strategies in the
classroom in order to help students benefit from bilingual books. Nevertheless, the quality of print, content, and translation still needs to be considered.

Summary

Biliteracy is the important competence of reading and writing in two languages. Children possessing bilingual competence can enhance their intellectual and cognitive development. They have more opportunities to contact different cultures and evaluate their own culture. In the biliteracy classroom, teachers should increase interactive activities in order to ease students' tension and allow students to use both languages in class. In addition, parents need to be involved in children's learning because the parents' attitude has a great influence on children. The tasks that teachers instruct require meaningful, motivational, and purposeful features to develop students' biliteracy.

There are various bilingual programs that are implemented in bilingual schools. The student population and particulars of language acquisition are the crucial factors to decide which programs are suitable. Meanwhile, the common underlying proficiency hypothesis posits that two languages contain both similar and different features. Therefore, students who learn two languages at the same
time are not confused; even a younger learner, literacy ability is not unduly influenced in either language. If teachers use bilingual books as teaching tools, they can be effective in facilitating emergent bilinguals and motivating them to be confident and joyful readers.

Child-Centered Literacy

Children's literacy ability is one of the crucial determinations of learning. If children have a higher level of literacy skills, they can attain better comprehension and cognitive development. In Taiwan, teaching English is still teacher-directed in most traditional classrooms. The teacher determines the instructional goals that simply satisfy the requirement of tests instead of addressing children's interests and desires for learning. However, the outcome of learning English is usually inefficient. Many children cannot read or write independently, and gradually they experience reduced confidence and interest in learning English.

Conversely, child-centered concepts benefit both teachers and children. Teachers begin to understand children, and then empower children to become lifelong learners. Moreover, children take charge of their learning, discover their voices in the classroom, and
experience meaningful learning processes. This section focuses on investigating child-centered education and reviewing how a child-centered philosophy applies to children’s literacy.

**Child-Centered Education**

Child-centered education is based on the child as the core of learning process. The focus is on understanding how children learn as well as what they need and what interests them (Pickett, 1993). Crain (2003) claimed that child-centered educators should emphasize the growing process of children, rather than their teaching goals. Also, Dewey (1902) argued “the child is the starting-point, the center, and the end. His [sic] development, his growth, is the ideal” (p. 9). In child-centered philosophy, each child is considered to be unique. Even though children share a similar learning process, they possess distinctive characteristics, talents, and interests. Therefore, the educator needs to guide children to discover their own interests, and then provide opportunities to motivate their desire for learning (Crain, 2003). Likewise, Dewey and Dewey (1962) asserted that children must have a desirable and conscious need for learning, and then the teacher should provide
appropriate support in order to meet the children’s desire.

Dewey and Dewey (1962) stated that when children are willing to learn, this positive attitude is more valuable than having them do difficult tasks, or compelling attention and obedience. Actually, child-centered educators believe that children’s attitudes and feelings toward learning are the most significant variables that influence children’s natural development (Crain, 2003). Furthermore, children’s developing knowledge should be a natural process instead of being confined in a limited space (Fishman & McCarthy, 1998). Children have natural curiosity and inner urges to work on various tasks or activities with high energy and concentration. Hence, it is not necessary to punish, praise, grade, and criticize children during the learning process (Crain, 2003). Once they engage in tasks and feel responsible for learning, the teacher does not need to monitor children closely every moment (Wells, 1986).

According to Dewey and Dewey (1962), children have their own particular ways of thinking, seeing, and feeling when they learn. That is, “children teach themselves” (Dewey, 1962, p. 17). They should have free choices to learn what they want to learn and develop their
capacities. On the other hand, the teacher should play a mediating role to sustain children's current stage naturally (Crain, 2003). In addition, because the children live in a narrow world based around personal contact, such as family and friends, they must touch and experience things while learning. Fisher (2001) emphasized that learning skills should be experienced instead of memorized. Child-centered teachers function as "facilitators and mediators in order for the awareness, articulation and continued application of the skills of learning to occur" (p. 58).

Crain (2003) provided a checklist of attitudes children display that is educated in the child-centered environment: interests, concentration, tranquility, independence, exuberance, and grace. When children are interested in the tasks they are working on, this is an indication that meaningful learning is occurring. Meanwhile, children display concentration and tranquility when activities satisfy their inner needs and enhance confidence. Further, children display independence, enthusiasm, and elegance while they are engaging in an activity.

In sum, children should be the center of learning and teaching. Because children possess different talents and
interests, the child-centered educator needs to create an environment that can motivate their interests and promote further capacities. By respecting children’s choices and natural development, the educator must be an important mediator to assist children who possess positive attitudes in learning.

Applying Child-Centered Philosophy to Literacy

According to The International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS), the definition of literacy is “the ability to understand and use printed information in daily activities at home, at work and in the community to achieve one’s goals and to develop one’s knowledge and potential” (cited in Fisher, 2001). Moreover, Harp (1991) asserted that literacy learning is self-generated, informal, active, holistic, and variable. In order to promote children’s literacy abilities to higher levels, educators should focus on children’s needs and learning processes. Children’s literacy requires a child-centered philosophy as the foundation. For example, Searfoss and Readence (1985) claimed children’s needs and abilities should be the center of reading programs. They proposed seven essential characteristics of a child-centered reading program, as follows:
1. Reflects instruction by teachers who understand the reading process and how it operates.
2. Creates a learning environment that accepts the prior knowledge and language ability of children.
4. Requires that children actively participate in their learning, thus sharing in the responsibility for the success of the program.
5. Provides professionally planned and organized reading instruction.
6. Assesses progress in learning to read.
7. Assists children who encounter difficulty learning to read, through coordinating regular classroom instruction with additional, special instruction (p. 3).

In fact, applying the child-centered concept to literacy is prevalent in contemporary education. Whole-language teaching, an excellent example, integrates language, psychology, and pedagogy to extend children's capacities in literacy. In addition, the statement of Learner-Centered Psychological Principles proposed by APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs in 1997
provides a good framework to develop effective instruction, curricula, and assessment in literacy.

**Whole-Language Instruction**

Whole-language teaching is "a child-centered, literature-based approach to teach language that immerses students in real communication situations whenever possible" (Froese, 1991, p. 2). Harp (1991) also emphasized, "whole-language instruction is a total literacy immersion program" (p. 3). The teacher uses all kinds of textual materials to guide children engaging in linguistic activities. In addition, proponents outline three fundamental concepts of whole language. First, they believe language is a natural human activity that people use for communicating with each other. Second, because each child is unique, learning and teaching methods should be personalized. Third, language should be integrated rather than isolated from the children's world (Froese, 1991).

Generally, whole-language instruction draws from three major perspectives: linguistics, psychology, and pedagogy. Figure 1 illustrates the contribution of various disciplines to whole-language teaching (see Figure 2). In the linguistic perspective, children learn language by developing "a metalinguistic awareness" (Froese, 1991,
p. 7); that is, they develop language capacities through talking or monitoring, and then finally attaining proficiency. Hence, whole-language instruction is based on children’s internalization of language, while strengthening the parts which are less developed, such as reading and writing.

From the psychological perspective, because the recent studies of learning language takes into account psychological factors, such as motivation or clarifying purposes, whole-language teaching encourages that learners possess the capacities of independent thinking when they learn language, like analyzing, judging, and correcting meaning. From the pedagogical perspective, whole-language instruction is built on solid educational research. For instance, child-centered education, meaning-construction procedure in reading programs, collaborative learning, and so forth are implemented in the whole-language classroom because research in these areas provides whole-language educators with effective pedagogies (Froese, 1991).

Literacy instruction based on the whole-language concept should be natural and holistic (Shapiro, 1991). Similarly, Goodman (1986) contended that the best way to learn language was in integrative and natural contexts.
For children, learning language should take place within a unified curriculum; however, for teachers, instruction should focus on both linguistic and cognitive development. Moreover, children should practice oral and written language functions in contexts that connect with real knowledge and experiences. For instance, children can "read familiar, meaningful wholes first, predictable materials that draw on concepts and experiences they already have" (p. 43). Goodman (1986) also suggested that
the second-language learners needed to be immersed in real speech and literacy events, with the teacher acting as a guide to help learners use written language to learn.

Whole-language evaluation is very different from that of traditional practice. Whole-language evaluation is a natural outcome that is "visible in the processes of creating responses to the environment set up in the classroom" (Bertrand, 1991, p. 26). Furthermore, evaluation is ongoing during teaching and learning. The teacher uses interaction, observation, and analysis to evaluate children informally and formally (Goodman, Goodman, & Hood, 1989). King (1991) argued that whole-language evaluation is intended to fit the learner rather than making the learner fit an evaluation model. Therefore, "evaluation is purposeful in facilitating learning" and it is "an integral part of the ongoing activity" (p. 166).

In sum, children learning in whole-language classrooms display higher cognitive complexity than children in traditional classrooms (Shapiro, 1991). Whole-language teaching emphasizes that learning language is a natural process. The teacher should understand each child's needs and facilitate children's immersion in the literacy environment. The learning curricula or materials
integrate linguistics into authentic contexts. Meanwhile, evaluation in whole-language instruction must be a dynamic, ongoing, and informative part of the learning and teaching process.

**Learner-Centered Psychological Principles**

A framework that underlies learner-centered instruction is called Learner-Centered Psychology (LCP). Because understanding how children learn, think, and are motivated is an effective way to improve teaching and learning, the 14 principles of LCP focus on the application of psychological factors to human learning. The goal of these principles is to contribute to America's educational reform and guide children, teachers, and education systems to develop positive learning attitudes (APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs, 1997).

The 14 principles are divided into four factors: cognitive and metacognitive, motivational and affective, developmental and social, and individual difference. First, LCP emphasizes that successful learners are responsible for their learning. They construct meaning and knowledge from applying information and experience to new learning. Educators should help learners to set learning goals which are connected to individual interests and
objectives. In addition, learners should not only understand how to apply alternative strategies in various situations, but also possess creative and critical thinking. Educators can tap learner's cultural backgrounds or utilize technological instruction to enrich the learning environment (APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs, 1997).

Second, motivation and emotion are two significant factors in learning. Positive emotions facilitate high motivation, as well as creativity, critical thinking, and curiosity. Emotions also motivate learning. LCP suggests that implementing purposeful learning activities in improving learning and enhancing positive emotions by motivation are effective (APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs, 1997).

Third, educators should be aware that individual development varies, so learners need enjoyable and interesting materials to facilitate learning. Meanwhile, educators must devote themselves to establishing a positive climate for learning (APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs, 1997).

Fourth, addressing individual diversity, educators need different strategies to satisfy learners' needs. Furthermore, establishing assessment systems to diagnose
learning progress is an effective way to understand what learners know and need (APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs, 1997).

Applying LCP to literacy, Bansberg (2003) argued "classroom environment, effective instructional strategies, and an ongoing assessment process" are the critical factors to teach literacy (p. 142). In the classroom, the teacher provides children with plentiful print and literacy resources. In addition, Burns, Griffin, and Snow (1999) stated requirements for an optimum reading environment: (a) a well-supplied, well-designed space; (b) a regular daily routine; (c) strong parent-teacher communication; (d) strong teaching methods and teamwork among teachers; (e) a varied curriculum; (f) language experiences; and (g) literacy experiences (p. 45).

Based on the LCP perspective, the teacher needs to make more effort to understand second-language learners. Bansberg (2003) suggested a learner-centered teacher should create ways to understand each student because no one has the same background, culture, and experience. To be familiar with various programs and effective strategies is necessary in order to meet students' needs and value their cultures. Furthermore, appropriate materials also facilitate students as they encounter challenges in
learning the second language. Second-language learners must comprehend knowledge in the first language and then transfer it to English. Therefore, the teacher should supply research-based books, audiotapes, CDs, and so forth in both English and the first language.

Henk (1985) claimed that "the assessment of reading skills and abilities is an important part of the teaching-learning process" (p. 281). He continued to state that effective assessment can provide information for the teacher. For example, it helps the teacher to know learners' strengths and weaknesses in order to choose proper materials before instruction. During instruction, the teacher may consider adjusting strategies based on assessment. Finally, assessment also can be the reference for understanding how much students have learned.

Likewise, Bansberg (2003) emphasized that a continuous improvement model facilitates literacy because the model can provide current, dynamic, and predictable information for the teacher. If the database system is regularly updated and analyzed, the teacher can utilize the data to review the success of instructional strategies. Moreover, the teacher can use the analysis for discussion with students; however, the discussion should be "based on data rather than opinion" (p. 146). In short,
the perspective of LCP focuses on ongoing assessment that is valuable for both students and teachers to achieve literacy goals.

Summary

Child-centered literacy facilitates children in reading and writing effectively. Children should be the center of a natural learning process. When teachers establish a child-centered, authentic, and textual environment in the literacy classroom, children display positive attitudes toward learning naturally. Meanwhile, evaluating children before instruction is as important as evaluation after teaching because the assessment provides information for teachers about children's needs. In addition, for an EFL teacher, it is essential to be aware of children's talents, interests, and cultures. Then the teacher can act as a mediator to help children develop their own path of learning. When children possess proficient literacy, they can explore and broaden knowledge independently and become lifelong learners.

Mediated Learning

Children have diverse and unique abilities to learn. Reuven Feuerstein (as cited in Skuy, 1996) argued that children's intelligence is not fixed from birth. If the
educational environment provides appropriate support and strategies, a child’s intelligence will be stimulated and enhanced. Support during the learning process is called mediated learning.

Mediated learning requires humanity and flexibility to be effective. The role of teachers of young English learners in the EFL context is to enhance motivation and promote independent thinking. Lev Vygotsky (1978) developed the concept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD). He believed that “pedagogy creates learning processes that lead development” (Blank, 1990, p. 50).

Based on the concept of the ZPD, ways for teachers to provide scaffolding or use negotiated strategies to promote students’ performance is discussed in this section, along with a discussion of the recommended role of the teacher in the mediated EFL context.

The Meaning of Mediated Learning

Meir (1998) argued that people usually use preconceived notions and previous learning experiences to learn new knowledge and events. Sometimes, people may need to broaden their previous notions and experience in order to acquire new knowledge. However, such modifications cannot happen without intervention or mediation. Likewise, Vygotsky (Meir, 1998) explained why learners need mediated
learning. Vygotsky thought that the origin of our concepts of the world comes from early learning, such as language, culture, and religion. However, children cannot learn without help from parents, caretakers, and siblings who function as mediators during the learning process.

Piaget’s direct approach (Skuy, 1996) can be represented as S-O-R. That is, the organism (O) stands between stimuli (S) and response (R). This kind of learning is incidental and unreliable--effective learning may or may not happen. On the other hand, Feuerstein emphasized mediated learning, which is S-H-O-H-R. “H” stands for “human mediator,” who stands between the stimuli and the organism as well as between the organism and its response: both the stimuli and response are mediated. The mediators “interpret, guide and give meaning to the stimuli” (p. 2) and guide the response. Therefore, mediated learning is intentional. Similarly, Wilhelm, Baker, and Dube (2001) emphasized that humane teaching can stimulate “new interests, new ways of doing things, and new states of being” (p. 21).

Feuerstein also claimed that mediators act as keys that open the door between learners and the world. Mediators promote learners’ cognitive development by making learning meaningful (Meir, 1998). Learners begin to
learn and think when mediators provide appropriate stimuli and response. This kind of interaction gradually helps students to achieve the ultimate goal, being efficient learners and thinkers (Seng, 2000).

In addition, Meir (1998) presented Feuerstein’s criteria of mediated learning. The three most important criteria are intentionality and reciprocity, transcendence, and meaning. First, the teacher should play the role of mediator intentionally among students, and between students and the content, guiding students to interact or share experience and thoughts with each other. The teacher can use alternative instruction to engage and motivate students. Asking questions is usually the best way to trigger students’ internal motivation.

Transcendence as a criterion for mediated learning means learning is focused on more than the here-and-now. Students transcend the immediate learning object and context when they transfer the ability to organize from the objects of learning to different objects and events. Consequently, the teacher should focus on learning processes instead of content.

The third criterion of the mediated learning experience emphasizes the discovery of meaning. The teacher may use comparison, classification, or
investigation to assist students to clarify the meaning of the given content.

In sum, Feuerstein believed that intelligence is flexible. Mediators need to interpose systematically between stimulation and responses in the learning process, so that learners can boost their cognitive competencies and ultimately become independent thinkers. Meanwhile, Skuy argued that “mediation is a dynamic and open process,” so the teacher should not be rigid about Feuerstein’s criteria. Instead, criteria can be mixed flexibly in order to deal with various situations (p. 3).

**The Zone of Proximal Development**

The zone of proximal development (ZPD) is one of Vygotsky’s most significant concepts. He defined ZPD as “the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). He claimed children internalize and transform the assistance they receive from others in the ZPD. Subsequently, they use such support to guide their own behaviors (Moll, 1990). Tharp and Gallimore (1988) explained that the results of such transformation are new processes of higher-order
cognition, values, and motivation. Therefore, Vygotsky (1978) emphasized, "What a child can do with assistance today she will be able to do by herself tomorrow" (p. 87).

Meanwhile, Moll (1990) argued that central to the ZPD is the nature of social transactions. That is, the ZPD is not only the process of teaching and learning individually but also the participation in collaborative activity in order to improve cognitive development. Vygotsky (1978) claimed, "the intellectual skills children acquire are related to how they interact with others in specific problem-solving environments" (p. 11).

Ohta (2000) elaborated on Vygotsky's statement, "Learning is a socially situated activity" (p. 53). When learners implement learning in a social environment, they will finally be able to perform independently. Ohta (2000) claimed that the interaction opens a window to promote the developmental processes because interaction pushes learners forward to their potential level. Teachers, experts or other capable peers interact with learners through "demonstration, leading questions, and by introducing the initial elements of the task's solution" (Moll, 1990, p. 11). Through this interaction and assistance, learning processes can be internalized and
become a part of the developmental achievement of independence (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).

Wilhelm et al. (2001) showed that instruction and learning takes place in the ZPD. In other words, teachers, peers, and other learning environment factors that provide assistance to children can occur only within the ZPD, or teaching will be ineffective. According to Vygotsky’s view, teaching leads learning to development rather than responds to it, when teaching takes place in the ZPD. Besides providing assistance in the ZPD, teachers convey their “consciousness, knowledge, and methods of thinking” (p. 16) to students in order to evoke students’ awareness and capability of choosing what they want. Wilhelm et al. (2001) critiqued the function of natural-language learning because learning does not simply follow students’ paths. In contrast, students need appropriate challenges and consciousness to learn.

Tharp and Gallimore (1988) developed a model with four stages to describe the developmental progression through the ZPD, especially focused on the relationship between self-control and social control. Stage I is “where performance is assisted by more capable others” (p. 13). At first, the capable others who may be the parent, teacher, or other capable peers provide directions or
modeling, and then children acquiesce and imitate. Later, conversation plays an important role. Through language or other semiotic processes, questions, feedback, and further cognitive structuring, children gradually perform better. As learning proceeds, the adult’s responsibility for students’ performance steadily declines; conversely, the children’s portion is increased.

Tharp and Gallimore (1988) defined stage II as “where performance is assisted by the self” (p. 36). However, it does not mean children’s performance is completely developed or automatized. In this stage, children begin to guide their behavior by self-directed speech rather than listening to others. It also is regarded as a stage where the learner gradually acquires the “voice” to learn; external regulations are internalized and transmuted to thought. Basically, between stage I and II is the zone of proximal development. When the phenomenon of self-regulation vanishes, children emerge from the ZPD into Stage III.

Tharp and Gallimore (1998) continued that in Stage III, “where performance is developed, automatized, and fossilized,” assistance is not needed because the performance has already been developed (p. 38). Stage IV is “where de-automatization of performance leads to
recursion back through the ZPD” (p. 38). Tharp and Gallimore (1988) explained that lifelong learning has the sequence from other-assistance to self-assistance, and recurs each time new capacities are developed. When children encounter difficulty in the learning process, they can ask more competent people for help. Furthermore, “enhancement, improvement, and maintenance of performance provide a recurrent cycle of self-assistance to other-assistance” (p. 39).

Vygostsky’s concept of the ZPD has indeed influenced contemporary education. The ZPD is the distance between actual and potential level, and self-assistance and other-assistance. Effective teaching and learning should be implemented within the ZPD. Through social interaction, children will use self-directed speech and achieve self-regulation. Eventually, they move from the ZPD to automatization.

**Scaffolding**

The concept of scaffolding was initially derived from the verbal interaction between parents and young children as shown by Wood, Bruner, and Ross in 1976 (Graves & Fitzgerald, 2003). Diaz-Rico (2004) explained that a scaffold in the world of construction is a temporary support used when workers construct a new building.
Likewise, scaffolding helps the learner accumulate knowledge in constructivist teaching. Wood and his colleagues defined scaffolding as "a process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task, or achieve a goal which would be beyond his [or her] unassisted efforts" (Graves & Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 97). In Vygotsky's theory, students complete tasks successfully with appropriate help (Wilhelm et al., 2001).

Once students achieve their goals and become independent learners, scaffolding is withdrawn. Therefore, as Graves and Fitzgerald (2003) noted, scaffolding is a temporary and supportive structure. The teacher should gradually decrease assistance and transfer the responsibility of learning to the student. After students possess the competence of accomplishing a task independently, the scaffold can be dispensed with. Obviously, the scaffold must be geared toward the zone of proximal development because the ZPD is the only range in which the teacher can provide support to students.

Furthermore, Berk and Winsler (1995) argued that scaffolding is interactive and intersubjective. Teachers not only focus on interesting, meaningful, and collaborative approaches to assist students, but students also share different ideas with others and stimulate
better approaches. In addition, teachers usually use the attitude of concern, warmth, responsiveness, praise, and feedback during scaffolding in order to motivate students. According to Vygotskian learning theory, "scaffolding should be concrete, external, and visible" (Wilhelm et al., 2001, p. 19). Similarity, they emphasized that scaffolding must begin with student's experience and then introduce further strategies.

Regarding the role of the teacher in scaffolding, Webb and Farivar (1999) emphasized that the teacher's role is to model behavior, to give examples, and to observe students' targeted skills. Rasku-Puttonen, Etelapelto, Arvaja, and Hakkinen (2003) suggested the teacher play a co-ordinating role and be an active partner in co-constructing the learning activity. During the process of learning, the teacher continuously monitors the students' level and provides proper assistance. Thus, the scaffolding is flexible to meet students' needs and facilitate their learning; meanwhile, the teacher needs to be sensitive and aware of the need to adjust the instructional scaffolding to different students and various kinds of tasks. Warwick and Maloch (2003) proposed, "the teacher is able to mediate learning so that groups and individuals develop an understanding of both
the concepts and the means of communication appropriate to the context” (p. 54).

Wilhelm et al. (2001) concluded, "The scaffold is the environment the teacher creates, the instructional support, and the processes and language that are lent to the student in the context of approaching a task and developing the abilities to meet it” (p. 18). It is characterized as a temporary, flexible, interactive, and mediated approach. Through scaffolded instruction, learners can move from other-regulated behavior to self-regulated behavior (Tharp & Gallimore, 1998).

**Negotiated Learning**

New (1998) showed that children nowadays depend not only on direct sociocultural context, but also on negotiation or socially constructed meanings present in the learning environment. Forman and Fyfe (1998) also noted the central idea of children’s education today is to help them to find meaning, to negotiate with each other, and to utilize communication, narrative, and metaphor. They further described the theory of negotiated learning: "knowledge is gradually constructed by people becoming each other’s student, by taking a reflective stance toward each other’s constructs, and by honoring the power of each other’s initial perspective for negotiating a better
understanding of subject matter" (p. 239). That is, knowledge is obtained by negotiated learning.

Davenport, Jaeger, and Lauritzen (1995) argued that teachers and students negotiate the initial curricular plan. The teacher guides the students to choose authentic topics that are meaningful, relevant, and interesting for them. In the process of negotiation, students have the lead role and the freedom to make choices. They are encouraged to reflect on their learning and achievements individually or collectively. In addition, assessment continues to be integrated primarily with students' attitudes, motivation, involvement, and developing intelligence.

Forman and Fyfe (1998) also claimed that children uncover their beliefs and are encouraged to discuss what they know before learning the topics. The teacher forms a community of children, parents, and other adults in order to share and negotiate the meanings of content and social knowledge. The community is "child originated and teacher framed" (p. 240). The teacher does not merely teach children, but studies children and learns with them. Forman and Fyfe (1998) proposed three components, design, documentation, and discourse, to define negotiated learning in a dynamic system.
First, design means that children record their plans or intended solutions when they begin with an activity. They can use any media, such as drawings, a clay fountain, or a wire figure. Because the design will be reviewed later, it must be crafted and have the design function rather than simply recording itself. The second one is discourse, which refers to "a deep desire to understand each others' words" (p. 241). Discourse is a reflective study and an analysis of communication in order to seek further understanding. The third component is documentation, which is "central to negotiated learning" (p. 241). It provides more adequate details to help others reach deeper levels of understanding. However, it is not a record of individual progress. Instead, it is a form of explaining that further explores the deeper meaning of children's learning.

Forman and Fyfe (1998) noted these three components interact with each other to form a system of relations. They gave an example to interpret these relations. Four children draw plans for a moon village (design). They presented their drawing to peers and explained their ideas (design affects discourse). Then the teachers used an audiotape to record the explanations and analyze
children's assumptions about conditions on the moon (discourse affects documentation).

Negotiated learning guides children to understand the real meaning of context, to negotiate ideas, and to analyze the learning process. Through the negotiation process, children start to think and digest what they learn and what they want to learn. Furthermore, negotiated learning is quite different from other instructional strategies. The teacher provides a free environment to students to discuss the subject; on the other hand, the teacher still needs to observe and record students' development. Therefore, design, discourse, and documentation comprise a dynamic system, three components of negotiated learning. Negotiated learning provides meaningful and integrated learning (Davenport et al., 1995).

Summary

Children's learning cannot take place without a mediated role. In the EFL context, English teachers are the mediators who should be humanistic and help children to explore their potential while learning English. Meanwhile, efficient teaching and learning takes place in the ZPD where English teachers can use mediated learning, scaffolding, or negotiated learning to enhance students'
development of cognition and achieve an appropriate level of independent learning.

Socially Situated Reading Practices
The power of language is open-ended and unlimited. When people use language in various situations or contexts, they can create diverse possibilities in meaning because language is negotiable and transformable (Gee, 1999). The purpose of this section is to examine how situated meaning works in words, sentences, and texts, starting from the notion of situated cognition, fundamental to an understanding of learning. Situated learning is always linked to the social and cultural environment that contextualizes meanings. In this, I take a sociocultural approach, supplementing a psychological perspective. Finally, I will explain how situated meaning influences reading practices in various cultural contexts.

Situated Cognition
Situated cognition is an important theory that has fostered meaningful learning activities both in and out of school (Altalib, 2002). "Meaningful learning" refers to a learning context that makes sense to learners. Learners should be able to apply knowledge to various situations, solve problems, and even develop new knowledge. Through
participating in a social community, learners acquire knowledge and skills starting from being peripheral participators who engage in general activities, and then building gradually toward central specific expertise. Hansman and Wilson (2002) pointed out that the power of a theory of situated cognition is that it provides opportunity for teachers and students alike to enhance their knowledge, skills, and abilities within a social community.

**Concepts of Situated Learning.** The most effective learning occurs when knowledge is created and used in a specific context (Lauzon, 1999). Lave (1988) argued "everyday activity is a more powerful source of socialization than intentional pedagogy" (p. 14) and "the most powerful knowledge takes place in the 'lived-in world'" (p. 14). However, everyday activity does not refer to any particular time, roles, or settings. Instead, the activity occurs in people's daily lives. In other words, learning should take place in the real world because it is the "fundamental co-production of the mind and world" (Hung, 2002, p. 394).

Moreover, Stein (1998) defined learning as not only the process of creating meaning by authentic activities, but also the connection of ongoing experience and various
contexts in the real world. Similarly, knowledge should be
gained through individual thinking and acting, and then
transferred to any situation. Learners should possess the
ability to apply knowledge in any other settings (Hansman
& Wilson, 2002). In addition, situated learning provides
the opportunity for learners to renegotiate past meaning
and construct present meaning. For instance, stories can
always convey more ideas than the idea itself (Lave &
Wenger, 1991). Further, when learners are in a difficult
situation, they can apply information that they already
know to solve novel problems. This may result in obtaining
new knowledge (Hung, 2002).

Lave and Wenger (1991) stated that situated learning
emphasizes that learners become involved with whole
knowledge rather than only receive a part; that is, the
learner, activity, and the world must be connected with
each other in order to establish the concept of whole
knowledge. In order to explore various perspectives,
beliefs, and values, a learner must be involved actively
and socially in a community. Learning does not work in "an
individual mind"; instead, learners need to interact with
people and participate in activities embedded in the
learning context (p. 15).
Stein (1998) proposed four elements of situated learning: content, context, community, and participation. Content refers to "the facts and processes of the task." It allows learners to dialogue, negotiate, and solve problems (p. 3). Context means a learning environment that provides learners opportunities to interact with others and experience different perspectives from various people. Community provides the opportunity for learners to engage in social interaction and negotiate the meaning of knowledge with other members. Participation enables the learners to exchange ideas, solve problems, and establish meaning systems among the participants of a community. Stein continued to define learning as having four premises:

(1) Learning is grounded in the actions of everyday situations; (2) knowledge is acquired situationally and transfers only to similar situations; (3) learning is the result of a social process encompassing ways of thinking, perceiving, problem solving, and interacting in addition to declarative and procedural knowledge; and (4) learning is not separated from the world of action but exists in robust,
complex, social environments made up of actors, actions, and situations. (p. 2)

In short, situated learning that helps learners apply knowledge to situated contexts is efficient. Learners need to observe, share, and interact in a social environment to gain broader perspectives and knowledge.

Legitimate Peripheral Participation. The concept of legitimate peripheral participation provides a viewpoint to examine the relationship between learners and the learning environment. Lave and Wenger (1991) started from the idea of apprenticeship, and then developed the notion of legitimate peripheral participation (LPP). They claimed LPP is a way of understanding learning rather than pedagogy or teaching technique. When learners are engaged in situated learning, they need to fully participate in a community to master the available knowledge and skills in order to become old-timers. Likewise, Altalib (2002) stated, "when newcomers as peripheral participants interact with old timers, they gradually gain skills and knowledge and then become old timers as time passes" (p. 6).

However, the newcomers cannot just imitate or represent the same performance as the master. On the other hand, the master cannot only deliver his or her “own
conceptual representations" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, pp. 21-22) to the apprentices. It is essential for the master to provide learners the space for growing rather than to repeat the same static learning structures.

Lave and Wenger (1991) argued that instructors should construct "a learning curriculum" instead of "a teaching curriculum" (p. 97). They noted that a learning curriculum provides situated opportunities in everyday practice and engages participants to share what they are doing and what they want to convey in the communities. Consequently, the place of knowledge is within the community of practice. Participants in self-organized and selected groups have the same purpose, and make a commitment to learn from each other (Hansman & Wilson, 2002). Learning through legitimate peripheral participation does not simply occur in a situated context, but also helps learners to participate actively as they move from peripheral to central roles.

**Situated Reading**

Reading practices are situated. Teachers help students look for situated meanings of words using different cultural models and immerse them in a community of practice in order to link their literacy practices to social and cultural environments.
Situated Meanings. Gee (1999) stated the human mind does not work as a rule follower but a pattern recognizer that finds patterns and extracts from previous experiences. However, the patterns follow the "'Goldilocks principle': they are not too general and not too specific"; that is, "midlevel generalization" (p. 48). Gee used as an example the word "coffee." People may have various ideas drawn from their own experience to state the concept of coffee, such as dark liquid, beans in a bag, or ground coffee. Gee (2000a) called these midlevel generalizations "situated meanings."

Situated meanings are not static; conversely, they are flexible and transformable. The process of constructing specific situated meanings of words is always adapted to certain experience or contexts. They are like assemblies that link with certain sorts of contexts. For example, "shoe" has different assemblies in different contexts. A formal "shoe" is for a wedding party and an athletic "shoe" is for a basketball game. Thus, situated meanings are images or patterns which are based on the given context and past experiences (Gee, 1999, p. 47).

Situated meanings are also full of potential because words are circulated through different discourses and institutions. Some meanings may be used in some
situations, but other meanings are still potentially open to other new settings. This is so-called “intertextuality”; that is, words are based on their historical meanings and intermingle with other texts to transform or create new meanings (Gee, 1999).

Cultural Models. Meanings are situated not only by various patterns but also by social and cultural factors. Holland and Naomi (1987) argued that culture is shared knowledge that plays an important role in understanding the world. Through cultural knowledge, people can understand what other people do and think. Likewise, words that are involved with different social and cultural groups are able to create situated meanings because these groups have different ways of thinking, acting, and talking (Gee, 1999). For instance, different cultures define “beauty” in various ways (Chan, 1996).

Situated meanings in different cultural models express feeling and thinking that are not merely definitions. The cultural models can help to understand the possibilities for the particular sociocultural settings because “a cultural model is usually a totally or partially unconscious explanatory theory or ‘storyline’ connected to a word” (Gee, 1999, p. 44). Furthermore, cultural models do not usually exist in individual minds.
Rather, they reside in people’s communication or negotiation within the sociocultural group. Also, new situated meanings will occur because of dynamic interaction, relationships, and development (Gee, 1999).

**Literacy Practices.** Barton and Hamilton (2000) pointed out literacy practices are a way in which social practices are embedded in literacy. Simply, “literacy practices are what people do with literacy” (p. 7). Individuals have various feelings, values, and social relationships involved in literacy. Therefore, literacy is a set of social practices. Meanwhile, “Literacies are situated” (Barton, Hamilton & Ivanič, 2000, p. 1). Different literacies are relevant to different domains of life that are shaped by different thinking and acting (Barton & Hamilton, 2000).

Gee (2000b) argued that New Literacy Studies (NLS) means that the literacy practices should interact with society and culture. Knowledge and meaning dynamically link up “people, environments, tools, technologies, objects, words, acts and symbols” (p. 184). For instance, Díaz-Rico (2004) suggested international students in the United States might learn American culture from bulletin boards, or use the Internet to contact with home culture.
in order to develop new viewpoints from everyday practices.

Situated Meanings in Reading. Gee (2000a, 2000b) emphasized that situated meanings applied to reading with specific social practices play an important role because words and context reflect each other simultaneously as mirrors. Developing situated meaning, readers pay attention on either the specifics of the text or the general themes. He explored an example from Lowry Hemphill’s (1992) study to illustrate how readers situate meanings in the reading texts. Two high school students from different socioeconomic backgrounds read Robert Frost’s poem “Acquainted with the Night.”

One of the students situated the poem’s meanings using sentences that expressed what she thought and felt about the author. She found significant meanings from her everyday life and experience. In her cultural model of reading, she focused on interaction and relationship in social settings. For example, she responded to the line “I have passed by the watchman on his beat” as “something has happened badly and the watchman cannot stop it”. On the other hand, another student recognized situated meanings related with universal emotions and themes. For example,
she thought that taking different paths was like making different decisions, and that clocks symbolized life.

In the process of reading, teachers should mediate students to focus on the features of language in contexts and motivate them to recognize meanings in various situations (Gee, 2000a). Students share situated meaning based on their own experience, sociocultural backgrounds, and different settings while they are reading. Situated reading practices can bring students broader and profounder views of the world.

The Sociocultural Approach

The differences in psychological processes between humans and animals are the result of cultural mediation, historical development, and practical activity. Cultural mediation is the basic idea that refers to cultural artifacts that coordinate humans and the world. Vygotsky believed that "the internalization of culturally produced sign systems brings about behavioral transformations and forms the bridge between early and later forms of individual development" (Wertsch, 1991, p. 7). In addition, cultural mediation changes human psychological functions essentially and historically. Finally, culture mediates humans to process specific capabilities in learning (Cole, 1990).
Wertsch (1991) argued that a sociocultural approach is a way to understand "how mental action is situated in cultural, historical, and institutional settings" (p. 15). He proposed three basic themes based on Vygotsky's approach:

(1) a reliance on genetic, or developmental, analysis; (2) the claim that higher mental functioning in the individual derives from social life; and (3) the claim that human action, on both the social and individual planes, is mediated by tools and signs. (p. 19)

According to Wertsch (1991), Vygotsky emphasized that higher mental functioning is located in social life. Children's cultural development has two planes. First, it appears on the social plane, which is an interpsychological category between people. And later, it takes place on the psychological plane which is an intrapsychological category. Furthermore, Vygotsky argued that higher mental functions do not simply copy social processes. Instead, the function needs to involve in internalization.

From the perspective of the sociocultural approach, an individual's learning is mediated by social life. Teachers should guide students to explore their lived
experiences, culture, and social environment, and then integrate these with the learning content.

**Utilizing Nature Cultural Content**

Díaz-Rico (2004) defined culture as referring not only to tangible objects or visible behaviors, but also to people's beliefs and values. She suggested, "the native culture and the target culture each provide rich content for instruction" (p. 268). The cultural content provides ideas for learning English more meaningfully and purposefully. Because each culture contains unique knowledge about successful living, one's own cultural knowledge is very useful for students in learning. Teachers should take advantage of cultural content to enhance students' appreciation of their own culture; furthermore, they can better understand perspectives of the target culture.

**Cultural Content Contextualizes Reading.** Reading books that are based on different cultural content is an effective way to contact other cultures. After reading, students may share conversations or interview parents and community members in order to understand various perspectives at a deeper level (Díaz-Rico, 2004).

**Students Develop Motivation in the Context of the Native Culture.** Díaz-Rico (2004) emphasized that using the
learners' culture to teach English "makes English more accessible" (p. 280) because native culture is the foundation of their learning. For example, Chinese fairy tales are very useful for young children in Taiwan. However, teachers need to pay attention to using accurate information in an authentic way and always keep a positive attitude about native culture and customs.

Summary

The most meaningful reading for students should be connected with their experiences and everyday activities; furthermore, various kinds of thinking and acting will bring situated meaning to students. They renegotiate various meanings and dialogue with others in order to obtain whole knowledge. During the learning process, their roles gradually move from peripheral to central. In addition, teachers should play a mediated role to lead students to construct situated meaning taking into account social and cultural factors. Indeed, taking advantage of literacy practices that interact with social and cultural contexts dynamically, teachers can serve as bridges to connect students, literacy, and the world.
Task-Based Learning with Young Learners

Since the Ministry of Education of Taiwan instituted the Educational Reform Action Program in 1999, English courses have been introduced into the elementary curriculum. The program drives the climate of learning English by young learners, and also infuses "pedagogic innovation" into English teaching; task-based approaches in particular are popular in Taiwan (Carless, 2003). Nevertheless, most teachers and parents still feel insecure about task-based learning because, unlike traditionally teacher-fronted instruction, it does not impact grades immediately and decisively. In order to clarify misconceptions about task-based learning, it is necessary to clarify the meaning of task-based learning and examine its potential influences on young learners in EFL classrooms.

This section first addresses the definitions of task and task-based learning (TBL) and then discusses the implementation of task-based instruction along with critical views of its efficacy. Then, this section further explores the issues of carrying out task-based learning with young learners in the EFL classroom.
The Definition of a Task

Skehan (1998a) gave four criteria to define a task: "Meaning is primary, there is a goal which needs to be worked towards, the activity is outcome-evaluated, and there is a real-world relationship" (p. 268). Many other studies are also consistent with these four criteria.

First, Willis (1996a) defined that "by 'task' I mean a goal-oriented activity in which learners use language to achieve a real outcome" (p. 53). Carless (2004) provided the more specific definition that "a task is an activity that involves using language, communicating within a situation that is authentic rather than just based in the classroom" (p. 658). Therefore, the goal of implementing a task is to allow learners to connect with real world by using communicative competence.

Meanwhile, the content of a task should be meaningful for learners. Nunan (1989) pointed out that "the task is a piece of meaning-focused work involving learners in comprehending, producing and/or interaction in the target language" (p. 11). Teachers should implement a task with specific meanings and goals. Because the content is related to learners, the "tasks are catalytic" to stimulate learners' motivation and achieve the learning goals (Skehan, 1998a, p. 269). As Murphy (2003) said that
using personalities and interests of learners can strengthen the authenticity of the task (p. 354). In other words, the meaningful tasks should allow learners to live in the authentic world.

For young learners, goal-oriented and meaning-focused tasks are more significant. Cameron (2003) observed that when children learn a foreign language, their tendencies bring them to “search for meaning and intention” (p. 107). Cameron (2003) gave an example about a Korean teacher of young learners. The teacher used the topic of food to practice the pattern of sentences, “I like....” Surprisingly, children got actively involved in this exercise. On the other hand, later the teacher used the names of their friends as the topic to create the interrogative sentences, “Do you like...?” This time, the children were somewhat afraid to answer the questions because the topic did not have meaning for children and does not motivate them toward learning goals (p. 107). Therefore, young learners require meaningful tasks and appropriate learning goals.

In addition, Willis (1996b) pointed out that learners use language to communicate with others; however, the form of language is not the purpose of tasks. A task indicates “an activity or action which is carried out as the result

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of processing or understanding language” (Lee, 1995). Furuta (2002) argued, “a task is a posed problem or an activity that has goal or outcome that is not linguistic but which is reached through a variety of linguistic skills” (p. 15). That is, a task does not produce language form, but uses language to achieve the goal of tasks.

The Definition of Task-Based Learning Instruction

Tasks-Centered. Furuta (2002) referred to task-based learning instruction (TBLI) is an approach in which learners use meaningful tasks to learn second language. Similarly, Richards & Rodgers (1986) argued that TBLI regards tasks as the core to planning and instructing a second language.

Negotiation of Meaning. Skehan (1998a) showed that meaningful tasks “do not simply produce a simple answer” (p. 272). During the process of learning, the learner needs to interact with others and receive feedback “to the learner him/herself” (p. 269). That is so-called negotiation of meaning. For example, activity A asks students to classify “sports” into different groups, such as individual and group sports. By contrast, Activity B requires that students survey classmates’ favorite foods. Apparently, Activity A is task-based learning because learners need to discuss in order to stimulate various
ideas to classify sports. Therefore, they have to negotiate with others to obtain the unanimity rather than simply answering yes/no questions (Asato, 2003).

The Learner-Centered Approach. Task-based learning focuses on learners instead of teachers. Asato (2003) emphasized that the learner-centered approach could encourage students to explore target language because they can understand what they need. Furthermore, learner-centered learning could be active and creative. Learners would make their own decisions and take responsibility for their learning. Unlike teacher-centered learning, learner-centered learning offers many opportunities to interact with other learners. When learners are having a hard time, Skehan (2002) asserted that learners can signal to their partners and receive feedback. "In this way, tasks can be a vehicle for individualization, and tasks can enable two learners to collaborate and go beyond their individual competences" (p. 291). Thus, task-based learning involves cooperative learning.

Implementing Task-Based Learning

Willis’s Model of Task-Based Instruction. Willis’s (1996b) model of task-based instruction features three main stages: pre-task, task-cycle, and language focus.
At the first stage, the purpose is to introduce the topic. The teacher implements the task and directs learners' attention to focus on the topic. The second stage has three sub-stages that are (1) doing the task, (2) engaging in planning post-task, and (3) reporting. This stage emphasizes language use in order to develop fluency, accuracy, and complexity. In planning post-task, learners draft and rehearse their public performance, so that they can learn from one each other. Then, they perform in public and focus on language form and accuracy. In the third stage, students analyze and practice language. Usually, the focus is to develop an aspect of the language system or practice-oriented work.

**Drawbacks to Willis's Model.** However, Skehan (1998b) addressed some drawbacks to Willis’s model. One of the disadvantages is that the model does not link effectively with other theories. Moreover, Willis does not provide the connection with research, such as lexical syllabi and pedagogic decisions. And, the approach does not explain clearly enough how to process the plans and systematic teaching. There is little connection with second-language acquisition and the nature of interlanguage development.

**Skehan's Model of Task-Based Instruction.** Skehan’s (1998b) model in implementing tasks is only a little
different from Willis's, but highlights those drawbacks. There are three sections: the pre-task phase, the during-task phase, and post-task activities. First of all, Skehan offers several reasons for using pre-task activities; for instance, introduce new language, mobilize and recycle language, ease processing load, and push learners to interpret tasks in more demanding ways. In the pre-task phase, teaching, consciousness raising, and planning are the three major types. The purpose of teaching is to introduce new language or restructuring to the interlanguage system. Consciousness-raising attempts raise awareness of language, but reduce cognitive complexity. Learners observe similar tasks by pre-reading or pre-listening, so that they can understand accurately what is required. Planning concentrates on enhancing fluency, accuracy, and complexity. Teachers may limit time but not guidance if accuracy is the focus. In contrast, teachers may provide guidance and allow learners planning-making time in order to achieve the ability of complexity.

In the during-task phase, Skehan (1998b) used two aspects, manipulation of attention and pedagogic decisions, to achieve the tasks. He stated that time pressure, modality, support, surprise, control, and stakes
are available to the teacher to trigger learners’ attention. Meanwhile, he recommended that teachers should reduce the degree of prominence accorded to form and focus learners on what they are doing. Teachers could give attention to form during the time span of the task, so learners would not lose either side.

In post-task activities, Skehan (1998b) emphasized two aims: altering attentional balance, and encouraging consolidation and reflection. When the task is being done, learners still have opportunities to modify their performances. Skehan recommended that teachers could record learners’ performances on video. Both teachers and learners analyze the individual’s performance. As a result, this could improve public performances. In addition, Skehan encouraged learners to restructure and find out the shortcomings in their interlanguage systems. Teachers may arrange spoken and written texts to analyze their earlier task activity.

Criticizing Skehan’s Framework. Bruton (2002a) proposed some questions to challenge Skehan’s task-based instruction. Skehan assumed that learners have limited capacity of attention to manipulate tasks, so he isolated various tasks in order to achieve oral production, correctness, fluency, and complexity. In fact, Bruton
stated that teachers could effectively sequence tasks in relation to each other. Moreover, Bruton observed that the topic of communication has serious limitations; open-ended oral communication tasks exclude initial listening-only approaches, and there is no evidence to represent about the way that language might be. Another critique is that the teacher is not involved in communication tasks, so that learners could develop classroom pidgins.

**Issues of Implementing Task-Based Learning Instruction with Young Learners.** Although task-based learning earned attention in many studies, Carless (2002) found out only a few items of research focusing on the EFL context. He observed three teachers who implemented task-based instruction in Hong Kong primary schools. He used qualitative research style to analyze data by recording lectures or interviewing teachers. Below are some findings from his analysis.

**Noise and Indiscipline.** Carless (2004) mentioned that in most Asia countries there remained “teacher-fronted activities” and “pair or group activities are less universally practiced” (p. 643). When those teachers carried out task-based instruction, they found increasing tension between discipline and communicative tasks. Usually, when students finished tasks quickly or were not
clearly informed what to do, they easily became off-task (Carless, 2002). Therefore, teachers spent too much time handling discipline in the classroom because the communicative approaches conflicted with the normal ethos of schooling (Carless, 2004).

Carless (2002) suggested that teachers should communicate more clearly their expectation to students before a task-based activity. Sometimes, teachers can appoint group leaders to supervise the noise level, or offer rewards to the best-behaved groups of children.

Using the Mother Tongue. Carless (2004) also noticed that the young learners frequently use the mother tongue to interact with others during pair and group communication. Swain and Lapkin (2000) claimed three main purposes for use of the mother tongue: moving the task along, focusing attention, and interpersonal interaction. Similarly, Carless (2002) found that the more complex and open-ended the task, the more the mother tongue was used. For instance, when children discuss strategies for completing the tasks, they attempt to use the mother tongue to clarify the meanings of tasks (Carless, 2004).

However, Carless (2002) recommended that teachers create an English-rich atmosphere. Even though students use the mother tongue to ask questions, teachers can give
feedback in English. Gradually, students will be accustomed to hearing English. Furthermore, teachers should teach the language of interaction or negotiation of meaning; for instance, “Can you repeat that?”, or “What do you mean?” Also, teachers should state the expectation clearly whether the activity allows the use of English or the primary language. Finally, he suggested that teachers accept a certain amount of primary language use in the classroom, as long as students still produce English language output. As Lee (2002) stated, even though the primary goal of foreign language teaching is to encourage learners to express themselves in the target language, it is also important that learners are able to share meaning-focused activity.

Pupil Involvement in Tasks. The third issue that Carless (2002) proposed is that pupils usually focus on completing tasks, but they ignore the importance of linguistic output. In order to implement tasks successfully, children will try their best, even without speaking English. In addition, only certain individuals may have the opportunity to speak English during task-based learning if teachers do not arrange activities properly and cautiously.
Carless (2002) provided some tentative suggestions. First, teachers should encourage all students to make oral contributions during classes. Therefore, teachers need to monitor students’ moves and reactions when they implement communicative activities. Then, all students should be allowed to be the leader in the group rather than this is restricted to a certain one during a period. Finally, teachers should arrange groups and time flexibly in order to provide more opportunities for students.

**Drawing and Coloring.** Carless (2002) found the fourth issue was limited linguistic output. Because most teachers are aware that young learners prefer drawing or coloring, teachers like to use these activities to stimulate students’ motivation. However, it usually limits the opportunities for speaking. For example, one of classes that Carless observed was learning the sentence, “from my classroom window, I can see....” Students were expected to draw pictures and write short text related to the picture. However, the students spent much time on drawing without producing target-language output. One of teachers reflected that “Sometimes I find that they enjoy doing those activities but how much did they really learn. I just wonder” (p. 395).
CHAPTER THREE
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The Emergent Biliteracy Environment in the English-as-a-Foreign-Language Context

In the twenty-first century, people living in different countries are growing closer than ever before. People benefit from ever-improving technologies that enhance transportation, communication, and economic development. Computers allow people to exchange vast quantities of information. Monolinguals cannot easily meet the linguistic challenges of globalization. As a result, being bilingual or trilingual has become a must.

Bilingual education is prevalent in Taiwan today, especially for young children. Parents believe that bilingual children are better equipped to face competition and thus to thrive in their future careers. In fact, English often receives more attention than Chinese, rather than a focus on developing both languages. Therefore, promoting competence in both languages is critical for young children in Taiwan.

Biliteracy requires two languages, supported by two cultures. Children should be proficient in their first language and culture, and then they will have more confidence to learn the second language. Biliterate
schooling not only must provide the knowledge and skills of two languages, but also dual-language content-area instruction. Literacy should become a part of children’s lives instead of merely consisting of vocabulary, grammar, and skills. Children also need to understand how language functions in literacy and how literacy opens one’s view toward the world.

In Taiwan, most teachers are higher directive during the learning process in the biliterate classroom. They usually lecture in front of the classroom during the whole class, but seldom allow children to connect literacy with their daily lives. The concept of child-centered literacy changes traditional instruction enormously. Children take a leading role and teachers serve as mediators who scaffold learning. Teachers provide reading materials that involve children’s lives and experiences, so both cultures can provide situated meaning for them.

Meanwhile, task-based learning supersedes lecture-oriented teaching. When children are assigned tasks, they need to utilize their cognition and intellect through language to achieve their goals. As children engage in doing hands-on activities, language becomes an effective tool to explore their biliterate world.
A Model of Emergent Biliteracy Practices

In Chapter Two, the literature review features five important concepts: emergent biliteracy practices, child-centered literacy, task-based learning with young learners, mediated learning, and socially situated reading practices. The five keywords can be conceptualized in an integrated way, forming a model of emergent biliteracy based on task-based learning and child-centered practices (see Figure 3). The model helps teachers establish a child-centered learning environment for emergent learners in order to enhance children’s biliteracy. In the learning process, teachers implement task-based activities that are meaningful, authentic, and goal-oriented. Teachers play mediated roles to explore children’s competence that is linked to social and cultural environments.

The model represented in Figure 3 combines child-centered literacy with three practices, mediated learning, socially situated reading practices, and task-based learning with young learners, to enhance emergent biliteracy. These practices support child-centered literacy in order to achieve the goal of biliteracy. Each dimension in the model will be discussed in turn.
Emergent Biliteracy Practices
- Sociocultural support for literacy
- Natural acquisition of literacy in a literate environment
- Parental involvement in literacy
- Motivational opportunities with rich biliterate resources

Figure 3. Theoretical Model of Biliteracy Practices
Emergent Biliteracy Practices

Establishing a biliteracy environment requires sociocultural support, so that children feel more comfortable immersed in such a context. Teachers provide ample biliteracy resources around the classroom in order to allow children to adapt to the biliterate environment naturally. At the same time, parental involvement is very important for biliterate learners. The competence of biliteracy can be developed both at school and at home. In addition, teachers should integrate various subjects into one unit, and encourage children to discover problems. Children have to resolve problems through both languages by listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Finally, they realize that developing biliteracy is meaningful and useful for them.

Child-Centered Literacy

Children’s needs and interests should be emphasized in order to motivate their desire to learn. When children participate actively in learning, they will have more confidence when they encounter difficulty. In addition, because each child is unique and has his or her own learning process, teachers need to act as mediators and follow children’s natural development. Meanwhile, teachers provide alternate choices for children so that they will
be in charge of their learning. When they make choices about their learning, learning becomes meaningful for them.

**Mediated Learning**

When learning occurs in the zone of proximal development (ZPD), teachers play important roles to mediate knowledge for children and promote independent learning. Because children’s intelligence is flexible, teachers need to provide various types of stimulation during the learning process. On the other hand, children learn through social activities. Teachers or other capable peers demonstrate and provide effective solutions for learners. During social interaction, learning becomes intentional and conscious rather than merely following children’s natural development.

Scaffolding and negotiated learning are effective ways to promote children’s independence as learners. Scaffolding is flexible because teachers can adjust the degree of involvement, and then dispense with scaffolding when children are able to learn independently. Negotiated learning helps children to look for meaning. Teachers observe, record, and analyze children’s learning during instruction.
Socially Situated Reading Practices

Children should be able to apply knowledge to various situations as they learn new knowledge. They learn from legitimate peripheral participation, ultimately becoming independent learners. Meanwhile, teachers can use a sociocultural approach to integrate children's experiences, culture, and social environment with their learning as they can lead children to develop situated meaning while they are reading. As a result, children will have broader views through situated reading.

Task-Based Learning with Young Learners

All activities implemented in the language instruction are task-centered and learner-centered. Children should be able to negotiate meaning to discuss content with peers and get response from others. Importantly, tasks should be meaningful, authentic, and goal-oriented for children; further, tasks can integrate prior knowledge and experience to create new meaning.

Applying the Theoretical Model in the English-as-a-Foreign-Language Context

The purpose of the theoretical model is to build a biliteracy environment for emergent learners. Children's needs should always be considered as the central part of their learning process. Teachers who implement task-based
learning in instructional plans, play mediated roles to support children in learning, and utilize the power of situated reading to explore children's literacy in either the primary language or second language will enhance children's biliteracy.
CHAPTER FOUR
CURRICULUM DESIGN

In Chapter Three, a model was developed incorporating various learning strategies: child-centered learning, mediated learning, socially situated learning, and task-based learning to enhance children's language acquisition in a biliterate environment. The purpose of this chapter is to design a curriculum that utilizes these learning strategies to achieve EFL content and language goals in each instructional plan.

The Content of the Curriculum

The topic of this curriculum unit is Feelings and Friends. For young children, understanding various emotions is the foundation for the development of human relationships. The unit comprises five lessons, each of which explains some facet of human feelings. In Lesson One and Two, students learn about negative and positive emotions. In Lesson Three, they identify more feelings and how sentences convey emotions. Lesson Four explores the affective meaning of Chinese cultural symbols in the lives of students. Finally, students learn to understand friends' emotions and express their concerns for their friends' feelings.
The target level is at the first and second grade of English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) elementary school in Taiwan. The English proficiency level is intermediate. Each lesson follows the 1997 TESOL standards for Pre-K-12 students. These standards help students to develop various skills and knowledge in English.

This curriculum integrates five key ideas derived from the concepts of the literature review in Chapter Two and the theoretical model in Chapter Three (see Table 2).

Table 2. Applying Key Concepts to Lesson Plans

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Concept</th>
<th>Lesson One</th>
<th>Lesson Two</th>
<th>Lesson Three</th>
<th>Lesson Four</th>
<th>Lesson Five</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emergent Biliteracy Practices</td>
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<tr>
<td>Child-Centered Literacy</td>
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<td>Mediated Learning</td>
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<td>Socially Situated Reading</td>
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<td>Practices</td>
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<td>Task-Based Learning with Young</td>
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<td>Learners</td>
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The teacher delivers all lessons using both Chinese and English in order to help students have clear information in class. Establishing a natural climate of learning in both languages is the goal of this curriculum.
Students have opportunities to interact in two languages naturally. Meanwhile, each lesson uses one learning strategy to assist students to obtain the knowledge of content and language.

Each lesson is composed of three objectives: content, learning strategy, and language. Each objective is implemented by one task chain, so that the lessons display logic and organization. In addition, the teacher uses different types of teaching material to enhance students’ learning. The focus sheets provide knowledge that students need to learn in the lesson. The work sheets offer the chance to improve language skills and comprehension. The assessment sheets display criteria of evaluation, so both the teacher and students have visible rules to follow.

The Content of the Lesson Plans

In Lesson One, students learn about negative emotions in their daily lives, such as angry, sad, and worried. After reading “When Sophie Gets Angry—Really, Really Angry...,” students answer questions to assess their comprehension of the story. Then, students use the problem-solution chart to find out the solutions that are useful for dealing with the negative emotions. Students can learn other solutions by discussing with partners.
During the learning process, students play the central part. The knowledge they obtain is authentic in children's lives. Because each child is unique, he/she should find appropriate ways to meet his/her needs. At the language part, students learn to write sentences to describe the situations in which they have negative emotions.

In Lesson Two, the content goal is about positive emotions. This lesson starts from singing the song, "If You're Happy," as the warm-up activity. Later, the teacher uses pictures to catch students' attention and motivate them to predict the possible plots. Utilizing flash cards to describe the pictures successfully integrates vocabulary with oral practices.

Meanwhile, brainstorming provides another way to stimulate students' participation. During the task, students need to develop competencies in listening, speaking, reading, and writing in order to achieve the goal of the task. Finally, students learn to write their own journals. In this lesson, the teacher uses mediated learning strategies to assist students' learning development. The teacher acts as a mediator to scaffold learning or negotiate meanings with students. The purpose of the strategy is to help students become independent learners.
In Lesson Three, students learn to name more feelings, such as shy, lonely, and quiet. After reviewing all words about emotions from Lesson One to Three, the teacher begins to explain that each sentence can convey various emotions to the readers. Students need to read carefully and comprehend the meanings of sentences. Drawing a face with each sentence is an interesting method to promote students' interest. Then, the teacher introduces the concept of synonyms and antonyms by positive and negative emotions. As in Lesson Two, the mediated learning strategy is also implemented in this lesson. The teacher should provide assistance and appropriate feedback to students during each task chain.

In Lesson Four, students focus on Chinese cultural symbols. These symbols have situated meanings and convey different feelings for students. When they read the rhyme, "Red Is a Dragon," they learn not only new vocabulary about Chinese cultural symbols, but also the different feelings that are conveyed because of the sociocultural background. For example, a dragon or a drum represents cheerful feeling; conversely, incense sticks represent sorrow. Students can develop the ability of situated reading and deeper thinking in reading.
In Lesson Five, the teacher reads aloud the story, "Alone," in the warm-up activity. The story highlights the important concept of concerning friends. Then, the teacher introduces the content of this lesson, four Chinese characters about emotions: 喜 (happy), 怒 (angry), 哀 (sad), and 樂 (cheerful). Furthermore, the teacher uses the task-based learning strategy to help students understand other people's emotions. Students are assigned a task to observe their partners' emotions based on the four Chinese characters. In the process, they also need to record their own feelings. Therefore, they can understand how emotions influence others. At last, they should use one of the Chinese characters to describe their partners. Also, they learn how to show consideration to people by writing a short paragraph that may provide encouragement, suggestions, or consolation for their friends. These tasks are chosen to be meaningful to students' lives. Being a thoughtful person is very important in developing relationships.

In sum, the curriculum integrates five key concepts to achieve content, learning-strategy, and language goals in each lesson. Each learning strategy provides different functions to learn various perspectives about emotions.
Students are always in the center of learning. The tasks they implement need to be authentic and meaningful. The teacher plays a mediated role to assist students until they can learn independently. In addition, the lessons utilize sociocultural approaches to motivate students and advance their reading to a higher level of thinking. Importantly, the teacher should provide a natural, biliterate environment and combine these learning strategies in order to promote students' biliteracy.
The Purpose of Assessment

Díaz-Rico (2004) stated, "Assessment is a process for determining the current level of a learner's performance or knowledge" (p. 74). In the past, traditional assessment was used to grade students using simple questions or multiple-choice questions. In order to get a high score, students need to practice industriously and strive to answer correctly. For the teacher, these simple assessments are much easier to score than essay or problem-solving questions because there is usually only one answer.

However, these limited functions of assessment are not in accord with the current trend. Assessment should function more dynamically. Because students need to be able to analyze and solve problems, assessment should provide open-ended questions to allow students to reach a higher level of thinking. The purpose of assessment not only assesses students' learning outcomes, but also provides information for the teacher to monitor and adjust instruction. If students do not perform well on the
assessment, the teacher should be aware that the instructional strategy might be ineffectual.

The Content of Assessment

Formative Assessment

The purpose of formative assessment is to help students to maintain impetus during the learning process. The teacher uses formative assessment before students have completed their final products. Because of formative assessment, students have opportunities to adjust their partial products rather than completing final products without the possibility of adjusting the content before evaluation (Díaz-Rico, 2004).

In this curriculum, the teacher uses formative assessment in each lesson. When students discuss topics in pairs or groups, the teacher should go around the classroom, listen to their conversation, and provide assistance or feedback to them. Especially young learners are sometimes afraid of using the second language because of pressure from peers. The teacher should encourage children to be involved in activities, establishing a positive climate for learning language in the classroom. Therefore, children will have more confidence in learning.
For instance, there is a discussion about solving problems in Lesson One. When students share their opinions in class, the teacher’s feedback may allow students to improve their ideas. In Lesson Four, various situated meanings about Chinese cultural symbols may come out by discussion. If the teacher can solve ongoing problems during the task, students will have greater enthusiasm for moving to the next task chain.

**Summative Assessment**

Summative information comprises summative assessment in that this provides visible and accurate criteria for both teachers and students to follow after task completion. When students use a summary rubric during the learning process, they can focus on the main point in this task, checking their work against the criteria stipulated on the rubric. Teachers as well can follow the criteria to grade fairly and reliably (Díaz-Rico, 2004).

Each lesson in the curriculum uses summative assessment to evaluate students’ performance. In Lesson One, students should have the basic concept of writing sentences. They need to comprehend the story completely. Meanwhile, they should know how to use adjectives about negative emotions in sentences correctly. Assessment in
this lesson evaluates students' comprehension and abilities in writing.

In Lesson Two, students need to contribute as much information as they can as they complete the brainstorming activity. Also, the required journal activity involves using the correct form of sentences, a coherent storyline, and appropriate vocabulary. Therefore, the teacher evaluates students' idea development about the topic and their ability to organize the writing content in sequence.

In Lesson Three, students should be able to comprehend sentences that convey various emotions to readers. Children draw emotions onto faces corresponding to the different emotions represented by sentences. In addition, understanding the meaning of synonyms and antonyms is a big challenge for young learners. Students need to read each word carefully and choose the correct answer. Hence, the teacher assesses students' understanding in the content of reading, as well as semantics in synonyms and antonyms.

In Lesson Four, finding vocabulary words and figuring out the meaning of new words is an important reading strategy. Students should realize what they do not know and learn how to find the definition. Meanwhile, answering open-ended questions and writing a paragraph require
critical thinking to support students' ideas. The teacher needs to utilize cultural context to promote students' reading competence. Therefore, the teacher evaluates reading strategies and critical thinking with cultural support.

In Lesson Five, learning four Chinese characters is one of the goals. Later, as they discuss the four Chinese characters, students record the related meaning and respond with their real feelings. Finally, choosing one Chinese character to represent a friend can reinforce the understanding of the Chinese characters. Meanwhile, students learn how to convey their consideration of others by writing a short paragraph. In this lesson, the teacher assesses students' understanding of Chinese characters and their writing ability.

In conclusion, assessment serves as an essential component of instructional plans. It offers useful information for students, parents, teachers, and administrators. However, assessment does not always occur after instruction. Sometimes it can be used before instruction in order to predict students' needs and interests and during instruction to monitor progress. This curriculum uses formative and summative assessment to evaluate students' comprehension and to monitor students'
abilities in reading and writing. The results of assessment can be considered a resource for designing a new instructional plan. The instructions of unit in the Appendix offers an integrated set of lessons that feature a child-centered focus, combined with appropriate teacher mediation. The Chinese theme provides situated learning for students as they use task-based activity to achieve biliteracy.
APPENDIX

INSTRUCTIONAL PLANS - FEELINGS AND FRIENDS
List of Instruction Plans

Instruction Plan One: I Am Really Angry! ...............102

Instruction Plan Two: I Feel Happy Today .............110

Instruction Plan Three: How Do You Feel? ............121

Instruction Plan Four: I Love Chinese Cultural Symbols .........................131

Instruction Plan Five: Emotional Chinese Characters .........................138
Instruction Plan One
I Am Really Angry!

Teaching Level: EFL Elementary School, grades 1-2
Intermediate level

Time Frame: 50 minutes

Objectives:
Content Goal: To learn about negative emotions which are usually experienced in daily life.

Learning Strategy Goal: To use the child-centered learning strategy to find solutions through children’s experience and shared conversation.

Language Goal: To write sentences to describe students’ negative emotion.

TESOL Standards:
Goal 2: To use English to achieve academically in all content areas.
Standard 1: Students will use English to interact in the classroom.
Standard 2: Students will use English to obtain, process, construct, and provide subject matter information in spoken and written form.

Materials:
Focus Sheet 1.1 & 1.2
Work Sheet 1.1, 1.2 & 1.3
Assessment Sheet 1.1

Warm-up:
The teacher shares a recent experience resulting in negative emotions in daily life and asks how many students have had a similar experience.

Task Chain 1. Telling a Story
1. The teacher hands out Focus Sheet 1.1.
2. The teacher reads the story When Sophie Gets Angry—Really, Really Angry...
3. The teacher hands out Work Sheet 1.1.
4. The teacher asks students work in pairs to discuss the questions on Work Sheet 1.1.
5. After discussing, students write down their own answers.

Task Chain 2. Resolving Problems
1. The teacher hands out Work Sheet 1.2.
2. Students write their own solutions in Sophie’s case.
3. Students write down own experiences and solutions.
4. Students share with partners their solutions and get more ideas from each other.
5. The teacher encourages students to share what they found and learned from their partners.

Task Chain 3. Writing Sentences
1. The teacher hands out Focus Sheet 1.2.
2. Students learn new adjectives describing negative emotions. They need to write one more word to each emotion.
3. The teacher gives Work Sheet 1.3.
4. Students use the adjectives on Focus Sheet 1.2 to make sentences.

Assessment
Formative: The teacher encourages students’ participation and gives constructive feedback in each task chain. Students are each allowed to share their experiences with others.

Summative: The teacher assesses students’ work on Assessment Sheet 1.1.
When Sophie Gets Angry— Really, Really Angry...

Sophie was busy playing when...her sister grabbed Gorilla. "No!" said Sophie. "Yes!" said her mother. "It is her turn now, Sophie." As her sister snatched Gorilla away...Sophie fell over the truck.

Oh, is Sophie ever angry now! She kicks. She screams. She wants to smash the world to smithereens. She roars a red, red roar. Sophie is a volcano, ready to explode. And when Sophie gets angry—really, really angry...she runs! She runs and runs and runs until she can’t run anymore.

Then, for a little while, she cries. Now she sees the rocks, the trees and ferns. She hears a bird. She comes to the old beech tree. She climbs. She feels the breeze blow her hair. She watches the water and the waves. The wide world comforts her. Sophie feels better now. She climbs back down...and heads for home. The house is warm and smells good. Everyone is glad she’s home.

Everything’s back together again. And Sophie isn’t angry anymore.

**Work Sheet 1.1**  
**Comprehension**

Name: ___________________________  
Point: ___ /40

After hearing the story about Sophie, do you remember what happened to her? Please answer these questions:

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Why did Sophie get angry?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What did Sophie do when she got angry?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. How did Sophie solve her problems?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. What was the result of the story?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When you get angry or sad, you have to find some solutions to comfort your emotion.

If you were Sophie, what would you do?

Solution 1

Solution 2

Have you ever been angry about something?

What was happening?

How did you solve the problem?
Focus Sheet 1.2
Words Describe Negative Emotions

There are some adjectives describing people's negative emotions.

Do you know more words than listed?

angry

sad

fear

worried
Work Sheet 1.3
Writing Sentences

Name: ___________________________________  Point: ____ /30

Please use the adjectives on Focus Sheet 1.2 and write down three sentences to describe your negative emotion.

Example: I was angry when my younger brother ate my ice cream.

1. I was _____________ when ____________________________

2. I was _____________ when ____________________________

3. I was _____________ when ____________________________
## Assessment Sheet 1.1

1. **Work Sheet 1.1: 40 points**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form of sentences:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Capital letter and a period</td>
<td>/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answers each question</td>
<td>/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answers are consistent with questions</td>
<td>/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correct descriptions about the story</td>
<td>/10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **Work Sheet 1.2: 30 points**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form of sentences:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Capital letter and a period</td>
<td>/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaningful sentences</td>
<td>/20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. **Work Sheet 1.3: 30 points**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meaningful sentences</th>
<th>/20</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uses adjectives on Focus Sheet 1.2</td>
<td>/10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Instruction Plan Two
I Feel Happy Today

Teaching Level: EFL Elementary School, grades 1-2
Intermediate level

Time Frame: 50 minutes

Objectives:
Content Goal: To learn about good feelings which are usually experienced in daily life.
Learning Strategy Goal: To brainstorm in groups and learn various experiences that cause good feelings. The teacher uses mediated learning strategy during group discussion.
Language Goal: To draw and write a journal about good feelings.

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

Materials:
CD: Song “If You’re Happy”
Poster Sheet 2.1, 2.2 & 2.3
Flash Cards 2.1
Work Sheet 2.1 & 2.2
Assessment Sheet 2.1

Warm-up:
The teacher plays the song “If You’re Happy” and sings with the whole class.

Task Chain 1. Illustrating Pictures
1. The teacher displays Poster Sheet 2.1 with covered words.
2. Students predict the possible plots and share in class.
3. The teacher uncovers words on Poster Sheet 2.1 and conducts students to talk about their own experience.
4. The teacher displays Poster Sheet 2.2 and Flash Cards 2.1 (happy, cheerful, surprised, proud, excited, and glad). The teacher gives examples to explain the meaning of each word.

5. Students take turn to choose one of flash cards and use the word to describe any children in Poster Sheet 2.2.

6. The teacher encourages students to be involved in activities and provides assistance until they can express their meaning completely.

Task Chain 2. Brainstorming
1. The teacher divides students into groups of four and hands out Work Sheet 2.1 each group.
2. Students in groups brainstorm about when or what gives them good feelings and write as many as possible on Work Sheet 2.1 in ten minutes.
3. The teacher walks among groups and listens to each group. If necessary, the teacher should give feedback immediately.
4. Groups make presentations to illustrate their brainstorming.

Task Chain 3. Drawing and Writing a Journal
1. The teacher displays Poster Sheet 2.3 and tells the story “Telephone, Elizabeth”.
2. The teacher reads Elizabeth’s journal as an example.
3. The teacher hands out Work Sheet 2.2. Students draw and write a journal.

Assessment
Formative:
During each task chain, the teacher ensures that students are involved in activities and each student has a chance to express opinions.

Summative:
The teacher assesses students’ work as Assessment Sheet 2.1.
You are Invited to My Party

I can't wait till Saturday!

I'll make Alfred a present right now.

I'm HAPPY HAPPY HAPPY

Poster Sheet 2.2
A Birthday Party

Flash Cards 2.1

happy
cheerful
surprised
proud
excited
glad
Worksheet 2.1
Brainstorming

Members: __________, __________
Points: ___/30

excited, happy, proud, glad, cheerful, surprised
In the evening, Elizabeth's wrote her journal:

Today, I was bored at home. Then, I got a phone from Kate. She said she is going to come over. I was very surprised and excited. We had a good time. Because she is my best friend, I am going to send her a Valentine. She will be glad for the card.
### Work Sheet 2.2
**Drawing and Writing a Journal**

Name: ______________________________  Point: ___ /30

Can you draw and write your own journal about one thing that makes you feel happy, surprised, cheerful, excited, glad or proud?

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>End</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Assessment Sheet 2.1

1. **Work Sheet 2.1:** 40 points

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cooperation</th>
<th>/10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Makes eye contact and speaks loudly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than ten items on the list</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five to nine items on the list</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One to four items on the list</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **Work Sheet 2.2:** 30 points

| Correct form of sentences:                          | /10 |
| Capital letter and a period                          |     |
| Sentences in order                                  |     |
| Using appropriate vocabulary                        |     |
Instruction Plan Three
How Do You Feel?

Teaching Level: EFL Elementary School, grades 1-2
Intermediate level

Time Frame: 50 minutes

Objectives:
Content Goal: To learn more feelings to extend communicative competence.
Learning Strategy Goal: To use mediated learning strategy to understand how sentences convey various emotions.
Language Goal: To learn the meanings of synonyms and antonyms.

TESOL Standards:
Goal 2: To use English to achieve academically in all content areas.
Standard 1: Students will use English to interact in the classrooms.
Standard 3: Students will use appropriate learning strategies to construct and apply academic knowledge.

Materials:
Focus Sheet 3.1, 3.2 &3.3
Work Sheet 3.1 & 3.2
Assessment Sheet 3.1

Warm-up:
The teacher explains there are more feelings expressing people’s thinking. People need to learn more feelings in order to care for others’ emotions.

Task Chain 1. Learning More About Feelings
1. The teacher hands out Focus Sheet 3.1 and asks students do it on their own first.
2. After finished, students discuss with partners the answers.
3. The teacher explains each word with examples.
4. The teacher encourages students to share their experiences in class and helps them to use each word correctly.
Task Chain 2. Understanding the Implications of Sentences
1. The teacher hands out Focus Sheet 3.2 and reviews words that students have learned from Instructional Plan Two.
2. The teacher hands out Work Sheet 3.1 and explains that sentences can convey various emotions.
3. The teacher reads the example on Work Sheet 3.1.
4. Students follow the example and answer the questions.

Task Chain 3. Learning Synonyms and Antonyms
1. The teacher hands out Focus Sheet 3.3 and explains the meanings of synonyms and antonyms.
2. The teacher encourages students to contribute more synonyms and antonyms.
3. The teacher hands out Work Sheet 3.2.
4. Students follow the direction and answer the questions.

Assessment
Formative:
During each task chain, the teacher encourages students' participation and gives constructive feedback. The teacher provides assistance if students have problems with activities.

Summative:
The teacher assesses students' work as Assessment Sheet 3.1.
Focus Sheet 3.1
How Do You Feel?

Do you know how he feels? Please draw a line to match pictures and words and write the words in the blanks.

He is ____.

insulted

He is ____.

shy

He is ____.

lonely

Focus Sheet 3.1 (Continued)

He is ___.

They're all mine.

He is ___.

He is ___.

quiet

impatient

selfish

Focus Sheet 3.2
Reviewing Emotions

Do you remember what we have learned?

Work Sheet 3.1
Giving sentences a feeling

Name: ___________________________  Point: ___/40

Have you ever found out that every sentence has a face? It may be happy, sad, angry or shy. Please make a face for each sentence and circle word that the best description is. For example:

My doggy died last night. I miss it so much.

I felt _________. (shy, scare, [sad])

1. Who took my crayons and cut my paper?

I am so _________. (happy, mad, proud)

2. I got a birthday card from Amy yesterday. She is my best friend.

I was _________. (cheerful, impatient, angry)

3. Alex, my neighbor, and I always play soccer together. But, yesterday, he told me that he is going to move next month.

I felt _________. (brave, excited, unhappy)

4. I go A+ in my writing today. Mom said I have made a great improvement.

My mom was _________. (quiet, proud of me, lonely)
5. We are going to City Zoo tomorrow, but Dad said it might rain.

I felt ________. (excited, selfish, worried)
Focus Sheet 3.3
Synonyms and Antonyms

Synonyms:
A synonym is a word that has the same or almost the same meaning as another word.
For example:

1. There is a **big** castle in the mountain.

   *Big* and **large**, **huge**, or **enormous** are synonyms.

2. The street was too **noisy**.

   *Noisy* and **loud**, **shrill**, or **clamorous** are synonyms.

Antonyms:
Antonyms are words that have opposite meanings.
For example:

1. The elephant is **big**.

   *The mouse is little.*

   *Big* and **little** are antonyms.

2. He is **happy**.

   *She is sad.*

   *Happy* and **sad** are antonyms.
### Work Sheet 3.2

**Synonyms and Antonyms**

Name: __________________________,  Point: ___/60

1. Please look at the words below. Can you circle the word that is a *synonym* with the first word? And, please also use the first word to make a sentence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>cheerful</th>
<th>glad</th>
<th>loud</th>
<th>quiet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lonely</td>
<td>angry</td>
<td>surprised</td>
<td>friendless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scared</td>
<td>afraid</td>
<td>strong</td>
<td>shy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Can you circle the word that is an *antonym* with the first word?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>quiet</th>
<th>silent</th>
<th>noisy</th>
<th>happy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>shy</td>
<td>sad</td>
<td>angry</td>
<td>confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>selfish</td>
<td>sharing</td>
<td>annoyed</td>
<td>impatient</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Assessment Sheet 3.1

3. Work Sheet 3.1: 40 points

| Correct faces               | __/20 |
| Correct answers              | __/20 |

4. Work Sheet 3.2: 60 points

| Correct answers              | __/30 |
| Correct form of sentences:  |
| Capital letter and a period  | __/12 |
| Uses appropriate vocabulary  | __/18 |
Instruction Plan Four
I Love Chinese Cultural Symbols

Teaching Level: EFL Elementary School, grades 1-2
Intermediate level

Time Frame: 50 minutes

Objectives:
Content Goal: To learn about Chinese cultural symbols.
Learning Strategy Goal: To use socially situated reading strategy to explore the situated meaning of Chinese cultural symbols. People have different feelings about the symbols.
Language Goal: To write a paragraph about a Chinese cultural symbol.

TESOL Standards:
Goal 3: To use English to achieve academically in all content areas.
Standard 1: Students will use English to interact in the classroom.
Standard 2: Students will use English to obtain, process, construct, and provide subject matter information in spoken and written form.

Materials:
Focus Sheet 4.1
Work Sheet 4.1, 4.2 & 4.3
Assessment Sheet 4.1
Materials representing Chinese culture

Warm-up:
The teacher prepares materials that represent Chinese culture, such as chopsticks, incense sticks, and silk fans. The teacher asks students to talk about these materials. For example, "When do people use it?" or "How do people use it?" At the same time, the teacher passes materials around, so that students can touch them.

Task Chain 1. Reading a Rhyme
1. The teacher hands out Focus Sheet 4.1.
2. When the teacher reads the article, students can circle new vocabulary words that they don’t understand.
3. Students write new vocabulary words on Work Sheet 4.1. They group in pairs and find definitions together.
4. Students write definitions on Work Sheet 4.1.

Task Chain 2. Reading and Emotions
1. The teacher hands out Work Sheet 4.2.
2. Students write Chinese cultural symbols that make them feel happy and sad.
3. The teacher asks each student to share his or her writing in class.
4. The teacher can tell students that each cultural symbol may bring various meanings to each person.
5. Students read Focus Sheet 4.1 again and discuss what the emotion is in each paragraph when they read the rhyme.

Task Chain 3. Writing a Short Paragraph
1. The teacher hands out Work Sheet 4.3.
2. Students find another Chinese cultural symbol and write a short paragraph to describe it.
3. Students share their writing in class.

Assessment
Formative:
In Task Chain 1, the teacher needs to make sure that students understand new vocabulary words and participate in discussion. In Task Chain 2, the teacher encourages students to share their feelings about reading the rhyme. In Task Chain 3, the teacher observes students’ responses and interaction among students.

Summative:
The teacher assesses students’ work on Assessment Sheet 4.1.
Red is a dragon. Red is a drum. Red are the firecrackers—here they come!

Yellow are incense sticks and flowers. Yellow are flames that burn for hours.

Purple are clouds at the end of the day. Purple is a kite that sails away.

Pink are an opera singer’s eyes and a silk fan that hides her surprise.

White are noodles and chopsticks, too. White are dumplings for me and you!

Source: Adapted from Thong, R. (2001). Red is a dragon. San Francisco: Chronicle Books LLC.
Work Sheet 4.1  
My Vocabulary List

Name: ____________________________  Point: _____/20

Please write new words that you do not understand on Focus Sheet 4.1. Ask your partner the meanings and write down your definitions. You may write short sentences or draw pictures to help you understand new words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Work Sheet 4.2**

*What I Feel with Chinese Symbols*

Name: ___________________________  Point: ___/30

After reading Focus Sheet 4.1, please answer the following questions:

1. Think of these Chinese symbols. Which one makes you feel happy? Please give your reasons to support your idea.
2. Which makes you feel sad? Please describe your reasons.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chinese Symbol</th>
<th>Reasons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Happy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sad</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Work Sheet 4.3
Writing a Short Paragraph

Name: ___________________________   Point: ____/20

Can you find another object that can represent Chinese culture? Please draw the picture and write a short paragraph to describe it. You may think about its color and shape. When do you see it? Why do you like/dislike it? What does it mean to you?
### Assessment Sheet 4.1

1. Work Sheet 4.1: 20 points

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct description</th>
<th>___/10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correct form of sentences:</td>
<td>___/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital letter and a period</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Work Sheet 4.2: 30 points

| Correct form of sentences: | ___/10 |
| Capital letter and a period |        |
| Meaningful sentences | ___/10 |

3. Work Sheet 4.3: 20 points

| Correct form of sentences: | ___/10 |
| Capital letter and a period |        |
| Meaningful sentences | ___/10 |
Instruction Plan Five
Emotional Chinese Characters

Teaching Level: EFL Elementary School, grades 1-2
Intermediate level

Time Frame: 50 minutes

Objectives:
Content Goal: To learn about emotional words in Chinese characters.
Learning Strategy Goal: To use task-based learning strategy to observe the partner’s emotions and understand how emotions influence others.
Language Goal: To use a Chinese character about an emotion to describe the partner and write a short paragraph to express their consideration for the partner’s feelings.

TESOL Standards:
Goal 1: To use English to communicate in social settings
Standard 1: Students will use English to participate in social interactions.
Standard 2: Students will interact in, through, and with spoken and written English for personal expression and enjoyment.

Materials:
Warm-up Sheet 5.1
Focus Sheet 5.1
Work Sheet 5.1, 5.2, & 5.3
Assessment Sheet 5.1

Warm-up:
The teacher hands out Warm-up Sheet 5.1 and reads aloud the story. After reading, students share with whole class what they have ever done before for friends in order to make them happy and whether they understand friends’ emotions or not.
Task Chain 1. Learning Emotional Chinese Characters
1. The teacher hands out Focus Sheet 5.1.
2. Students learn the meaning and pronunciation of each Chinese character.
3. The teacher hands out Work Sheet 5.1. Students cut out the four Chinese characters and paste on the coherent squares by reading the four sentences.

Task Chain 2. Observing Partners
1. The teacher hands out Work Sheet 5.2.
2. Students work in pairs and observer partners’ emotions one day. They record results on Work Sheet 5.2 and write about how they feel when partners have various emotions.
3. After finishing observation, students discuss Work Sheet 5.2 with partners.
4. Students take turn to share what they have learned from the discussion about partners and themselves.

Task Chain 3.
1. The teacher hands out Work Sheet 5.3.
2. Students use one Chinese character to describe their partners.
3. Students write a short paragraph to encourage, suggest, or show their concern to partners.

Assessment
Formative:
During each task chain, the teacher encourages students involved in activities and provides assistance if necessary.

Summative:
The teacher assesses students’ work on Assessment Sheet 5.1.
Warm-up Sheet 5.1

Alone

Toad went to Frog’s house. He found a note on the door. The note said, “Dear Toad, I am not at home. I went out. I want to be alone.” “Alone?” said Toad. “Frog has me for a friend. Why does he want to be alone?”

Toad looked through the windows. He looked in the garden. He did not see Frog. Toad went to the woods. Frog was not there. He went to the meadow. Frog was not there. Toad went down to the river. There was Frog. He was sitting on an island by himself.

“Poor Frog,” said Toad. “He must be very sad. I will cheer him up.” Toad ran home. He made sandwiches. He made a pitcher of iced tea. He put everything in a basket.

Toad hurried back to the river. “Frog,” he shouted, “it’s me. It’s your best friend, Toad!” Frog was too far away to hear. Toad took off his jacket and waved it like a flag. Frog was too far away to see. Toad shouted and waved, but it was no use. Frog sat on the island. He did not see or hear Toad.

A turtle swam by. Toad climbed on the turtle’s back. “Turtle,” said Toad, “carry me to the island. Frog is there. He wants to be alone.” “If Frog wants to be alone,” said the turtle, “Why don’t you leave him alone?” “Maybe you are right,” said Toad. “Maybe Frog does not want to see me. Maybe he does not want me to be his friend anymore.” “Yes, maybe,” said the turtle as he swam to the island.
"Frog!" cried Toad. "I am sorry for all the dumb things I do. I am sorry for all the silly things I say. Please be my friend again!" Toad slipped off the turtle. With a splash, he fell in the river. Frog pulled Toad up onto the island. Toad looked in the basket. The sandwiches were wet. The pitcher of iced tea was empty. "Our lunch is spoiled," said Toad. "I made it for you, Frog, so that you would be happy."

"But Toad," said Frog. "I am happy. I am very happy. This morning when I woke up I felt good because the sun was shining. I felt good because I was a frog. And I felt good because I have you for a friend. I wanted to be alone. I wanted to think about how fine everything is." "Oh," said Toad. "I guess that is a very good reason for wanting to be alone." "Now," said Frog, "I will be glad not to be alone. Let's eat lunch." Frog and Toad stayed on the island all afternoon. They ate wet sandwiches without iced tea. They were two close friends sitting alone together.

Focus Sheet 5.1
Chinese Characters

Happy (xi)

Angry (nu)

Sad (ai)

Cheerful (le)
My friend does not want to play with me.

My friends like my drawing.

Our class is going to see a movie tomorrow.

I cannot find my storybook. Someone took it away.
Work Sheet 5.2
Understanding My Friend's Feelings

Name: _______________________________  Point: ____/40

People have different emotions everyday. Can you understand how your friend feels? Please observe your friend and write down what makes him/her 喜(happy), 怒(angry), 哀(sad), and 樂(cheerful). Also, how do you feel when he/she has various emotions.

My friend's name: ___________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How does your friend feel?</th>
<th>How do you feel?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>喜</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>怒</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>哀</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>樂</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Work Sheet 5.3
Showing My Concern

Name: ___________________________ Point: ___/30

Please answer the following questions:

1. Which Chinese character (喜, 怒, 哀, 樂) is the best word to describe your partner? And why?

____________________________________________________________________

2. Do you want to give your partner encouragement, suggestions, or consolation? Please write down your words.

____________________________________________________________________
Assessment Sheet 5.1

1. Work Sheet 5.1: 20 points

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Correct answers</th>
<th>/20</th>
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</table>

2. Work Sheet 5.2: 40 points

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form of sentences: Capital letter and a period</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coherent description with each emotion</td>
<td>/20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaningful sentences</td>
<td>/10</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

3. Work Sheet 5.3: 30 points

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form of the Chinese character</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correct form of sentences: Capital letter and a period</td>
<td>/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaningful sentences</td>
<td>/10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
REFERENCES


Bansberg, B. (2003). Applying the learner-centered principles to the special case of literacy. Theory Into Practice, 42(2), 142-150.


