5-2016

Communication at the Heart of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language

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COMMUNICATION AT THE HEART OF TEACHING CHINESE AS A FOREIGN

LANGUAGE

By

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A portfolio submitted in partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree

of

MASTER OF SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

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UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY

Logan, Utah

2016

ABSTRACT

Communication at the Heart of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language

by

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Utah State University, 2016

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This portfolio demonstrates the author's beliefs regarding effective methods for foreign language teaching. The first section includes the author's teaching philosophy which addresses three themes: communicative language teaching (CLT), bringing authentic material into the foreign language classroom with the integration of technology, and developing lower-graders' literacy in the Chinese dual-language immersion (DLI) classroom. Following the teaching philosophy are three artifacts that were originally written as term papers for courses in the Master of Second Language Teaching (MSLT) program. First, the language artifact reviews the approaches of asynchronous computer-mediated communication (ACMC) and synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC) for online tandem learning programs. Second, the literacy artifact demonstrates the importance of developing lower-graders' literacy skills in the Chinese DLI classroom. Third, the cultural artifact focuses on examining Chinese requests strategies. Finally, the annotated bibliography containing three topics documents the authors' journey of

learning to be an effective language teacher in the MSLT program. The first topic is about the author's acknowledgement of the CLT methodology with reading both compliments and criticism from others' perspectives. In addition, the second topic is a process of realizing the significance of incorporating technology to facilitate foreign language learning in this digital era. Lastly, the third topic talks about the author's understanding of the importance of DLI education and her interest of being a DLI teacher in the future.

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INTRODUCTION

      This portfolio documents all the work that I have accomplished during my two years in the MSLT program. Among all sections, the teaching philosophy is the core and includes five components with the combination of my language learning experience, my future orientation in language teaching, a statement of my teaching philosophy of effective language teaching, and teaching observations of some colleagues as well as self-assessment of my own teaching. Three pillars are the focus of my teaching philosophy. In the first part, I explore the vital role of communicative methodology by comparing it with the traditional classroom, and illustrating the essential aspects that make CLT an effective pedagogy with appropriate error correction, comprehensible input, and well-designed task-based activities. In the second part, I explain my belief of benefiting learners by bringing authentic materials into the classroom. In addition, to make the authentic content accessible for all learners, I argue for integrating technology tools to support learners when using authentic materials. In the last part, I state the importance of developing literacy skills in a foreign language classroom, especially a Chinese DLI classroom that requires high literacy skills to support the learning of other subjects in the target language.

      Following the teaching philosophy, three artifacts are included in the portfolio. First, the language artifact is a literature review regarding the use of ACMC and SCMC for online tandem learning programs. Second, the literacy artifact is to demonstrate the importance of developing literacy in the Chinese DLI classroom. Third, the cultural artifact is to examine the politeness conventions in Chinese requests strategies.

Finally, the annotated bibliography records the articles that I read during the past two years in the MSLT program. I learn to be an effective language teacher through reading scholarly books and articles. This portfolio concludes my journey for the last two years in the MSLT program, and will lead me to the next station in my life.

TEACHING PHILOSOPHY

APPRENTICESHIP OF OBSERVATION

      Although I grew up in a family of teachers, it wasn't until five years ago, when I had my first experience in the classroom teaching Chinese as a second language, that I made the decision to pursue a career as an educator. In order to realize this goal, I applied to the Master of Second Language Teaching (MSLT) program at Utah State University to further my understanding of being a foreign language teacher.

      I was influenced by many people involved in education. However, the most influential person is my father. He was an intelligent man with a unique perspective on teaching. The most valuable lesson that I learned from my father as one of his students was his attitude towards teaching. He always took the students' needs into consideration and was constantly trying to provide or create meaningful learning material for his students. When he taught math, he made measuring devices, such as rulers and triangles to help his students understand the process of measurement.

      In addition, my father emphasized the importance of creating a relaxing and enjoyable learning environment. Students were encouraged to participate in the classroom discussion by sharing ideas with each other or with the whole class without worrying about making mistakes. I always remember his classroom as one with students engaging in meaningful discussion. Although students were not always able to answer the questions correctly, he would not dissuade the students from trying, instead, he would continue to provide clues and leading questions to help students arrive at the answer. He believed that teachers should not focus on questions with one answer, because learning involved more than simply memorizing answers. Furthermore, my father encouraged peer collaboration in and out of the classroom. He viewed peer scaffolding as a huge benefit

for the students. Other times, he would join the student study groups, providing extra support when he deemed it necessary. I learned from my father that being kind and flexible were important traits for a teacher.

As an English learner, I also learned much about being an effective foreign language teacher from my own experiences. During my ten years as a student in the English as a foreign language classroom, I was fortunate to have Mrs. Xiang as my first English teacher. She was the language teacher who triggered my interests in learning a foreign language. Mrs. Xiang was my English teacher for six years from middle school to high school. I was impressed by her first class when I was thirteen, because unlike any other class I had taken before, she taught nothing but simply asked our motivations for learning a foreign language. She told us that English is the most popular language in the world and we could benefit from learning it in several ways, such as being more competitive in the future job market and having the opportunity to study abroad in an English speaking country. I did not have a specific answer when she asked the question, but I began studying with a purpose. I am thankful to Mrs. Xiang for her guidance on my long journey of learning English.

I learned from Mrs. Xiang that motivation is one of the most important elements in learning a foreign language. Teachers should design real-world activities for students to see the usefulness of the language, as well as to encourage them to use the language outside the classroom. Although I appreciated my first language classes, they were not taught communicatively. Traditional teaching methods, such as Audiolingualism (ALM) dominated the language teaching field at that time in China.

I can still remember my awkward experience when I had my first opportunity to use English outside the classroom in a restaurant. An American walked into the restaurant and I helped him order. When he ordered wine, I misunderstood it as hard alcohol, so I ordered some hard alcohol for him. When his drink arrived he looked very disappointed, this reminded me the importance of learning how to use and understand the language correctly. Since then, I realized I should learn English in a meaningful way. My goal of learning English was to build mutual understanding between myself and native-English speakers. After high school I decided to continue my education and majored in English at the university.

During the four years of my undergraduate school, I took the advantage of my professors' knowledge to seek the most effective teaching approaches for my future language classrooms. It was at this time that I had the opportunity to teach two American Peace Corps volunteers. This opportunity was my first chance to put theory that I had learned in school into practice. Since then, my desire to become a language teacher has grown significantly. The main focus of my teaching was on speaking skills, given that they were beginners and their first need for surviving in China was to communicate with people at the most basic level. Several weeks later, most of them were able to buy meals and bargain for food at the local markets. Gradually, I taught reading and writing based on their needs. After several months of working on their literacy skills, they could travel around China and read simple signs, information boards, and even brochures for tourist sites.

People like my father, my English teacher Mrs. Xiang, and my friends in the Peace Corps all contributed to my passion for teaching. Being a student in the MSLT

program, I have been learning how to teach communicatively from my professors, my colleagues, and through my own teaching. It is with this support group that I have confidence that I will secure a teaching position in the future.

PROFESSIONAL ENVIRONMENT

I hope to be a Chinese language teacher in an American classroom after graduating from the MSLT program. I am especially interested in Utah's unique Chinese dual-language immersion program. Eventually, I want to go back to China to teach Chinese to foreigners or English to university students.

My first motivation for being a Chinese teacher came from my experience of teaching American Peace Corps volunteers in spoken and written Mandarin and a three-month student-teaching stint at a high school in China. In addition, the opportunities of teaching novice-level Chinese at Utah State University and volunteering at a Chinese DLI classroom at Lone Peak elementary school in the USA have enriched my teaching experience. I learned multiple teaching skills and better teaching methods from academic learning, observation, and practical teaching. Furthermore, through teaching, I am able to witness my students' improvement of Chinese language proficiency, which has definitely strengthened my determination of teaching Chinese as a foreign language in the USA.

Through my experiences teaching Peace Corps volunteers in China and being a Chinese teacher in the USA, I have realized that language is a key aspect of understanding between cultures. I think the dual-language immersion program is an excellent opportunity for American children to develop Chinese fluency and to understand Chinese culture better. I hope I can be a part of that.

TEACHING PHILOSOPHY STATEMENT

In this Teaching Philosophy, I present my perspective on foreign language teaching in three parts. In the first section, I will discuss elements crucial to a successful foreign language (FL) classroom according to my own experiences as a language learner and teacher. More specifically, I will illustrate the crucial components that make a FL classroom communicative and show how these elements together enable learners to benefit from communicative language teaching (CLT) and develop their proficiency in the FL.

In the second section, I will show my experience of bringing authentic materials into the FL classroom and demonstrate how authentic materials offer learners a window into the target language (TL) culture. However, during my experience of using authentic materials with the novice level learners, I realize most of them have difficulties in processing the materials effectively; therefore, I begin to integrate technological tools into the classroom and value the assistance of technology as a beneficial support in my teaching.

Lastly, I will present the special model of dual language immersion (DLI) education, in which learners not only learn the FL, but also apply the FL to learn academic content such as math and science. Hence, I view literacy as a crucial in the DLI classroom if learners are to be successful in becoming bilingual/biliterate, obtaining cultural competence, and also realizing academic achievement. To be in line with that, developing literacy skills in the DLI classroom is particularly important.

The CLT Classroom

Traditional vs. CLT Classroom

Ideally, learner' speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills should be built equally in a FL classroom. However, for novice level learner, speaking seems always the first option, because learner's ability to use the language is a direct result of speaking through communication. To teach effectively and to create a good learning environment, teachers should demonstrate awareness of the fact that "a principal goal of language teaching for several decades has been, and continues to be, speaking proficiency" (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001, p. 2). The ultimate goal of language teaching is to help learners acquire the ability to use the TL in real-world situations.

Language teachers should teach communicatively, which means the teacher should provide a variety of teaching aids to make the input understandable, create an environment in which the students can engage in meaningful information exchanges with less anxious (Lee & Vanpatten, 2003; VanPatten, 2004), and encourage students to learn language spontaneously. In addition, teachers should design activities that will reflect real-world situations to train the students' ability to use the language outside the classroom. Unfortunately, in most language classrooms, teachers often teach in a traditional way, in which they believe language should be taught through ample drills and repetition. Teachers worry about covering the required curriculum, so their lessons tend to focus only on grammar or structures, but not on meaning (Ballman et al, 2001; Brown 2007; Lee & VanPatten, 2003; VanPatten & Williams, 2007).

In traditional classrooms, such as in an Audiolingual Method (ALM) classroom, teachers are focused on teaching language forms, vocabulary, and pronunciation (Brown

2007; Lee & VanPatten, 2003; VanPatten & Williams, 2007). As VanPatten and

Williams (2007) point out, "…there was little need for learners to think about what they

were dqoing. They needed only to listen and repeat." (p. 21). The most striking feature of

ALM is its focus on getting learners to form their language habits by memorizing

dialogues and practicing sentence patterns, usually through drills that require learners to

imitate and repeat what their teacher says (Brown, 2007; Lee & VanPatten, 2003). For

example, in a lesson on teaching students to ask for the price in Chinese, the teacher sets

a sentence pattern like *zhe ge duo shao qian*? 'How much is it' in the lesson plan, then

the class reads after the teacher to make sure the pronunciation is correct. In the practice

part, activities are designed to practice sentence patterns, the teacher provides a model

and students are required to follow the pattern exactly. Although learners may master the

form and sentence structure, they may not know the meaning and or how to apply the

language in real-world situations that may not follow the memorized patterns verbatim

(Lee & VanPatten, 2003; VanPatten & Williams, 2007).

Under this teaching approach, teachers take all the responsibility because they are

the center of the classroom while students are the listeners and followers (Lee &

VanPatten, 2003; VanPatten & Williams, 2007). It is obvious that people who were

taught in the traditional way share the same experiences as I have, with speaking

proficiency that does not improve even after years of second language learning.

Unfortunately, as teaching methods are slowly updated (Ballman et al., 2001), traditional

formats are still used in today's foreign language teaching. The responsibility to move

language teaching forward is upon us. If a certain teaching approach is inefficient, we

should seek a new method (Kohn, 2011).

After much empirical research and practice, communicative language teaching (CLT) was developed for effective foreign language teaching. Under the guidance of CLT, more and more foreign language teachers realize their roles in the classroom should be that of the provider, facilitator, and architect (Ballman et al., 2001; Lee & VanPatten, 2003). In CLT, the teacher is not simply a lecturer at the front of the classroom, which is quite different from traditional teaching methods. As a designer, the teacher designs the courses based on students' needs (Ballman et al., 2001; Beeman & Uraw, 2013; Lee & VanPatten, 2003).

NCSSFL-ACTFL *Can-Do Statements* (2015) require teachers to tailor courses according to students' levels, and then assess their proficiency in speaking, writing, listening, and reading. In addition, teachers should design activities to train learners' language skills in the three communicative modes: (1) the interpersonal mode, which means learners use the TL to exchange opinions and information through meaningful person-to-person conversations; (2) the interpretive mode, which refers to the learners' ability to understand and interpret the TL in various spoken and written formats; and (3) the presentational mode which requires the learners to present information or concepts in the TL to a group of people on a variety of topics (ACTFL Standards, 2015).To build learners' interpersonal competence, teachers can design activities that require interaction with each other in the classroom, such as interview activity. In an interview activity, students as interviewers ask their partners information that needed to complete the task in the TL, and the interviewees decode the questions and provide related information. To train their interpersonal competence, learners need to understand the main ideas of a spoken or written TL language. Teachers can provide jigsaw activity that requires

learners to exchange information through understanding of the task, speaking their needs, listening to other's language, and interpreting the information (Ballman et al., 2001; Long, 1996). The development of presentational competence often relies on activity that encourages learners to present what they have learned to a group of people, such as presenting a poster with the learner's idea to the class.

Here is an example to illustrate how to build learner's language skills in the CLT classroom. I had the chance to observe a professor in a first-year Chinese course who taught the students about food. She asked the students to do a brief survey about Chinese food with their Chinese language partners. Then she had them present to the class the information they gathered. After all these things had been done, she reserved a kitchen for students to cook Chinese food, and at this time, she invited some Chinese speakers to participate in the activity. I witnessed how these students acquired Chinese through meaningful interaction. In this whole process, the professor designed her course according to the students' needs. She gave them opportunities to experience real-world situations, and she assisted learners to accomplish the communicative goal of ordering Chinese food.

Error Correction

When students learn how to use the language in a meaningful way, mistakes are considered to be part of the acquisition process (Ballman et al., 2001; Lightbown & Spada, 2013). In the CLT classroom, teachers believe effective foreign language teaching should focus on meaning; therefore, mistakes should not be corrected unless they hinder communication (Brown, 2009; Lightbown & Spada, 2013). In CLT, to create a comfortable learning environment for learners, teachers will pay more attention to

meaningful information exchange and focus less on error correcting. Teachers offer many opportunities for learners to talk in the classroom despite the fact that errors will occur because the goal is to express meaning (Ballman et al., 2001; Shrum & Glisan, 2010).

Furthermore, Shrum and Glisan (2010) point out that learners' learning often follows a *U-shaped* curve, which means learners might produce error-free output at first, but they will make mistakes when there is additional information to be processed. However, learners will improve after acquiring both the original and new information. Making mistakes is part of language learning, so the teachers do not have to correct every error in the classroom. Lightbown and Spada (2013) warn that if the teacher keeps correcting errors in an oral communication setting, students may feel embarrassed and anxious, which will discourage students from speaking in the TL (Shrum & Glisan, 2010).

Due to a variety of factors, such as students' personality, maintaining the flow of conversations, and time limitations, teachers should choose the types of corrective feedback wisely if certain errors have hindered the understanding of the meaning (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013). In addition, effective feedback strategies should be adjusted according to the teaching practice (Ellis, 2012). According to empirical studies of oral corrective feedback in the FL classroom, recasts, which means the teacher reformulates the students' utterance without pointing out the error directly (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), is the most commonly used feedback given by teachers (Dilans, 2010; Kennedy, 2010; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Yoshi, 2008). However, compared to recasts, research shows that prompts, which involve the teacher encouraging students to

correct themselves by giving hints are more efficient in promoting error correction with novice level learners (Ding, 2009; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Yoshi, 2008).

After reading sources about error correction in the FL classroom, I have been experimenting with the most efficient types of corrective feedback in my Chinese 1020 classroom. For example, I tried different types of corrective feedback on different sections from a lesson. According to my curriculum, I spend five days to teach one lesson. On the first day, I teach mainly new vocabulary by using PowerPoint slides with pictures and total physical response (TPR) to act out the vocabulary and have the class follow me. When teaching new vocabulary, I use a lot of repetition to correct their errors, because repetition provides ample opportunities for the students to correct themselves and practice how to use the vocabulary in a sentence. Furthermore, I found that repetition can draw the whole class's attention to certain vocabulary words (Dilans, 2010; Lyster & Ranta, 1997), and thus, they have more explicit exposure to the new words.

During day two and day three, when the focus is on the content, more elicitation is used. For example, when talking about people's preferences of clothes in China, I link the new topic with what they already know about the weather in China. If a student makes a mistake in telling clothing during a conversation, I will provide the hint *tian qi hen re, suo yi ren men xi huan chuan*? 'It's really hot, so people would like to wear?' In this way, the students will know the answer should be T-shirt, short or skirt. Elicitation is a good strategy to lead the students to the correct use of the language (Dilans, 2010; Yoshi, 2008).

However, during day four and day five, I may use recasts to correct students' errors in the class. At this time, the main focus will be on producing the output and

reviewing the whole lesson. Students are provided many opportunities to test out their language (Swain, 1985). Usually, I will not stop them in a conversation, because this is the time for students to build confidence and to create more output with the language (Long 1996; Swain, 1985). I will reformulate the students' sentences only if the errors prevent me from understanding the meaning.

Comprehensible Input

There has been a much interest among researchers as to the roles of input and output in FL learning (Ding, 2009). The crucial role that input plays in the FL classroom is widely acknowledged (Erlam, Loewen & Philp 2009; Krashen, 1985; VanPatten, 2004). Krashen claims comprehensible input is the only way learners acquire a FL (Krashen, 1985; VanPatten, 2004). Among Krashen's (1985, 1989) five main hypotheses, I would like to expand on the Input Hypothesis, in which Krashen claims the only way that learners acquire language is through comprehensible input (Krashen, 1989; Schwartz, 1993). In Ballman et al. (2001), Krashen (1985), Lee and VanPatten (2003), and VanPatten (2004), the definition of comprehensible input is the learner must be able to understand most of what the speaker or writer is saying if acquisition is to happen. So when giving input, teachers should take these aspects into consideration: (1) speaking at a slower rate, longer pauses, (2) using high-frequency vocabulary instead of complicated ones, (3) using short sentences, more repetition and restatement, (4) offering correction and a choice of responses, and (5) reminding learners of familiar scenarios (Krashen, 1985; Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Lee & VanPatten, 2003; VanPatten, 2004). In addition, the teacher should use nonlinguistic cues to make input understood (Lee & VanPatten,

2003; VanPatten, 2004), such as drawings, photos, diagrams, objects, gestures, and other

visual aids to accompany speech.

According to the curriculum, students in Chinese 1020 will learn clothes, such as

describing various articles of clothing, making comments about others' clothes, and

buying clothes in the store in the TL. First of all, I use pictures to teach vocabulary about

clothes. Students will make the connection between certain vocabulary and pictures via

PowerPoint (VanPatten, 2004). After they gain the vocabulary from the form level to the

meaning level, I use my students to enhance their understanding of the new knowledge.

For example, I ask my students to stand up if they are wearing clothes that I had

mentioned, and the rest have to write down the clothing items at the same time. I will also

ask my students to make an inventory of the clothes in the classroom by counting how

many of their classmates are wearing certain articles of clothing. In this way, FL learning

moves from the abstract level to the concrete level, which is comprehensible for the

learners (VanPatten, 2015).

Another method of making input comprehensible is to use TPR and objects

(Shrum & Glisan, 2010; VanPatten, 2004). When teaching the prepositions of location,

such as *qian bian, hou bian, zuo bian, you bian* 'front, back, left, and right', I use TPR.

The whole class follows my command to point in the direction being called out or

sometimes they follow the sentences from the PowerPoint slides. In addition, I bring

several objects to the class and put them in different places and ask students to describe

the location and write down their utterance in a paragraph with their partners. From the

students' feedback, I realize that my students are able to understand more when I use

TPR and objects to teach new words, because learning in a concrete way helps them to

link their background knowledge and new knowledge together (Lee & VanPatten, 2003; Shrum & Glisan, 2010; VanPatten, 2004).

Well-designed language lessons incorporate good activities that will help students accomplish a communicative goal. Task-based activities, which play an important role in accomplishing these communicative goals, will be described in detail in the next section.

Task-Based Activities (TBAs)

The successful implementation of CLT relies on classroom activity. TBAs play a crucial role in the foreign language classroom because of their three distinct characteristics: they are learner-centered, which means that the successful completion of a task is only possible as a result of student-to-student interaction; they are focused on the meaningful exchange of information on the part of the participants; and they guide learners through a series of predetermined steps to analyze or use information they gathered during the activity (Ballman et al., 2001; Lee & VanPatten, 2003; Long, 1996; VanPatten, 2004; 2002; Shrum & Glisan, 2010). As stated by Ballman et al. (2001), "task-based instruction is an example of what has been referred to as "learner-centered" as opposed to "teacher-fronted" instruction" (p. 81); thus, TBAs match the philosophy of CLT that students are the main players in the classroom, as they provide students ample opportunities to participate in language learning through various activities (Lee & VanPatten, 2003).

First of all, learner-centered TBAs encourage peer interaction as they push learners to seek information through interaction (Ballman et al., 2001; Long, 1996). If learners do not communicate with others, they cannot complete the tasks. Meanwhile, the teacher should carefully design the activity according to the learners' proficiency, and

always be available to facilitate the learners with the tasks (Ballman et al., 2001; NCSSFL-ACTFL *Can-Do Statements*, 2015). According to Ellis (2012), task type influences how learners interact. Teachers have the responsibility to find and design appropriate activities for the learners, to make the activity meaningful, and thus create the conditions that help learners to acquire the language. All these benefits are aligned with the roles of students and teacher in CLT, in which students are the center of the classroom and the responsibility for learning lies with the students, while the teacher is the input provider and designer (Ballman et al., 2001).

The second characteristic of TBAs is that they allow the learners to carry out the activities through meaningful exchange of information on the part of the participants (Ballman et al., 2001; Long, 1996). For example, in an interview activity, students work in pairs and ask each other about their food preferences in Chinese. The goal for this activity is to gather information about people's eating habits, and then report the gathered information to the class in the TL. TBA focuses more on meaning than on form (Ballman et al., 2001; VanPatten, 2002). Learning through well-designed lessons that purposefully train them in the use of the TL, learners will first understand the meaning of the language, and then acquire the forms needed to express their meaning (VanPatten, 2004). This characteristic of TBA coincides with CLT's focus on meaning over forms (Lee & VanPatten, 2003).

The third characteristic of TBAs is that they guide learners through a series of predetermined steps to analyze or use information they gathered during the activity (Ballman, et al., 2001; VanPatten, 2004; 2002). A TBA lesson plan includes how learners will produce output after the activity (Ballman et al., 2001; Swain, 1985). Every step in

the activity is carefully designed by the teacher. A metaphor used by Ballman et al. (2001) is: the teacher is the architect while students are the construction workers in language learning. The teacher designs the activity based on the communicative goal and students carry out the activity to accomplish this goal by their own efforts (Ballman et al., 2001; NCSSFL-ACTFL *Can-Do Statements*, 2015). A well-designed TBA will greatly benefit learners in a communicative language classroom.

Taking the three characteristics of TBA into considerations, the teacher should carefully design the activities, which should mirror the tasks and challenges that learners will face in the real-world (Wiggins, 1998).

More Essentials in CLT

Since I began studying in the MSLT program, I have had opportunities to observe some professors' and classmates' classes. I learned from them that "If you can't use the language, you don't know a language" (Liskin-Gasparro, 1987, p. 26-27). What I experienced before as a foreign language learner and what I have learned from the MSLT program inspired me to be a better language teacher by teaching communicatively.

As a foreign language teacher, there are some pivotal principles I should keep in mind. First of all, I would like to discuss the role of the TL in the classroom. Ballman et al. (2001) state that ideally, teachers should use the TL almost 100% of the time in a second language classroom and make sure learners keep using the TL during activities. The ACTFL Standards (2015) recommend at least 90% TL use in the classroom. However, in actual foreign language classrooms, the TL is used only 75% of the time by teachers and learners (Ballman et al., 2001). I believe 100% TL use is a must during the limited and valuable time in the classroom. If the teacher uses the TL all the time,

students will have more opportunities to receive authentic input (Ballman et al., 2001;

Long, 1996; Shrum & Glisan, 2010), and the more comprehensible input they receive and

process as intake, the greater the acquisition of the language will be (Krashen, 1982).

This is especially important when students are learning the foreign language in their own

countries, with limited exposure to and engagement with the TL outside the classroom.

Meanwhile, the students should be encouraged to stay in the TL in the classroom to

produce output in the TL that incorporates what they have learned. I agree with Swain

(1985) that second language acquisition (SLA) occurs by not only receiving the

comprehensible input, but also producing output through interaction with others in the TL

(Long 1983, 1996).

Secondly, I must teach according to students' needs. As it says in ACTFL

standards, language teachers should help students learn "how, when, and why to say what

to whom" (ACTFL Standards, 2015, p. 3) in the TL. I learned from the ACTFL

Standards that the core in communicative teaching is to have a specific goal that learners

can do in real-world situations with the language they learned in the classroom. In

addition, teachers should always design lesson plans that require students to carry out

tasks through well-designed activities by the end of the learning process, or even by the

end of each class (Beeman & Uraw, 2013; Shrum & Glisan, 2010). For example, in the

first month of Chinese 1010 class, students learn how to greet people in different places

with different expressions, such as, when they see someone on the street, they should say

qu na'r 'where are you heading to'; but when they meet someone in a formal place, *ni*

hao 'hello' should be used. As a foreign language teacher, I will anticipate various

scenarios my students will face outside the classroom, and thus, tailor my courses based on real-world situations (Ballman et al., 2001; Lee & VanPatten, 2003).

Since I provide ample opportunities for students in my class to experience different real-world situations, my students have reported that they can use the language that they have learned in the classroom for their daily lives. They know their interests and have strong motivations toward what they need in their lives. This kind of language classroom is active and efficient. However, although comprehensible input, well-designed TBAs, using the TL, and error correction are pivotal elements to make CLT the most efficient approach for FL teaching, another crucial element, authentic materials, should be added to make the FL classroom more complete.

Authentic materials

Using Authentic Materials

In order to reflect real-world activities, teachers should bring as many authentic materials to the foreign language classroom as possible (Christensen, 2009). The definition of authentic material is "those written and oral communications produced by members of a language and culture group for members of the same language and culture group" (Shrum & Glisan, 2010, p. 85). The concept of authenticity is crucial in CLT, ensuring that the learner will be exposed to the same type of language as fluent speakers are (Berardo, 2006; Widdowson, 1990).

As I mentioned before, the teacher's main focus should be on designing classroom activities that mirror real-world situations (Wiggins, 1998). However, Christensen (2009) warns "We could design the most interesting interactive classroom activities, but if the language is not authentic, then it will not be of much benefit to our

students" (p. 31). Therefore, meaningful learning materials are needed in foreign language classrooms. Furthermore, Nuttall (1996) claims that "authentic texts can be motivating because they are proof that the language is used for real-world purposes by real people" (p. 172). Authentic materials in the FL classroom will benefit learners by providing real language to meet students' needs (Berardo, 2006; Shrum & Glisan, 2010; Wiggins, 1998).

In my experience, I found that authentic materials have an important role in the second language classroom. Authentic material in English helped me understand the TL in a meaningful way. By listening to radio broadcasts of Voice of America (VOA) in college, I understood real-world messages from the news produced by fluent speakers for fluent speakers. From interviews aired during the news, I got used to the normal rate of speech of fluent speakers. In addition, by using authentic material, I learned not only the sentence structure people in the target country used, but also their ways of thinking, customs, and culture.

I bring authentic materials for the students in Chinese 1010 class. According to the NCSSFL-ACTFL *Can-Do Statements* (2015), I first determine the students' level, then design activities according to what they can do inside and outside of the classroom. Every two weeks, I invite a Chinese friend to give the class a presentation about their families, hometown, or food, and to introduce the class to a movie or a book from China at the same time. When there is a Chinese traditional festival, I assign students interview questions based on what they have learned recently, such as *when is the festival, and what do people eat during that festival*? Students interview their Chinese language partners outside the classroom to gather authentic information, and then to share the

gathered information with the class. Gradually, students will learn Chinese language as well as Chinese culture by using authentic materials. Authentic materials widen learners' horizons of foreign language learning by experiencing the real-world uses of the TL.

Integrating Technological Tools to Teach Authentic Materials

As an FL learner and teacher, I found that while authentic materials are very useful they can be difficult to find for teacher and difficult to process for lower-level learners. Studying in the MSLT program, I have learned that Web 2.0 tools can enhance FL learning by providing support for learners to engage in an authentic learning environment (Blake, 2013; Ducate & Arnold, 2011; Garrett, 2009). In addition, open educational resources (OER) allow learners to work with relevant authentic materials given that OER are often more current and more accessible than traditional materials (Thoms & Thoms, 2014).

Growing up in the digital era (Shrum & Glisan, 2010), today's FL learners have the opportunity to access authentic materials via technological tools. For example, when I taught American students Chinese in China four years ago, I decided to take advantage of teaching the TL in the TL country, so I brought different kinds of original Chinese story books to the class from time to time. The story books contain information of local customs, such as people's food preferences, and the origin of minority festivals and traditional festivals. These authentic materials would especially give my students a better understanding of the Chinese culture. They learned how to say certain words that they may hear on the street or in a local market. Their language proficiency improved rapidly through the combination of authentic materials and practice in an authentic environment. However, I could tell that even though they had been learning the language in the TL

country, it was still difficult for them to read all the authentic Chinese books without

support. At that time, smart phones had become prominent, and almost every student had

one. Meanwhile, online dictionaries were also becoming widely used. Thus, the

emergence of smart phones and online dictionaries made the decoding of the words in

authentic texts easier for my students (Gettys, Imhof, & Kautz, 2001). Since I asked them

to download the online dictionary apps on their smart phone, they could type or even scan

the new characters via the camera on their phone to get the meaning quickly (Jian,

Sandnes, Law, Huang, & Huang, 2009). My students reported that they read the authentic

materials much easier by using the online dictionary, which demonstrate Xu (2010)'s

research findings that the use of dictionary can make the reading much easier and will

enhance incidental vocabulary learning from reading contexts.

Language is updated rapidly every day, so language text books should be updated

to reflect the current language (Thoms & Thoms, 2014). OER helps to fill the gap in

many ways. As defined by Hylén (2006), "Open Educational Resources are digitized

materials offered freely and openly for educators, students and self-learners to use and re-

use for teaching, learning and research." (p. 49). OER in the FL field are usually related

to resources that were created by native speakers of the TL (Thoms & Thoms, 2014).

Both teacher and learners can find the latest FL OER online, such as videos, journals, and

newspapers. Most of them are created by native speakers, so learners can access authentic

OER to engage in real-world purposes with the TL (Shrum & Glisan, 2010; Youngs,

Ducate, & Arnold, 2011).

I observed a lesson in Chinese 3010 about Chinese food culture. In order to give

the learners a concrete concept about this topic, the instructor showed a video of a

Chinese TV show called *A bite of China* from an OER website. The video was made by a local TV station for Chinese TV viewers. By watching videos of Chinese people's daily activities, learners can better understand Chinese food culture. I remember by the end of that class, the students were still talking about the rich food culture in China, and some of them even decided that they were going to visit local Chinese restaurants.

Technology affects FL learning in various ways. The implementation of technology benefits both learners and teachers in the classroom. In my future teaching, I will keep integrating technology into the classroom with the purpose of providing more updated authentic learning materials. However, in order to better understand the authentic materials, such as texts and videos, learners need to build high literacy skills early in their beginning FL classrooms. In reference to the development of literacy skills, DLI is an important FL learning mode to support the development of literacy skills. It will be further explored in the next section.

DLI Programs

Language Background

As Genesee (2008) claims "the spread of English as a world language does not reduce the importance of knowing other languages" (p. 23). In fact, multilingual skills and intercultural competence are needed to compete with others in the global workforce, to look for educational materials in different languages online, and to travel around the world (Genesee, 2008; Collier & Thomas, 2004). The increased demand for knowing more languages other than the native language is needed by the global economy. Global business is one of the most important catalysts for the rapid development of FL learning. For example, if a company in the US wants to start a business in China, they first need

communication. Although English is popular around the world, most Chinese people cannot use English for real-world purposes. The second reason for the necessity of multiple languages is for searching online learning materials for educational purpose. Nowadays, more and more learning materials are shared through the internet in different languages, so knowing more languages will benefit learners to collect related information on their academic studies. In addition, as people travel around for a variety of reasons, or even immigrate from country to country, it is necessary to have a multilingual background to support these worldwide activities.

Since knowing a FL language will benefit people's daily activities, educators have been working on designing the most efficient FL classroom for learners. Dual language immersion (DLI) programs have served the world's FL classroom over half of a century (Swain & Lapkin, 2005), and they will be implemented by more schools due to their effectiveness in FL learning. Many of the empirical studies on the effectiveness of DLI programs demonstrate above-average levels in language arts and other subjects such as math and science among DLI students when compared to non-immersion students (Björklund & Mård-Miettinen, 2011; Collier & Thomas, 2004).

Developing Literacy in the DLI Classroom

The most salient characteristic in the DLI classroom that differs from other FL classroom is that learners are immersed in the TL and learn content via the TL (Swain & Lapkin, 2005), which means learners not only learn the language, but also learn math, science, or social studies in the TL. In this way, the development of literacy skills is especially important to support academic learning.

Several issues need to be taken into consideration to develop literacy skills in the DLI class. To begin, as Ballman et al. (2001) claim, the first thing for learning a language is to speak the language. The main focus on the development of learners' literacy skills in the early ages should be linked with the development of oral language proficiency (Fortune & Menke, 2010). Therefore, in the early stages, when learners cannot yet read or write, or know only a couple of words, the teacher should provide ample opportunities for them to practice the TL orally.

I had the chance to observe a first grade Chinese DLI class. I remember the class because of its diverse activities in engaging the learners in speaking in Chinese. The teacher told a story from a comic book which contains almost all pictures and only with a single character in Chinese to sum up the main idea. The students listened carefully the first time, and retold in groups the second time. After seeing every one taking turns to retell the story, the teacher invited each group to tell the story to the class, and while one student was speaking, the rest of the group could add on more information to complete the story. Furthermore, the teacher asked the students to continue the story according to their imagination in pairs. Students in this class were provided ample opportunities to train their speaking skills and learned how to link each picture together as a text.

Due to the unique course setting for DLI, in which students learn academic content in the TL from first grade, reading becomes a determinate skill for academic success. Therefore, developing reading skills should be integrated into the DLI classroom from the early stages (Beeman & Urow, 2013; Fisher & Stoner, 2004)). However, the development of reading skills in lower grades is difficult given that most of the students are beginners in the TL. In reference to this situation, several strategies can be used by

the DLI teachers to train students' reading skills. For example, the teachers should choose age-appropriate materials. Reading materials in first grade can be simple words with a group of pictures, cartoons, or graphics that are comprehensible for students. Students can be paired for group reading and tell each other the story based on the given information. Students can share their stories with the class after the group practice. In addition, the teacher should walk around and keep students on tasks during the group discussion, or the teacher may join the discussion to give support if needed. While reading, the teacher should provide questions about the background of the text, when and where the story takes place, how many characters in the text, the relationships between the characters, and the ages of the characters to facilitate interpretation of the text. Furthermore, parents should be involved in the development of students' reading skills. The teachers can make a recommended reading list for parents to use at home. If the parents speak the TL, they read for their children after school, but if the parents cannot speak the TL, they can read in their native languages and ask their children to summarize the story briefly in a short paragraph in the TL and share it with the class the next day.

Literacy skills include not only the ability to read, but also the ability to write (Allen & Paesani, 2010; Kern, 2001), and thus writing skills need to be built in the DLI classroom in the early stages as well. However, as writing is the hardest part in language learning, teachers need to apply effective methods to train students' writing skills, and the language experience approach (LEA) (Beeman & Urow, 2013) is one of the most effective methods that should be used to develop writing skills in the DLI classroom. Based on the LEA, the teachers can design the writing class in the form of writing dialogue journal, in which the students choose the topic freely, and the teacher decides

the length of the time for writing in the class. For lower-proficiency learners, dialogue journal writing can be carried out in several steps: firstly, the whole class shares the same experience while the teacher writes down students' utterances on the whiteboard or PowerPoint slides, then the students use the written texts as sources for their independent writings. Another way to build writing skills is the content area journal. According to the Utah DLI model, students will learn math in the TL from grade one to grade three, and switch to science in the TL in grade four and grade five before switching to social studies in the TL in grade six (Leite, 2013; Spicer-Escalante, Leite, & Wade, 2015). In this way, teachers can assign content writing, such as asking students to write the solution steps for math problems, in other words, the process of getting the result from addition-subtraction. In addition, when getting up to grade four, students can write about their observations of the science experiments, such as observations of the growth of an insect. The teacher can provide an outline and ask the students to complete the writing by adding specific information. Furthermore, when it comes to grade six, in which students learn social studies in the TL, the teacher can assign writing with the form of rewriting of a literature text, or writing about the history of a famous site in local places.

Developing literacy skills in the DLI classroom is a necessity to support students' academic content learning. However, given the reality that most of the students' language proficiency is relatively low in the early stages, strategies like using visual aids in reading, reading in groups, or writing with LEA should be implemented appropriately in the DLI classroom to develop students' literacy skills.

In addition, building literacy skills in a teaching Chinese as a foreign language classroom is equally important. In my Chinese 1010 and 1020 classroom, I train students'

reading and writing skills by assigning readings of Chinese comic books with pictures at the beginning of the semester. Then I give out longer story with vocabulary they have learned in the class. When it closes to the midterm, they read longer paragraphs every week, and write reflection on the article individually or in pairs. The every week writing project and the Test of Chinese Proficiency show my students' improvement on literacy skills after the training.

Conclusion

I divided this personal teaching philosophy into three sections to demonstrate my understanding of effective FL teaching. As a FL learner, I had the experience of learning foreign languages in a classroom with a lot of memorizing and found out that was not an efficient learning method. As a FL teacher, I am lucky to learn about CLT methodology and have the opportunity to apply CLT in my Chinese classroom. From my experience of teaching Chinese as a foreign language, I found comprehensible input, error correction, and TBAs all to be important components of a communicative FL learning environment. In addition, my experience of bringing authentic materials in the Chinese classroom and using technological tools to facilitate authentic materials learning increase students' language proficiency and cultural awareness of the TL culture. Furthermore, my interest of being a DLI teacher leads me to the exploration of strategies that can build DLI students' literacy skills in the lower grades. Lastly, all these theories and teaching skills that I learned from CLT will benefit my future teaching in the Chinese DLI classroom.

As I have been learning how to be an effective foreign language (FL) teacher in the MSLT program, I have had the opportunity to observe most of my colleagues teach a FL, such as French, Spanish, Arabic, Chinese, and English as a second language (ESL). In this section, I will discuss the classes that both demonstrate my beliefs as an effective FL teacher and those that do not match my teaching philosophy.

A majority of the classes that I observed were college-level FL classes with the exception of two dual-language immersion classes. Through the observations, I have been able to compare the teaching methods of others with my personal teaching philosophy.

In my personal teaching philosophy, I argue that an effective FL classroom should be taught communicatively. The first pivotal element in such classroom is comprehensible input. For example, teachers should use a variety of teaching aids, such as pictures, objects, or total physical response (TPR) during the input rounds to help students process the input by linking the form and the meaning together. All the classes that I observed were taught comprehensibly, the teachers would either use PowerPoint slides with pictures to show the meaning or TPR to act out the meaning of the words and/or sentences.

The first class to demonstrate the comprehensible input was a low level ESL class, in which most of the students were new comers and the spouses of international students who study at the University. The students' English proficiency was relative low, some could not even say a single word in English. The teacher integrated technology in her teaching to make new words comprehensible. When teaching kitchenware, such as spoon

and pot, she typed the word in the browser dialogue box on the computer and found the related image. In this way, the students could better understand the new words because when they saw the pictures, they would link it to kitchenware that they had used before and were motivated to know the word in English. The pictures provided students with concrete concepts of the new words, and thus they could process the new words by linking the forms and pictures together. Another example was from one DLI class. When teaching food vocabulary, the teacher showed the pictures on the PowerPoint slides and used TPR to act out how to eat the food, and the class followed the actions to practice. In the practice section, the teacher acted out the same actions about eating food and asked the students to give relevant vocabulary, which reinforced students' retention of the new vocabulary.

Other than comprehensible input, I believe error correction is an important part of the FL classroom. I believe that the teacher should not stop to correct the error unless the error obstructs communication. If the error is considered to be an obstacle to the conversation, the teacher should choose an appropriate form of corrective feedback to correct the students. When I observed the DLI classes, I noticed that in one class, the young learners were highly engaged in the classroom conversation. Every time when the teacher initiated a question, the students competed in raising their hands to answer the question. Sometimes, the answers were not exactly correct, but the teacher would not stop the student from completing the whole sentences. Other times, she gave opportunities for more students to answer the same question from different perspectives. All the students were encouraged to participate in the conversation without worrying about making mistakes.

In other classes, I observed a similar situation; teachers would not interrupt the students' utterances when the conversation contained subtle errors. I perceived the teachers' intention was to create an easy learning environment without pushing the students to produce output (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001; Krashen, 1985; Lee & VanPatten, 2003).

Another concern in my TPS is the use of target language by the teacher. I believe that the teacher should speak in the target language at least 90% of the class time (ACTFL Standards, 2015). Many students do not have the opportunity to travel to a country which speaks the language they are learning, thus their only form of input in the target language is from the teacher (Darhower, 2014). From all the FL classrooms that I observed, other than the DLI classes, in which teachers and students are required to only speak in the target language, I perceived that the use of the target language ranged from 50% to 100% in college-level classrooms. In the Spanish classroom, the instructors used the target language all the time in the class, including the input rounds and the explaining of in-class activity. This is probably due to the close relationship between Spanish and English. Students can often transfer sounds and skills between English and Spanish. In addition, Spanish is a second language for the US; learners hear the language everywhere on campus, in their communities, from the families, or from their friends. So even though they cannot speak the language, it is much easier for them to figure out the meaning through comprehensible input from the teacher and their peers.

On the contrary, the amount of target language use in the novice-level Chinese classroom and Arabic classrooms was relatively low compared to the Spanish class. I noticed sometimes the teachers really tried to explain in the target language, but the

students were not able to follow, so the teacher turned to English every now and then to check students' understanding of the instruction. I still think the target language should be used as much as possible. For example, in the novice-level classroom, if the students have difficulties in understanding the classroom language or the instructions for the activities, the teacher can make a list of commonly used classroom expressions and give a handout at the beginning of the semester, and train the students for the first couple of weeks. To help student understand activity instructions, I recommend that teachers model the activity with the higher proficiency students in front of the class, and then ask the class to carry out the activity by themselves. While I understand that keeping 100% in the target language is an ideal model, I do acknowledge that there is a role for L1 in the FL classroom (Brown, 2007), which can benefit L2 learning if it is appropriately used.

Other than how to teach communicatively, I also focus on integrating authentic materials into the FL classroom in my TPS. I believe the use of authentic materials is a vital element to form an efficient FL classroom. However, according to my observations, authentic materials were rarely used in novice-level classes. Except for the use of one video from the local TV station in one class, I did not see anything else that involved the use of authentic materials. Most of the teaching materials, regardless of the language, were written in the US. In my future FL teaching, I will bring more authentic materials to the classroom. In addition, considering the difficulty of learning from authentic materials, I will teach my students how to use online technological tools to support their learning, such as online dictionaries and translation tools. Furthermore, I will introduce my students to a variety of open educational resources (OER) websites, in which they can find authentic materials including videos, news, and recordings.

Finally, I would like to point out the unbalanced development of students' language skills in the FL classes that I observed. In my TPS, I stress the importance of developing students' literacy skills to support their content learning. I found that the main focus in the early elementary DLI classes is oral proficiency, and the same was true for college-level FL classes. Most of the activities required more oral language production than writing. Although students were sometimes required to do fill-in-the-blank forms or graphics, the teacher would not emphasize reading and/or writing too much. I believe that the development of literacy skills should be integrated into the FL class from the beginning levels, such as giving assignments that require short reading or free writing every other day, or at least once a week.

Observing others' teaching has opened my eyes to nuances in FL teaching. I can test out my understanding of FL teaching in a real classroom setting. I can measure which parts of my teaching philosophy match the real FL class, and which parts are not suitable for the classroom. What I have learned from the observations will improve my future teaching through the comparisons with others and the adoption of others' good ideas.

SELF-ASSESSMENT OF TEACHING STATEMENT

This self-assessment of teaching is written based on the model created by Dr. Spicer-Escalante and Dr. deJonge-Kannan (deJonge-Kannan & Spicer-Escalante, 2016; Spicer-Escalante, 2015).

Background
On January 30, 2015, my major professor Dr. Karin deJonge-Kannan came to observe my teaching for the whole section of a fifty-minute long Chinese novice level class that meets five times a week.

Students
Chinese 1020 is the second basic course that caters to students who have completed Chinese 1010 or its equivalent. This course enables students to further develop basic communicative competencies. It had 14 enrolled students and 12 of them showed up during the time of observation. While some of them took this class for their own interests others took it for a USU course requirement.

Curricular context
By the time the observation occurred, students were familiar with how to greet people, introduce their family, ask someone's name, look for someone, and introduce friends in Chinese.

Approach
My teaching methodology in this class is based on the CLT model, in which I plan each lesson with comprehensible input, such as using PowerPoint accompanied with body gestures every day, and sometimes with technological tools. In addition, I design various types of task-based activities to help students experience the real-world like situation, and hence build their communicative skills.

Today's focus
In lesson 13, students will learn about clothing, such as how to identify color, clothing items, and how to dress appropriately in both formal and informal situations. Today, students are going to learn different clothing items, explaining their preferences on choosing clothes, and describing other's clothes. I sent Dr. Karin deJonge-Kannan my lesson plan ahead of time and received feedback two days before the observation.

Objectives
By the end of the class, student will be able to
  1. Tell the color of an outfit in Chinese
  2. Identify different kinds of clothes in a Chinese cloth store

3. Make comments on people's clothes

Feedback

Before receiving Dr. deJonge-Kannan's notes on the observation, I watched the video recording of my lesson. I was pleased to see my improvement as a foreign language teacher, and yet I noticed room for my future improvement:

Things I didn't like:

- *I should pay more attention to the lower-level students and give sufficient instruction before activities. During the first activity, several students had to spend most of the time figuring out the instruction prompts instead of doing the activity.*

- *I notice that more meaningful conclusions and introductions were needed between the sections. When teaching, the input and the following activities should be connected firmly.*

- *More efforts are needed for organizing the activities. I notice that when doing the activities, several students were not walking around even though I gave the command that they were required to walk around and talk to their classmates.*

- *I need to pay attention to students' feedback after each activity. I wanted to follow my lesson plan so I stopped them when they still enjoyed the speaking activity.*

Dr. deJonge-Kannan's notes are attached at the end of this portfolio (see Appendix C). I appreciate her encouragement of acknowledging my teaching style and skill. For the purpose of improving my teaching through reflection and peer-assessment, I am particularly interested in her comments for improvement in my future teaching.

Things that can be improved:

- *In activity one of matching clothing items, students spend so much time figuring out what they're supposed to ask each other, they have no time to actually talk.*

- *It was better to show/explain everything on the screen first, and then to also give students the handout for activity.*

- *Only 5 minutes left when the teacher starts students on the third activity.*

The self-reflection along with Dr. deJonge-Kannan's assessment demonstrate that I need to give more explicit instruction before each task. During the input round and before each activity, I checked students' understanding of the instructions on the paper, but I was in a rush to start the activities when some of them gave me positive feedback. According to my beliefs of the role as a foreign language (FL) teacher, I should predict the potential difficulty for them to do the activity and provide more support. I will work on this in my future class with checking students' understanding from both the higher-level and the lower-level students; therefore, to find the balance and make every student benefit from the instruction.

In addition, I will work on designing more meaningful activities and organizing them with better transitions. To make sure students will be facilitated with the well-designed activities and thus to achieve the communicative goals effectively. Furthermore, I am learning to be more flexible as a foreign language teacher. I will pay more attention to students' feedback and adjust my teaching flow according to students' need.

I appreciate Dr. deJonge-Kannan's suggestion about explaining/modeling the activities before distributing the handouts. I realize then the activities will be much more organized since I am doing this in my current teaching.

I value the time and effort Dr. deJonge-Kannan invested in observing my teaching. I value her feedback and comments, which, along with my reflection from watching the video of my teaching, help me improve my practice.

Table 1. CHIN1020 Lesson Plan

Tuesday January 30, 2015			
time	activity	modes	format
9:30	Welcome and introduce learning objectives.	interpersonal	Whole class
9:31	Students will watch a video and write down the words of clothes they heard in pairs, and then share to the whole class.	interpretive	Pairs; Whole class
9:35	Students will learn 14 clothing items in PPT. During the learning process, students have to fill in the blank sheet with clothing items from observing their classmates. For example, I will ask students wearing jeans to stand up, so the others can count and take notes.	Interpretive; interpersonal	Individual; Whole class
9:50	Students walk around and *ask* two people with: 1. Which two clothes do match each	presentational; interpretive;	individual

	other? 2. What kind of clothes do you like? 3. What kind of clothes you do not like? Students *write down* the answers and I may ask two of them to report to the class.	interpersonal; Private writing	
10:00	Students walk around and ask two people questions related to the two pictures with different clothes and colors on the PPT slide. Students will *ask and answer* questions like: 1. Whose clothes do you like the best? 2. Which clothes are in fashion or out of fashion? 3. Which is the most comfortable one? 4. Which is the most expensive one?	presentational; interpretive; interpersonal;	Groups of 3
10:10	Students work in group of three to match the clothing items. Each group has to make agreement on the clothes they think are best matched together (from hat to shoes). I will ask two groups to share to the class.	presentational; interpretive; interpersonal;	Groups of 3

Handouts and other materials needed

☐ PowerPoint presentation to serve as framework for the lesson and for visual support

☐Printed copies for activity one (see Appendix D)

☐ Video clip "President Obama shopping at the GAP store"

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xEibiwmDzHg

LANGUAGE ARTIFACT

Asynchronous versus Synchronous: A Review of Computer-mediated Communication

Tools for a Tandem Language-learning Project

INTRODUCTION

This paper was written originally with Fred Poole for technology course with Dr. Joshua Thoms. I have since changed it to better fit my portfolio.

In this literature review, I examine how foreign language learners develop their linguistic proficiency through online tandem learning language projects. From the studies I have read, I conclude that learners' grammatical competence and strategic competence will be built in the synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC) environment. In addition, the literature demonstrates that with asynchronous computer-mediated communication (ACMC), learners' autonomy and syntactic and lexical complexity will be improved. Most of the online tandem learning projects in the research literature paired language partners such that each group's L1 is the other group's target language, which provided learners with ample opportunity for immersion in the target language. Learners were able to pick up grammar rules, vocabulary, and pragmatics from the responses of their partners. Furthermore, having opportunities to communicate with native speakers promotes learners' autonomy in selecting topics that they are interested in and scheduling the time to exchange information according to their own needs.

From the research literature I review in the field of computer-mediated communication (CMC), I have observed that most researchers have examined the instant effects of CMC on second language teaching/learning, but few of them have paid attention to the long-term effects of CMC, so I provide a research proposal with the emphasis of vocabulary retention in the CMC environment with a tool called *We Chat*. To conclude, this literature review demonstrates my understanding of how to integrate technology in a foreign language curriculum through a well-designed project.

Abstract

This paper explores which aspects of foreign language learning are enhanced by asynchronous computer-mediated communication (ACMC) and synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC). Several studies indicate that ACMC promotes learner autonomy and the use of more complex syntax and vocabulary (Priego, 2011; Sotillo, 2000; Vinagre, 2005). As for SCMC, it has been shown to improve skills related to oral production and to increase interaction among learners (Mrowa-Hopkins, 2012; Sotillo, 2000). These combined findings are used to propose a tandem language-learning program that includes both ACMC and SCMC. This paper concludes with a proposal for a study using *We Chat*, a social networking application that supports several types of CMC, in a tandem language-learning program. Although other studies have compared the effects of different modes of CMC on language learning, few have observed the effect on the retention of vocabulary learned in these CMC environments. This study will attempt to fill this gap.

Keywords: ACMC, SCMC, tandem learning, We Chat

Introduction

Computer-mediated communication (CMC) refers to any program that allows users to exchange language via text, audio or video. Examples of such tools include: e-mail, blog, threaded forums, and text- and video-based chat applications (Blake, 2013). This paper investigates the current research regarding synchronous CMC (SCMC), which means chatting in real-time with the exchange of text, audio or video (Blake, 2013) and asynchronous CMC (ACMC), which refers to the delayed exchanges of text or voice messages (Blake, 2013).

Growing up in the age of the Internet and a world run by technology, 21st-century learners expect not a conventional foreign language classroom but a digital classroom (Shrum & Glisan, 2010). Educators who allow learners to mediate their learning with technology effectively prepare their students by providing them with skills for the future and a learning environment that is both natural and motivational for today's learners (Blake, 2013). However, technology is a double-edged sword. It should not be considered as a panacea to improve language learning, but be applied only if there is a potential benefit to the learners' academic goals (Shrum & Glisan, 2010).

According to my experiences as a foreign language learner and teachers, embracing technology without a well-designed lesson plan can lead to a focus on the medium rather than the language. When integrating SCMC and ACMC tools in the curriculum for tandem language learning projects (which means both partners learn each other's languages via media and spend equal time on both languages during the exchange), the teacher should take several aspects into consideration. First of all, knowing students' strengths and weaknesses will help to tailor the best tools for them to improve language learning. Second, students' background knowledge of the target culture (the country that speaks the target language) is something especially important in exchange programs to avoid failed communication (O'Dowd & Ritter, 2006). Third, learners need training on how to use the tools, and tasks that promote interaction and collaboration between the language partners.

Offering learners an opportunity to communicate with members of the target language is or should be a goal of all language teachers. However, due to geographic, economic, and even political constraints, this is not always possible. Even when these

factors are not an issue, face-to-face communication in an L2 with a member of the target

language can be stressful, as many learners experience anxiety when speaking in a

foreign language (MacIntyre, 1999). To overcome some of these issues, a tandem

language-learning program with students in a first-year Chinese course and native

Chinese speakers currently attending Utah State University was carried out by the

Chinese program. The main mode of communication used for this program was *We Chat*,

a social networking tool that has both ACMC and SCMC features. This program raised

my interest in the benefits of using both ACMC and SCMC tools, and furthermore I was

interested in determining which skills could be developed most efficiently with each of

these tools.

In the following section, I will review the current literature regarding ACMC and

SCMC. After the literature review, I will present a guide that will inform language

educators of the most efficient tools for developing specific language skills. Finally, I

will conclude this paper with suggestions for further research in the field CMC and

outline a future study involving *We Chat*.

Literature Review

Asynchronous CMC

As mentioned earlier, the most prominent difference between ACMC and SCMC

is the length of time between exchanges. In SCMC, learners engage in rapid exchanges at

a rate similar to an oral conversation, while exchanges in ACMC can be separated by 10

minutes or 10 days or more. Due to this delay in response, messages in ACMC tend to be

longer and written in a presentational manner. Many studies have found that ACMC

benefits learners by increasing learner autonomy and writing skills (O'Dowd, 2012). In

this paper, I focus on studies that have demonstrated enhanced learner autonomy and writing complexity. From the literature review, I learned that tailoring ACMC tools according to students' interests will encourage learner autonomy (Chun, 2011; Schwienhorst, 2003), and that due to the extended writing and the correction of that writing which often occurs in ACMC projects, students are able to make gains in the complexity of syntax and lexicon employed (Kabata & Edasawa, 2011).

Increased Levels of Learner Autonomy

According to Lee (2011), autonomy allows learners to make decisions independently and promotes self-reflection during the learning process. Autonomous learners are responsible for their own learning and are motivated to engage in the learning environment by setting personal goals, creating and carrying out tasks, and evaluating their progress (Benson 2006; Lee, 2011; Little, 2004). In the following section, the main focus is on ACMC tools that encourage learner autonomy by setting topics that rouse learners' interests, peer collaboration, and interaction.

If learners are given more initiative in tandem learning programs, they will be more responsible for their own learning (O'Dowd, 2012). In a study regarding an email tandem learning program between English and Spanish learners, Vinagre (2005) found that students who were accorded a high degree of autonomy held positive views toward the program for the entire twelve weeks. Since learners were given the freedom to choose writing topics from a given list, they became active and eager to discover each other's views on different issues and events. In addition, learners were engaged with their partners' language and culture. By the end of the study, learners from both cultures perceived email tandem learning as an effective means to learn the language

independently, because they were able to accomplish most of the objectives they set at the beginning (Schwienhorst, 2003). In addition, the context of email tandem learning makes learning more interesting (Ushioda, 2000) because it enables learners to have contact with native speakers which allows the participants to expand their perspectives of the target language and target culture. Tandem learning via email can also improve learners' writing through mutual error correction, which will be discussed in another section.

Another way that ACMC promotes learner autonomy is through peer collaboration. Dang (2010) claims that collaborative interaction with peers is a prerequisite for the development of autonomous learning (Lee, 2011). In Lee's study, blogs were used to foster critical reflection on cross-cultural issues in a study abroad program (Lee, 2011). Students were assigned to develop and maintain three blogs: a personal blog for personal records; a class blog for information exchanging; and a project blog for an individual view of immigration issues in different periods of time. Lee found that students were inspired to exchange information through the class blog, because students were eager to respond critically to a variety of ideas and share their own ideas in this platform. The findings of this study demonstrate that ACMC promotes students' motivation as they connect and interact with others (Lee, 2004; Ware, 2005). In addition, students reported that blogging supported self-directed learning, since they had opportunities to construct meaning individually and socially. Finally, the participants viewed the personal blog as a positive part of the program, because it gave them freedom to make their own decisions about what, how much, and when to write. Besides this,

personal blogs also allowed them to choose culture topics independently and to build on their areas of interests.

Research reviewed above has shown that ACMC significantly improves learner autonomy by giving students the opportunity to select their own topics and by promoting peer collaboration. In addition, as students were interacting in ACMC environments (email and blogging), they were responsible for their own learning and time management, which also improved learner autonomy.

Developing Syntactic and Lexical Complexity

Another advantage of using ACMC for language learning is to develop learners' syntactic and lexical complexity (Sotillo, 2000). This is possibly due to an ACMC environment in which learners have more time to notice and correct their written errors either through self-repair or through peer correction. According to O'Dowd (2013), error correction is more salient in an ACMC environment because the interaction is presented in written form, and thus, students are able to lend more attention to the forms being corrected. The following studies will show how error correction benefits learners in developing their syntactic and lexical complexity.

In Priego's (2011) study, French-speaking English as a second language (ESL) students and English-speaking French as second language (FSL) students in secondary schools were paired up in an e-mail tandem learning project. The language partners took turns acting as the non-native speaker (NNS) learner and the native speaker (NS) tutor. In this study, the strategy most employed by the students when they acted as NS tutors was explicit error correction. Students as NS tutors corrected their partners' errors in different ways. For instance, sometimes students helped rewrite the entire e-mail and other times

they just pointed out the paragraphs or sentences with errors by using linguistic cues. Meanwhile, students actively asked for feedback from their partners when they took the role of NNS learner. Also, NNS learners thanked their partners' for making corrections and they reported having learned a lot from the corrections. As mentioned earlier, the writing that occurs in emails tends to be longer; Priego points out that participants acting as NS tutors were rewriting emails and making corrections at the sentence and paragraph level. These types of corrections suggest that more complex writing is occurring than typically found in a synchronous chat environment.

Edasawa and Kabata (2007) also examined error corrections made in an 8-week collaborative key-pal project. They studied written interactions between English learners in Japan and Japanese learners at a Canadian university. With the goal of comparing their results with other studies, Edasawa and Kabata focused on whether learners would correct each other's errors in the same way as the participants in similar studies (e.g., Torii-Williams, 2004; Vinagre, 2005). In this study, learners were assigned to small groups using a discussion board, instead of in pairs as in other studies. This allowed learners the opportunity to connect with more people and to get a variety of feedback to improve their writing. During the interactions in the discussion board, students asked for and gave feedback to each other, but rarely with explicit feedback. The learners preferred to give indirect feedback when correcting each other's errors. They would not point out the errors with negative signals, such as offering the right forms of the vocabulary, or correcting the grammar errors by saying that "you should say…instead of…", but just recasting sometimes. The improvement of vocabulary is thus not from their partners'

explicit correction, but with picking up new vocabulary from their partners' returned messages.

Several years later, Kabata and Edasawa (2011) did another study with a key-pal program at the same schools but with different students. Based on a different setting from their previous study, in which learners were trained to explicitly correct each other's error before carrying out the project, learners in this study had significant improvement in learning vocabulary through explicit correction. Although a few learners neglected the grammatical corrections from their partners, most of them noticed and learned from the explicit error correction (Edasawa & Kabata, 2011). Learners' syntactic and lexical complexities were developed through different ways of error correction because learners were able to use new vocabulary and create sentences to write down their opinions in a more complex way in the target language. Furthermore, because writing in ACMC does not have the 'back-and-forth' banter of SCMC writing, more feedback can be given without disrupting communication.

<div align="center">

Synchronous CMC

</div>

SCMC tools unlike ACMC tools allow learners to communicate in real-time, without the pressures often associated with face-to-face communication. However, since the interaction occurs in a digital space, there is concern that without the visual cues from the interlocutors, communication breakdowns may be more frequent and the L2 speaker might pay less attention to grammatical errors. The advent of more sophisticated videoconferencing technology has been a promising solution for some of the concerns. However, much of the research on video-based chat tools has focused on assessing the tools, rather than the effects it has on language (Eröz-Tuğa & Sadler; 2009; Wang, 2004).

Nonetheless, when investigating the research trends on SCMC tools from 1990 to 2010,

Sauro (2011) found that nearly half of the research focused on the effect of SCMC tools

on grammatical competence. The second largest area of research was concentrated on

strategic competence. The research on SCMC tools presented in this literature review

further examines these trends.

Developing Grammatical Competence

Language use by L2 learners in SCMC has been characterized as short, informal,

and generally less accurate than language use in ACMC, which has led to the belief that

SCMC dialogue more closely resembles informal speech (Sotillo, 2000). The increase in

L2 errors seen in synchronous chat programs is most likely due to the communicative

nature of the exchange, in which learners focus on meaning over structure. However,

research has still shown gains in grammatical competence by learners engaging in

synchronous text-based chats (Coniam & Wong, 2004; Lee, 2008; Smith, 2008; 2009).

Gains in grammatical competence could be a result of various factors: self-repair,

which occurs when learners notice a mistake before they are informed of it; scaffolding

for a novice learner by a more advanced partner; or engaging in a significant amount of

meaningful exchanges in the L2. In a study involving 30 learners of Spanish, Lee (2008)

observed how 15 expert speakers of Spanish provided support for 15 novice learners of

Spanish in an SCMC environment. The dyads were asked to complete two versions of

three different task types: jigsaw; spot-the-difference; and open-ended questions. The

experts received training on how to provide scaffolding before working with their

partners. Although Lee points out that providing learners with step-by-step guidance was

difficult for the experts due to the lack of visual cues, the feedback provided by experts

was more salient because it was written, and thus, easier to notice. Lee also found that because the exchanges were written, the learners often made self-repair, especially when working on jigsaw and open-ended questions. Lee suggests that the participants experienced less self-repair on the spot-the-difference task because the task required more attention on lexical accuracy, and thus, grammatical accuracy suffered. Finally, it is noteworthy that in this study, the novice learners were bothered by the many corrections that their expert partners made because they felt that communication was inhibited.

However, self-repair can actually happen if the instant chat is captured effectively. In another study, which observed the rate of self-repairs by learners in an SCMC environment; Smith (2008) found participants made one self-repair in every hundred words when he analyzed the chat log. However, when he observed the video, capturing the participants' screens, he found that they actually made 6 repairs for every 100 words. This study highlights the difficulty of tracking the grammatical advances made by students in an SCMC environment. In a follow-up study, Smith (2009) observed the relationship between learners scrolling up and down the conversation log and self-repairs. Although he did not find a significant correlation between self-repairs and scrolling, he did point out that scrolling could be the digital form of negotiating meaning. This is to say, when a learner does not understand something in a conversation, instead of using linguistic or visual cues to alert the interlocutors of a communication failure, learners may simply scroll up and look for clues in the chat log. These studies indicate that even if learners appear to be producing error-free utterances, learning may still be occurring. In an ACMC environment, learners are able to check their sentences and refer to previous sentences in the chat log before sending a message.

Besides learning through self-checking with sentences in the chat log, learners are also motivated to produce more complex sentences to make themselves understood while chatting. In a study that observed the effect of SCMC on grammatical competence, Coniam and Wong (2004) examined pre- and post-experiment writing samples of advanced ESL students. Fifteen students from a school in Hong Kong were asked to communicate via *ICQ*, a text-based chat application, in English for at least 5 hours per week, for four weeks. The conversations were not monitored and writing samples were collected before and after the treatment to compare the gains by the participants with a control group. Coniam and Wong found that participants in the treatment group had more occurrences of complex sentences than students in the control group. They attributed the gains in writing complexity to the nature of speaking in real-life conversations, which pushed the participants to express more complex ideas. Finally, the researchers also mention that many of the participants went beyond the required five hours per week, with one student reporting as much as 20 hours of chatting per week. This finding illustrates the effect of an SCMC assignment on student motivation and interaction. In addition, the SCMC environment increase students' willingness to communicate with others (McIntyre, Baker, Clement, & Donovan, 2002).

Developing Strategic Competence

Strategic competence refers to a speaker's ability to keep communication going once a failure occurs or to the ability to carry out effective communication despite linguistic limitations (Canale & Swain, 1980). Research has shown that communicating in an SCMC environment produces more interaction and more negotiation of meaning (Sanchez-Castro & Mrowa-Hopkins, 2012; Tan, Wigglesworth, & Storch, 2010).

Through increased involvement in interaction and negotiation of meaning, learners are able to develop strategies and skills for maintaining an effective conversation.

In a study comparing student interaction in a face-to-face and SCMC environment, Tan, Wigglesworth, and Storch (2011) gave seven tasks to students in a beginner Chinese course at the university level. The tasks were to be completed in pairs over a ten-week period. There were two versions of each task: face-to-face, which was done in the classroom, and SCMC, which was done outside the classroom. Tan and his colleagues found that the type of interaction was influenced by the mode of conversation. The dyads that had an expert-novice, or dominant-passive relationship in the classroom became more collaborative and cooperative when interacting on the computer because the online conversation reduced the stress on learners. The authors concluded that SCMC led to more engagement by the students and thus more interaction. In Sanchez-Castro and Mrowa-Hopkins (2012), the authors investigated the effects of learners' self-efficacy, in which self-efficacy was defined as one's perceived ability to carry out a conversation in a foreign language, to keep interacting with others, and to sustain and negotiate meaning in communication in an SCMC environment. Sanchez-Castro and Mrowa-Hopkins (2012) analyzed the interactions of 14 students learning Spanish, 8 of whom were found to have high self-efficacy and 6 of whom were found to have low self-efficacy. The researchers found that by the end of the study, students who were characterized as having low self-efficacy were performing conversation sustaining moves similar to those of the high self-efficacy learners. These findings suggest that when learners communicate in an SCMC environment, they develop skills and tendencies that are beneficial for maintaining a successful conversation.

Asynchronous vs. Synchronous CMC

A few studies have compared the effects ACMC and SCMC on language learning. In a study comparing the effects of ACMC, SCMC, and face-to-face instruction on oral scores, Abrams (2003) divided 96 third-semester German learners into three groups: ACMC; SCMC; and face-to-face. The SCMC group communicated in a synchronous chat discussion for 100 minutes, while the ACMC group participated in a threaded discussion over a one-week period. The face-to-face group carried out the discussion during a class period. Abrams found that the SCMC group outperformed the ACMC and face-to-face group in the amount of output, but not in lexical or syntactic complexity.

Hirotani (2009) conducted a similar study comparing the effects of ACMC and SCMC on the oral development of novice/intermediate learners of Japanese. However, in this study, participants met once per week outside of class for 10 weeks. The three sessions were given the same tasks, only the mode of delivery was changed: SCMC, ACMC, or face-to-face. Hirotani found that the participants in the SCMC group produced more output, but the difference was not statistically significant. However, the ACMC group did produce significantly more complex sentences. Perez (2003) measured the number of new vocabulary words that the learners were exposed to during SCMC and ACMC treatments. However, he also failed to find a significant difference between SCMC and ACMC. It is interesting to note that learners were not tested on their retention of this vocabulary; it was simply assumed that, if they had used the word during the discussion, they must have learned it.

Finally, Sotillo (2000) was interested in how ACMC and SCMC differ in terms of developing discourse function complexity and syntax complexity. In this study, ESL students in an academic writing class were given a synchronous and an asynchronous CMC session once a week for the duration of a semester. The gains in discourse function complexity and syntactic complexity in each of these sessions were compared after the session. Sotillo (2000) noted that SCMC encouraged communicative fluency and that learners tended to participate more actively during the SCMC sessions. He also found that during these SCMC sessions, more language and greater variety of discourse function were produced than in the ACMC sessions. As for the ACMC sessions, students made longer, more syntactically complex output and they produced fewer errors in their writing. Finally, he also noted that ACMC resembled a traditional style classroom, because although students had the opportunity to work with their classmates, most of the discussions took place between teacher and student.

Research Proposal

In this section, I will propose a study that attempts to integrate the findings from this literature review and at the same time fills the gaps in the literature that have been identified. In my future study, I will compare the vocabulary learned and retained during a semester-long tandem language learning program that utilizes three types of CMC: ACMC; SCMC; and semi-synchronous CMC (SSCMC). In tandem language-learning programs, two participants who are interested in learning each other's language are paired up. In the case of this study, native speakers of English will be paired with native speakers of Chinese. Ideally, both languages will be used equally when interacting in the program, such as with the teacher stipulating that each of the target languages should be

spoken for half an hour during the one-hour conversation. In addition, participants should provide language support for their partner by giving oral corrective feedback, such as clarification requests or explicit corrections in the target language. To ensure that all participants in this study understand the parameters of a tandem language-learning program and how to provide support for their language partner, a two-hour training session for all participants will be offered before the program begins.

I will use *We Chat* in a tandem language learning project for Chinese learners. *We Chat* is a unique social networking application that is popular in mainland China. It has several features that allow a learner to communicate with others. *We Chat* users are able to post daily events in a feature called 'Moments'. In this feature, users can also respond to other users' posts in a threaded-form manner. Additionally, users can communicate with friends via a video-chat feature. Finally, the main chat feature allows learners to chat via text or speech bubbles. In this study, the video-chat function will be considered the SCMC tool, the 'Moments' feature will be considered the ACMC tools, and the main chat function will be considered an SSCMC tool.

My participants will be students currently enrolled in second- and third-year Chinese courses at Utah State University. These learners will be partnered with native-Chinese speakers residing on the same campus. In a pilot study with beginner-level students using *We Chat* in a tandem language-learning project, I noticed that there was not a balance of Chinese and English use when chatting. The participants attributed this to their lack of proficiency in Chinese. Therefore, in the proposed study I want to include only learners who are at the intermediate level or higher.

The participants in this study will be asked to carry out three tasks each week with their language partner, one task for each type of CMC. The tasks for the ACMC will require learners to post at least a paragraph in the 'Moments' regarding an opinion or belief about the topic for the week. One of the benefits of ACMC is that learners are able to receive grammatical feedback on longer, more complex sentences. In the 'Moments' feature, all participants involved in the study will have access to the posts. The participants will be encouraged to respond to the posts with their own opinion and with grammatical feedback. The task for the SCMC will require that learners discuss a series of questions, with their language partner, about the topic of the week via video Chat. To encourage interaction, I will use information gap activities as well as interview activities. Finally, the task for the SSCMC will also require learners to discuss a series of questions. However, they will be allowed to finish it throughout the week. The majority of the activities in this section will be open-ended discussion questions. This will allow the participants to either chat synchronously or asynchronously.

At the end of the semester, logs from all three forms of CMC will be collected and the audio data will be transcribed. The vocabulary used in each form of CMC will be compared in terms of their level of difficulty, which will be measured by their level of frequency as defined by the "Dictionary of the frequency of vocabulary in modern Chinese" (Wang, Chang, Li, Lin, Liu, & Sun, 1986). Also, a pre-test given to the participants and professors of each class involved in the study will help determine which words were not learned in the past or from the class. These words will be used in a delayed vocabulary test, to determine which form of CMC led to higher retention rates of new vocabulary.

Research Questions

1. How does the type of CMC affect the amount of vocabulary that learners are exposed to in a tandem language-learning project?

2. How does the type of CMC affect the difficulty of vocabulary words that learners are exposed to in a tandem language-learning project?

3. How does the type of CMC affect the retention of vocabulary learned during a tandem language-learning project?

If the study follows the trends presented in this paper, SCMC and SSCMC should expose the learners to larger amounts of vocabulary than ACMC. However, in ACMC, learners should be exposed to more difficult words than in the SCMC and SSCMC. For the third research question, it is expected that more vocabulary words learned will be retained by learners in ACMC and SSCMC. Finally, it is important to note that although I am encouraging the use of both English and Chinese in this study, I will be looking at the vocabulary gains for the learners of Chinese only.

<center>**Conclusion**</center>

While the research has shown clear language learning benefits for both ACMC and SCMC, the purpose of this paper is to highlight the specific aspects of language learning that can be enhanced by both ACMC and SCMC. First, the development of learner autonomy was viewed as a result of the learners' engagement in ACMC (Lee, 2011; Vinagre, 2005). This is probably due to the individual work that is often associated with ACMC. Even when learners collaborate on a project via ACMC, much of the work done by both partners is done individually.

Second, both ACMC and SCMC demonstrate grammatical improvements (Chun, 2011; Wong & Coniam, 2004). However these improvements should not be viewed as the same. Although self-repair, peer correction, and the ease of noticing structural and lexical errors in written form were credited with grammatical improvements in both ACMC and SCMC (Chun, 2011; Smith, 2008), the goal of the writers and the content produced in these two environments were inherently different. Learners working in an SCMC environment viewed communicating/chatting as a central goal of the interaction, and thus, their output was quicker and shorter (Lee, 2008; Sotillo, 2000). As a result, the errors that were made and pointed out tended to be lexical. Errors in syntax that did not inhibit communication were generally ignored, and if they weren't ignored, then the person being corrected viewed the correction as a distraction from the conversation (Lee, 2008). However, in the ACMC environment, learners produced longer texts describing their viewpoints and opinions on a topic (Perez, 2003; Sotillo, 2000). The learners had more time to write and edit their messages. Also, when learners received grammatical feedback on their writings, it was at the sentence and paragraph level (Hirotani, 2009; Vinagre, 2005). For this reason, gains in sentence and word complexity have been reported for ACMC (Sotillo, 2000).

Finally, increased interaction and development of conversational skills was found when learners participated in SCMC projects (Sanchez-Castro & Mrowa-Hopkins, 2012; Tan, Wigglesworth, & Storch, 2011). This could be due to the comparison often made between SCMC and informal talk. When learners were chatting in SCMC environments, they tended to use less complicated sentences (Abrams, 2003; Hirotani, 2009), but they produced more language.

LITERACY ARTIFACT

Developing Literacy Skills in the Chinese Dual-language Immersion Classroom

INTRODUCTION

This paper was written originally with Fred Poole for my coursework for dual-language immersion (DLI) with Dr. Maria Luisa Spicer-Escalante, but afterwards revised to fit my portfolio, following substantial feedback from Dr. Karin deJonge-Kannan and Dr. Maria Luisa Spicer-Escalante.

My motivation for writing a literature review on the topic of developing literacy skills in the Chinese DLI classroom first came from my interest of being a DLI teacher after graduation from the MSLT program. My experience of volunteering in one of Utah's elementary DLI program strengthened my determination of becoming a DLI teacher and devoting myself to building learner's literacy skills in my Chinese DLI classroom. In addition, my other motivation came from the articles I read about DLI education. Some educators were criticizing the lack of literacy skills among Chinese DLI learners in higher grades. In this literature review, I first present different voices on DLI programs, both complimentary and critical. Second, to understand the gap between Chinese DLI learners' present literacy skills and the literacy skills that are needed in learning the content, I read articles about classroom activities to develop literacy skills in the lower grades of Chinese DLI. This study confirmed my beliefs in the importance of building literacy skills for the DLI lower-graders, and thus preparing students for a higher standard of literacy skills in the upper grades.

Abstract

In 2008 the Utah State Legislature passed a bill allowing funding for public schools to implement dual language immersion (DLI) programs. The schools follow a 50-50 model which allocates half of the day to instruction in English and the other half to instruction in the target language. The DLI programs aim to promote academic achievement, bilingualism/biliteracy, and cultural competencies. Currently, five languages are being taught in Utah DLI programs: Spanish, French, Portuguese, German, and Chinese. As Spanish was the first and is currently the largest language in the DLI program with 73 schools, much of the curriculum and training programs are taken from research on Spanish classes. While this may be valid for French, Portuguese and German, languages which utilize an alphabetic script, this is problematic for Chinese which uses a script drastically different from that used for European languages.

These problems are not overtly obvious in the earlier grades because the primary focus is on oral language development and the content courses that are taught in the target languages concentrate on concrete concepts, such as math and physical science, which are easier to understand. However, once the content courses switch to more abstract concepts in the upper grades, learners are expected to read and write more in the target language. Instruction methods for Chinese must be sufficient to prepare learners for this task. This paper will examine research on DLI education, the current Utah DLI model, and how they relate to literacy instruction in the Chinese classroom. In my conclusion I will provide a list of suggestions for coordinators and instructors in the Chinese DLI programs.

Key words: Dual Language Immersion, Chinese, Literacy

Introduction

Although Utah's dual language immersion (DLI) education model is only eight years old, bilingual education is not a new concept worldwide. Lesslow-Hurley (1996) points out that since ancient times, bilingual education has been used as a means to develop oral and literacy skills. Even in the United States, bilingual education has roots going back to the formation of the nation. However, modern bilingual education programs emerged in Canada in the 1960's due to a call from middle-class English speaking parents who wanted their children to become bilingual and bi-literate in English and French (Baker, 2006). Bilingual education programs vary from one country or region to another because of language differences, historical antecedents, language policy, and/or public opinion. However, all bilingual education programs share a common trait, which is they are "programs, primarily for students in preschool, elementary, and secondary levels of schooling, which provide literacy and content area instruction to all students through two languages (their native language and a new language)" (Christian, 2011, p. 3). The ultimate goals of these programs is to foster academic achievement, bilingualism/biliteracy, and cultural competence, otherwise known as the ABC's of DLI (Christian, 2011; Fortune & Tedick, 2008; Spicer-Escalante, Leite, & Wade, 2015).

Bilingual Education

Misconceptions about Bilingual Education

The term bilingual education has been rather problematic throughout history in the USA because it has been used to describe everything from classes which simply have bilingual students to classes that deliver content through multiple languages (Baker, 2006). Bilingual education can be simply understood as instruction which seeks to foster

the development of two languages, cultures, and literacies (Christian, 2011; May, 2008).

Although bilingual education seems intuitively beneficial to learners, since being

proficient in two languages is better than being proficient in one language, there have

been opponents to bilingual education.

In California, Proposition 227 was passed in 1998 which required students

learning English as a second language to take special English language classes which

were taught almost exclusively in English. Crawford (2003) explains that many parents

believed that bilingual classes, which placed a stronger emphasis on the learners' L1,

were an attempt to avoid teaching minority students English. Politicians argued that only

through intensive English courses could minority students close the gap with their native

English speaking counterparts. Those who resisted bilingual education advocated

providing all American children with equal opportunities to learn English. However, they

did not understand the tenets of bilingual education which aims to develop the learners'

L1 so that they have a better foundation for learning an L2. Collier and Thomas (2004)

point out that only when minority students are allowed to develop literacy skills in their

L1 and L2 can the gap be closed. Crawford places the blame for this misunderstanding

and miscommunication on the politicians for ignoring the research, the bilingual teachers

for keeping quiet during the debate, and the ignorance of the local population.

The Four Models of Bilingual Education

Four models of bilingual education are clearly explained in Christian (2011):

developmental bilingual, *two-way immersion*, *heritage language immersion*, and *foreign

language immersion*. In Table 1, key features of each model are highlighted.

Although these four models have differences they all share the same core values of

Table 2*: DLI Models*

Developmental bilingual programs	❖ Teach minority students in their L1 for extended periods of time to promote and maintain the learners' bilingualism and biliteracy. ❖ This model is founded in the belief that learners' L2 can be developed faster if they have a strong foundation in their L1.
Foreign- language immersion (one- way immersion)	❖ Teach majority language speakers the minority language to achieve not only bilingualism and biliteracy, but also cross-cultural understanding (Christian, 2011; Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000; May 2008*).*
Two-way immersion	❖ Foreign-language programs in which ideally half of the students are native speakers of the minority language being taught. ❖ Even if only one third of the class should consist of students who speak the minority language as their mother tongue for the program to be considered a two-way immersion program.
Heritage model	❖ Aims to "reclaim the heritage language that is no longer spoken as an L1, that is the students are second language learners of the heritage language" (May, 2008, p. 23). ❖ Examples of this program can be seen with the revival of Irish, Maori, and Hawaiian.

developing cultural, linguistic, and content knowledge in two languages. Fortune and

Tedick (2008) provide a list of immersion education characteristics: immersion education

teaches at least 50% of content in the L2, promotes additive bilingualism or

multilingualism, relies on majority language in the community for support, and has a

clear separation of the use the instructional languages. These traits highlighted by Fortune

and Tedick can be seen as the common factors shared by the models presented in Table 2.

The Benefits of Dual-language Immersion

Since the emergence of modern DLI programs in Canada in the 1960s, DLI programs have provided students with many benefits (Christian, 2011; Collier & Thomas, 2004; Genesee, 2008). In the first chapter of thier book on dual language instruction, Cloud, Genesee, and Hamayan (2000) point out that students who are proficient in two languages enjoy educational, cognitive, socio-cultural, and economic advantages over their monolingual counterparts.

Indeed, much of the research has shown that learners in DLI programs tend to outperform students in traditional classes. For example, Collier and Thomas (2002) conducted a longitudinal study in the Houston Independent School District in Texas and found that students in DLI programs performed at the same level as or better than the monolingual students in the L1 when tested after being in the DLI program for five years, but the students were also proficient in a second language. Collier and Thomas provide another example of heritage language programs in Maine comparing former DLI program students' and former mainstream students' English reading scores. The results show that the bilingually schooled students benefited enormously from their schooling in two languages. They reached a much higher percentile in English reading after four years' of education in DLI programs. This may be a result of the transfer of skills from the L2 to the L1 (Berens, Kovelman, & Petitto, 2013; Cummins, 1979).

As Collier and Thomas claim, "the astounding effectiveness of DLI programs extends beyond the students outcomes, influencing the school experience of all participants" (p. 11). DLI programs have benefited teachers, parents, and administrators as well. All of these stakeholders sense the change in the school system and they are

aware of this special reform in education: teachers gain more support from both the students and the parents; administrators are fully committed to making DLI work for the whole society; and parents tend to participate more actively in school affairs because they feel welcomed, valued, and respected. Finally, Genesee (2008) illustrates how high expectations of students in DLI programs have been shown to benefit not only mainstream learners, but also low academic, low socio-economic, and ethnic minority learners.

Challenges with Dual-language Immersion

In many of the empirical studies on DLI programs, researchers have alluded to areas that need to be further studied. For example, Genesee (2008) mentions several critical issues to be considered for DLI programs, such as age of introduction, length of exposure to the target language, and methodology regarding the integration of content and language instruction. Many people believe that the earlier the student begins DLI, the better s/he will perform in the second language; however, some studies have shown that older learners can also make rapid progress in L2 learning due to their developed L1. This may imply that there is not a need to start so early.

Another issue regards the time allotted to instruction in the target language and the L1. Currently, there are 50/50 programs, which divide instruction in the two languages in half, and other programs with as much as 90% of instruction in the L2. In addition, there are some programs that begin with 90% of instruction in the L2 and then slowly move to a 50/50 model. More research is needed to determine which ratios lead to better gains in both the learners' L1 and L2.

Another example of a potential problem in DLI programs is the changing socio-political atmosphere of many cities. Swain and Lapkin (2005) found that the immersion population has changed dramatically in Canada, which has subsequently to semantic and pedagogical issues in the DLI programs. Among those issues, the most notable could be the shift from the overt support of one L1 to multiple L1s in the community. This will be a big challenge for future DLI programs to handle with the growing diversity of students enrolling in current programs. While the idea of dual language instruction is not new, research on best practices is still in its infancy.

Finally, although various DLI models have been established and researchers have begun to examine performance outcomes, there is still the challenge of investigating teacher practices and their long-term effects on student learning. In the following section, I will examine how the Utah model addresses or fails to address the aforementioned challenges. I chose to examine the Utah model because of its current position as the leading model for the nation (Leite, 2013).

The Utah Model

The first Utah DLI program began in 1979. Almost 30 years later, the first 50/50 model opened in 2006 in Spanish. Two years later, the Utah legislature passed Senate Bill 41, which funded DLI programs in Spanish, French, Portuguese, German, and Chinese. One of the unique aspects of the Utah model is the statewide funding and support that the program has received. While previous immersion programs in the state's history have come and gone, the recent push for and support of bilingual education by legislators, school administrators, and parents seem to suggest that bilingual education is here to stay

in Utah (Leite, 2013). Support coming from both the top (legislators) and the bottom (administrators and parents) is what makes Utah's DLI model unique.

The Utah DLI programs follow the 50-50 model, which is based on a previous experiment in four schools which experienced great success (Spicer-Escalante, Leite, & Wade, 2015). In the 50-50 model, instruction in content and language arts is divided evenly between the learners' native language (English) and the target language. Two teachers are assigned for one DLI class, in which one teaches in the learners' native language, and the other teaches in the target language. In order to follow the Utah core curriculum, students in the DLI programs in first through third grade learn math and basic science concepts in the target language. Then they move to more abstract science concepts in fourth and fifth grade, and then social studies in sixth grade, all in the target language. Due to the change of the academic content in the later elementary grades to more abstract, and thus more difficult concepts, the demand for higher literacy skills increases significantly during the later primary school years. This difficulty is compounded as students continue their bilingual education into the secondary grades. The focus of this paper will be on the importance of developing Chinese literacy skills in early primary school DLI classrooms.

Developing Literacy in DLI

Literacy has been defined in many studies as one's ability to read and write, and the ability to interpret any printed text including the visual aids in the text (Allen & Paesani, 2010; Kern, 2001). In the DLI classroom, the development of literacy is considered one of the most pivotal aspects of the program (Fisher & Stoner, 2004) since

students will rely on their literacy skills in the L2 to learn academic content, such as math, science, and social studies (Spicer-Escalante, Leite, & Wade, 2015).

It has been shown in several studies that the DLI approach is the most efficient way to build foreign language literacy skills (Berens, Kovelman, & Petitto, 2013; Collier & Thomas, 2004; Fortune & Tedick, 2008; Genesse, 2008). However, in order to support the learning of academic content in later elementary and secondary grades in the target language, strong literacy skills need to be effectively acquired in the lower elementary grades of the DLI programs (Fisher & Stoner, 2004). Integrating literacy in the early elementary DLI classroom is a complicated task (Koda, 2007). When second language readers first begin to read, they usually have limited oral proficiency to support their understanding of the text. The success of L2 reading depends on learners' sensitivities to the similarities between their L1 and L2, and their current oral proficiency in the L2 (Fortune & Tedick, 2008; Koda, 2007). This must be taken into account when DLI instructors focus on literacy skills in the early elementary DLI classrooms.

Literacy instruction for L2 learners should take into account the learners' L1 and what skills may transfer to the L2. However, considering that some languages systems are very different, such as English-Japanese and English-Chinese, the transfer between these languages may not be as beneficial or readily available to the learner as that of English-Spanish, or English-French (Koda, 2007).

Another important determinant in developing the learners' literacy in the L2 is the learners' current vocabulary level (Fisher & Stoner, 2004; Fortune & Tedick, 2008; Koda, 2007). According to several studies, learners must know at least 97% or more of the L2 vocabulary to read a text without support (Fortune & Tedick, 2008; Koda, 2007).

To support DLI literacy skills in the L2, instructors should place a heavier emphasis on vocabulary development.

In addition to vocabulary development, several studies have also noted the need for developing the learners phonetic awareness skills in the L2 to facilitate reading comprehension (Castro, Páez, Dickinson, & Frede, 2011; Culatta, Reese, & Setzer, 2006; Koda, 2007). However, Castro, et al. point out that the learners' L1 may also affect the level of difficulty experienced when learning the phonetic properties of the L2. In other words, the further the distance between the languages and their writing systems, the more difficulty the learners will experience (Elder & Davies, 1998; Odlin, 1989).

Given the potential difficulty that may hinder DLI learners from developing literacy skills in the target language in the lower grades, some researchers have provided a set of strategies that instructors can use to help develop these skills. First, Fisher and Stoner (2004) remind instructors to use age-appropriate materials in the DLI classroom for reading. Furthermore, they expand on the importance of visuals, such as pictures and/or cartoon comics, to facilitate comprehension and trigger learners' motivation in further learning the content. They also suggest pairing the students in groups to read together.

Second, giving pre-reading practice before the reading is also recommended (Fisher & Stoner, 2004; Fortune & Tedick, 2008). High-frequency vocabulary in the text should be taught and practiced before students are exposed to them in the text. In addition, some background information about the text should be provided to help learners overcome culturally dense aspects of the text. Also recommended is the language experience approach (Beeman & Urow, 2013), in which the teacher reads aloud a story

book to the students and then asks them to take notes and make summaries of the story. In this way, the teacher can use the summaries to assess to what extent the students interpreted the text appropriately.

Furthermore, Beeman and Urow (2013) recommend the use of more engaging strategies for comprehensive reading in the class, such as sentence prompts and "talk to your partner". Sentence prompts include guiding questions such as predicting the story, analyzing the character's personality, describing the background environment, or giving the text another ending. The purpose of the sentence prompt is to help students better understand the text from a variety of perspectives and to create more opportunities for the students to think and say more about the text. In addition, talking with a partner greatly increases the interaction between learners, and thus allows for peer scaffolding while reading.

Although researchers have shown several methods for teaching literacy in DLI programs, many of their strategies assume that learners are reading texts with alphabetic scripts such as Spanish and French. Researchers suggest read-along techniques in which the learner can hear the sound of a word, and then deduce the sounds that the letters represent, or note taking strategies in which learners have already mastered an alphabet. However, in languages that are phonetically opaque such as Chinese, these techniques are not as effective. In the next section, I will look at the unique aspects of the Chinese language that make learning the logographic script challenging.

Developing Chinese Literacy Skills

It has been argued that since L1 readers rely on their oral abilities when learning to read, L2 readers should also first develop their oral skills before learning to read (Dew,

1994, Koda, 2007). Shu and Anderson (1999) state that "learning to read requires becoming aware of the basic units of spoken language, the basic units of the writing system, and the mapping of the two" (p. 1). By teaching basic math skills, which do not rely much on the written language, in the target language in grades one through three, the Utah DLI model seems to follow the concept that oral skills should be taught first to facilitate the development of literacy skills.

However, even once a learner has developed oral proficiency in Chinese, mapping their oral knowledge onto the logographic script of Chinese can be difficult, especially for learners with no previous experience with logographic scripts (Everson, 1998). In fact, due to the difficulty of learning the Chinese script the Foreign Service Institute ranks Chinese as one of the most difficult languages to learn for native speakers of English, requiring almost four times as much classroom instruction to achieve the same proficiency as learners studying a language that is closer to English, such as Spanish or French (Language Learning Difficulty for English Speakers, n. d.).

The first hurdle in learning to read Chinese for second language learners is recognizing and retaining characters efficiently. The Chinese script is particularly difficult because there is not a clear connection between the visual form of characters and the pronunciation. It has been estimated that around 90% of the most common characters can be categorized as compound characters which means they contain a phonetic radical and a semantic radical (Wang, et. al, 1986). These radicals are often utilized by native speakers and proficient second language readers to guess the semantic and phonetic properties of the characters (Feldman & Siok, 1999; Hayes, 1988). However, instructors cannot simply teach the sound and meaning of these radicals, as they are not always

reliable. In fact, only 26% of the phonetic radicals provide the reader with the exact

phonetic representation of the character (Fan, Gao, & Ao, 1984). Therefore, readers must

learn to use these radicals as simply cues or hints for the semantic and phonetic properties

of the character. Several studies have shown that radical knowledge is positively

correlated with character recognition (Chen, et. al., 2013; Shen, 2000; Shen & Ke, 2007).

Not only do learners have to recognize and retain large numbers of characters but

they also must learn to segment characters to form

words at a rapid speed (Shen & Jiang, 2013).

Generally two Chinese characters combine to form

a word, however there are one, three, and four

character words as well. One of the unique
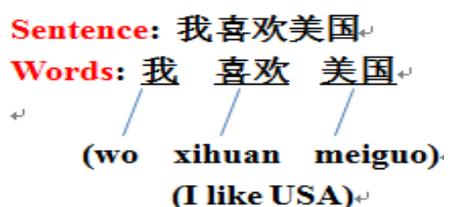
Figure 1: Character Segmentation

aspects of the Chinese script is that unlike languages with alphabetic scripts, Chinese

does not have a space between words (see Figure 1). Therefore, learners must be able to

correctly parse the characters to form words. In addition, they must do this quickly.

Everson (1994) points out that many second language readers of Chinese often spend so

much time decoding and segmenting characters that they struggle with global

comprehension of the text. In agreement with Everson's claim, Shen and Jiang state that

once learners are able to read fluently, they are able to spend less of their cognitive

resources on decoding, and thus lend more attention to the actual text. This is particularly

important for elementary readers in the DLI programs once they enter the fourth, fifth,

and sixth grades, as much of their content learning will come through the Chinese text.

In this section, I have highlighted some of the difficulties that second language

learners face when reading Chinese. In addition I have pointed out the skills that

proficient readers of Chinese possess. If the Chinese DLI program is to be successful in

Utah, learners must be able to comprehend and learn from content-based texts as they

near the secondary grades. In the following section I will provide recommendations to

teachers and administrators to prepare their learners for the rigors of reading to learn,
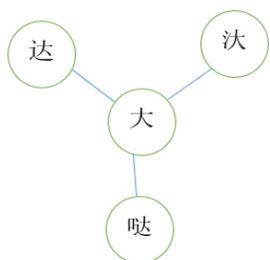
rather than learning to read, in the DLI classes.

Recommendations for Chinese DLI Teachers and Administrators

Character Recognition Skills

As the previous research shows, radical knowledge is important for developing

character recognition skills. In an analysis and review of

Chinese character teaching strategies, Lam (2011)

recommends having learners draw character component

trees to breakdown complex characters into their radicals.

In a similar manner, teachers could make use of graphic

Figure 2: Radical in Graphic Organizers

organizers (see Figure 2) to help learners visualize how

multiple characters share the same phonetic radical. Learners cannot simply be shown

radicals and told the function they serve, they must see the radicals used in a variety of

characters and be allowed to deduce the function. For example, although the radical 丁

carries the phonetic property /ding/, it is pronounced differently in the following

characters: 打 /da/, 厅 /ting/, 订 /ding/. To help develop this skill, as pre-reading activity

learners could be asked to locate and circle a certain radical. After the radicals have been

located the instructor could ask the students to color code the characters with similar

sounds while the teacher reads the text aloud. The students could then work in pairs to

compare and contrast the function of the radicals in each of the characters. Instructors

could also color code phonetic and semantic radicals when presenting new vocabulary to help learners visualize the location and function of each type of radical. Finally, instructors can give students a 'Chinese radical book' in which they record the semantic radicals that they learn in class by drawing a picture that resembles the meaning, and then write several characters that contain the semantic radical.

Segmentation Skills

As was mentioned previously, segmenting or parsing Chinese characters to form words can be difficult as there is not a space between words, therefore the learner must memorize which characters combine to form a word. Making this task even more difficult is that at times a series of characters can be segmented in several different ways depending on the context of the text. For example, 很难吃, could be segmented as 很 and 难吃, which would mean 'disgusting,' or it could be segmented as 很 and 难 and 吃, which would mean 'very difficult to eat.' Thus learners must have the opportunity to see vocabulary words in context rather than in a list. To help learners develop segmenting skills, students can be given tasks in which they circle key vocabulary in a text.

Another useful exercise is reorganizing scrambled sentences. The teacher can adjust the difficulty of this activity by either providing the learners with words to reorganize, or characters. Finally, activities in which the learners are asked to make verb-object associations can also benefit their segmentation skills as the learners will become more familiar with the multiple functions of some words. For example, the word 工作, which means work can function as a verb or a noun. One can say, 'I have 工作,' meaning

I have a job, or 'I 工作 today,' meaning "I work today.' Understanding which words function as verbs and nouns can help learners segment characters properly.

Reading Fluency

To develop reading fluency, Shen and Jiang (2013) recommend that learners engage in reading aloud and repeated reading activities. They argue that reading aloud will help learners increase their character phonological awareness as well as character naming accuracy. In addition, they claim that repeated reading, in which learners read a text two or three time, each time increasing their speed, can also help learners develop character recognition speed. Shen and Jiang support repeated reading because it provides the reader multiple exposures to high-frequency characters. In my view, however, elementary learners are not able to engage in the monotonous task of re-reading a text multiple times and thus graded readers would be a better solution. Graded readers, which are defined as "…books which are specially written or adapted for second language learners" (Nation & Ming-Tzu, 1999, p. 356), can be used to help learners build vocabulary, gain radical knowledge, develop segmentation skills, and increase reading speeds. Nation and Ming-Tzu explain that because graded readers are designed for second language learners, vocabulary, grammar, and length of texts are tightly controlled. In these texts, learners are exposed to high-frequency vocabulary multiple times, but in different contexts, thus developing reading fluency in a less monotonous manner.

Time Allotted to Literacy

Finally, I believe that due to the importance of developing literacy skills in the DLI classroom, more time should be allotted for this skill in Chinese in the early elementary grades. In the Utah DLI model, all languages follow a similar instructional

ratio for content instruction in the target language and English. While allocating 15% of instructional time for language arts in Spanish, French, German, and Portuguese may be enough to develop literacy skills in these languages, the complex written script of Chinese demands more attention than currently given. One strategy to increase literacy instruction is to integrate it in content teaching, such as teaching math through story telling.

Conclusion

In this paper I first provided a brief history of bilingual education and the development of the Utah DLI model. One of the major goals of the current Utah DLI model is to cultivate learners who are not only bilingual but also bi-literate. This goal is especially important, as the learners in the DLI programs will eventually learn content, which will be the foundation of their future learning, in the target language. If the learners are not bi-literate once they reach the late elementary and secondary grades, their development of academic knowledge will be hindered. I then demonstrated that current research and practices regarding literacy instruction in bilingual programs tend to focus on languages with alphabetic scripts. This research, however valid, is not applicable to logographic writing systems such as the one used for Chinese. Finally, I provide suggestions for literacy instruction in Chinese, and conclude that instructors of Chinese DLI programs in the early elementary grades need more time dedicated to literacy instruction. For a language such as Chinese that requires almost four times as many learning hours than languages as Spanish or French that close to English, instructors should integrate literacy development activities in content teaching.

CULTURE ARTIFACT

Chinese Request Strategies

INTRODUCTION

This paper was first written for pragmatics course with Dr. Karin deJonge-Kannan. In this artifact, I review the literature surrounding request strategies in Chinese. As a native speaker of Chinese living in the USA, I hear people's comments all the time that Chinese are indirect with their language to show politeness. But when I observe the way my Chinese friends and I talk, I realize I have to question the generalized comments about Chinese culture, especially for Chinese request strategies. With the curiosity about researchers' perspectives on request strategies and politeness conventions in Chinese culture, I began to read articles comparing request strategies between Chinese and other languages. While some of the literature argues that Chinese request strategies share more similarities with other languages preferring to use indirect request strategies, other educators demonstrate that on certain occasions, Chinese request strategies can be very direct.

Findings from the literature illustrate the complexity of Chinese request strategies and remind me that as a Chinese teacher, I should be careful with my instruction on cultural aspects in the classroom. When teaching request strategies for learners of Chinese as a foreign language, I should inform them all the possibilities explicitly, provide them ample opportunities to experience the real-world situations with the emphasis on Chinese culture, and thus build their culture competence on the target culture.

Abstract

This paper reviews several studies based on Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory to examine features of Chinese request strategies. The synthesis of studies showed that Chinese request strategies are predominantly controlled by social distance, social power, and imposition, indicating Chinese belongs to the universal pragmatics principle that request strategies are highly affected by social variables (Alsulami, 2015; Chen, He, & Hu, 2013; Han, 2012; Hong, 1996; Lee, 2011). In addition, a majority of studies support the claim that Chinese shares the same inclination of using conventionally indirect request strategies as other languages (Chen, He, & Hu, 2013; Han, 2013; Lee, 2011). However, some studies revealed that Chinese does not follow the principle of choosing conventionally indirect strategies, because Chinese people prefer imperative strategies (Gu, 1990; Hong, 1999; Mao, 1994; Wang, 2011).

Key words: Chinese, request strategies, cross-language, social variables

Introduction

Pragmatics plays a vital role in foreign language learning if the goal is to communicate. However, while grammar or vocabulary might be easier acquired through general instruction, pragmatics, the language for users to show appropriateness when communicating with others (LoCastro, 2012), can be acquired only through well-designed lesson plans. In this paper, a particular aspect of pragmatics, request, one of the dominant life events of people, will be further analyzed through a review of studies on cross-language and cross-social variables. The main focus will be on exploring the features of Chinese request strategies, and then a lesson plan is provided at the end of the literature review to demonstrate the efficiency of teaching Chinese request strategies.

Among the studies being reviewed, most of them support the claim that Chinese prefers

similar request strategies as other languages (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Chen &

Chen, 2007; Chen, He, & Hu, 2013; Han, 2013). However, others argued that Chinese

request strategies do not always follow the "universal" pragmatics politeness principle,

because Chinese prefers directness in some situations (Gu, 1990; Hong, 1999; Mao,

1994; Wang, 2011). In addition, all studies demonstrate that social variables, such as

social distance, social power, and imposition, are essential factors for making request

strategies (Alsulami, 2015; Chen, He, & Hu, 2013; Han, 2012; Hong, 1996; Lee, 2011).

Request in General

Several definitions for requests have been suggested, however, this paper will use

Blum-Kulka, Danet, and Gherson's (1985) who define a request as a preevent act that

expresses a speaker's expectation about some prospective action, verbal, or nonverbal, on

the part of the hearer, and thus requests are examples of interpersonal communication.

According to Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory, requests are considered

face threatening because they will affect addressee's freedom of action (Brown &

Levinson, 1987; Han, 2012). Due to requests' imposing nature, which means requests

impose upon the addressee to a certain extent (Wang, 2011), speakers apply various

strategies to minimize the degree of impoliteness in requests.

In one dimension, such strategies include head act and modifiers (Tatsuki &

Houck, 2010). Head act is the minimal unit and the core of realizing a request. Modifiers

include both internal and external modification. While syntactic and lexical modifiers are

considered as the internal modification, such as *please*, to minimize the illocutionally

force of a request act (Tatsuki & Houck, 2010), external modification, which is also

called supportive moves, such as a sentence clause that provide reasons for making a request, is used to mitigate a request act before or after the request (Blum-Kulka, 1985; Han, 2012). In the other dimension, strategies include direct requests, such as imperative request, in which the utterance is a direct order, indirect requests, the conventionally indirect request strategy to soften the imposition of request, and nonconventionally indirect requests, such as strong hints and mild hints (Tatsuki & Houck, 2010). These strategies will be examined in greater detail later in the paper.

Request in Chinese

In western society, people typically value individualism, and thus often avoid imposing on others to save the hearer's negative face when making requests (Han, 2012). However, in Chinese society, collectivism is more valued, and thus Chines people are less concerned with threatening someone's negative face and more value is placed on the effort to minimize the cost and maximize the benefit to others when making requests (Gu, 1990; Han, 2012; Leech, 1983). Studies show that Chinese L1 speakers use more direct request strategies than people from western cultures (Gu, 1990, Hong, 1999; Han, 2012) because they find it proper and efficient in some situations. However, although Chinese people prefer direct strategies, they add supportive moves to achieve politeness at the same time (Han, 2012). Furthermore, Chinese request strategies are heavily affected by social variables, which is the same in other cultures (Alsulami, 2015; Hong, 1996).

Theoretical Framework

"Face-saving" Theory of Politeness

Requests occur routinely in people's everyday-life through interaction (Han, 2013). However, because of its imposition, speakers need to use polite language to

accomplish requests and also maintain good relationships with their interlocutors (Gu, 1990; Han, 2013; Lee, 2011). Making requests, hence, is intertwined with politeness (Hong, 1996). Many studies in this literature review examine request strategies based on Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of politeness. Thus background information is needed before a deep exploration of these studies.

Brown and Levinson's theory is also called the "face-saving" theory of politeness. Although this theory caused some controversy, because some researches argued that every culture has its own features of request strategies (Gu, 1990; Hong, 1996; Mao, 1994), it is still considered as the fundamental politeness theory in linguistic field (Alsulami, 2015; Chen, He, & Hu, 2013; Han, 2013; Ji, 2000). Brown and Levinson (1987) analyzed the nature and functions of politeness and the politeness strategies used in languages of English, Tzeltal, and Tamil.

Brown and Levinson (1987) introduce the notion of face as "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself" (p. 66). They argue that people are interested in maintaining two types of face: *positive face*, the image that people want to be perceived as in interactions with others, and *negative face*, the desire to be free from imposition. Brown and Levinson claimed both faces commonly exist in all cultures. In addition, they proposed that f*ace-threatening acts* (FTAs) can damage the face of the speaker and addressee if their desires are opposed. FTAs deal with two parameters: (a) the type of face being threatened, positive or negative face, and (b) the face being threatened, the speaker's or the addressee's face. Furthermore, Brown and Levinson stressed that this theory is determined by social variables, such as social distance between

interlocutors, social power that one has over the other, and ranking of imposition in a particular culture.

<div align="center">**Literature Review**</div>

Comparing Chinese with Other Languages

Some studies indicate that Chinese is different from other languages because of its preference for direct (imperative) request strategies (Gu, 1990; Hong, 1999; Mao, 1994), whereas others argue that Chinese, similar to other languages, prefers conventional indirect request strategies (Chen, He, & Hu, 2013; Han, 2013; Ji, 2000). In this section, five studies will be reviewed to analyze request strategies between Chinese and other languages. In the studies, most of the comparison groups were native English speakers except one also had native Japanese speakers. In addition, most of the Chinese participants were college students who were born after the releasing of Chinese reform and opening-up policy at 1978, and thus they grew up influenced by both Chinese traditional values and western values. These issues will be further addressed later.

Among the studies that support Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory, Chen, He, and Hu (2013) conclude that Chinese requests may not be as direct as described by other studies, such as Gu (1990), Hong (1999), and Mao (1994). In addition, Chinese request strategies are highly determined by social power and distance. Sixty-one Xi'an International Studies University (XISU) juniors were asked to provide a list of expressions for borrowing a pen and a list of people they may meet in their daily lives for the questionnaire. 207 students then completed the questionnaire with the chosen 21 expressions and 20 categories of people, in which they were first prompted to select the most appropriate expression from a list for a request, and then compared their social

distance to 20 categories of people and provide a type of a request for each person.

Finally, participants were allowed to use their own expressions for requests.

The authors came to three conclusions. First, Chinese, Japanese, and American share more similarities than differences at the macro level, in which they all tended to prefer conventionally indirect strategies. Second, Brown and Levinson's (1987) power and distance are important factors for speakers when choosing request expressions. Third, more indirect than direct expressions were used by Chinese participants to mitigate the threatening of negative face, and it indicated that Chinese requests might not be as direct as it had been claimed from previous studies (Hong, 1999; Mao, 1994). However, the authors also point out the differences of request strategies between Chinese and American, because they found Chinese speakers seldom used "careful" request expressions compared to American English speakers. In addition, the study was carried out in an international studies university, which indicates that the participants may already be affected by the request strategies in western cultures. If so, it was not surprising to find the similar request strategies between Chinese and other cultures in this study. Future studies are needed to examine trends at a traditional Chinese university.

With the emphasis of exploring request strategies between Taiwanese EFL and native speakers of English, and examining the relationship of request strategies and social variables, Chen and Chen (2007) chose 50 Taiwanese EFL freshmen and 14 American native speakers to complete a discourse-completion test (DCT) with socially differentiated situation dialogues. The results showed 71% of Taiwanese EFL learners and 69% of American native speakers preferred conventionally indirect strategies (Chen & Chen, 2007). However, 28% of Taiwanese EFL learners and 24% of American native

speakers also applied direct strategies. Furthermore, among the direct strategies, mood

derivable (the utterance is an order), was used mostly by Taiwanese EFL learners,

whereas want statements (statements of speaker's needs) were chosen by American

native speakers. The results indicate that Taiwanese EFL learners are more direct than

American native speakers in using direct request strategies. If readers pay closely

attention to the design of this study, they may find that Taiwanese EFL learners'

preference of conventionally indirect may have been affected by using English instead of

Chinese in the DCT. Further study is needed with Chinese language to compare with the

above conclusion.

In a similar study to compare request modifications between Mandarin Chinese

and British English, Han (2012) found both similarities and differences between native

speakers of Chinese and English regarding request modifications. Sixteen native speakers

of English between the ages of 18-33 and 20 native speakers of Chinese between the ages

of 18-25 participated in an open role-play study with the tasks of choosing internal and

external modifications. In addition, the study examined the effects of social variables.

Results showed that more than 90% of British English speakers used internal

modifications (downtoners), the propositional modifiers used by speakers to modulate

their impacts to addressees (Han, 2012). In addition, downtoners were especially

preferred when interlocutors were not familiar with each other, and it indicated that

British English speakers tried to avoid the threatening of the hearers' negative face.

However, although only 40% of Chinese used internal modifications, external

modifications, such as particles and tag questions were used by both groups to minimize

the impact of imposition in the requests. Furthermore, although the preference of

modifications was different, they were affected by social variables. Chinese speakers'

preference of external modifications can be explained by the Chinese politeness system,

in which more external modifications are preferred to reduce the high imposition,

because Chinese people value minimizing the cost of the hearers. However, for British

English speakers, more emphasis should be put to avoid the threatening of the

addressees' negative face.

      Furthermore, Han (2013), in a similar study, found cross-language agreement

about the preference of conventionally indirect request strategies between Chinese and

other languages. Sixteen native British English speakers and 20 native Mandarin Chinese

speakers between the ages of 18 and 35 responded to nine request situations, in which

distance, power, and imposition were set differently. The data showed that although

Chinese demonstrated a higher level of using direct strategies in some situations, both

language groups preferred conventional indirectness, because its usage dominated more

than half of the situations. In addition, the data revealed that direct strategies and

conventionally indirect strategies complement each other in Chinese, whereas

conventionally indirectness is predominant in British English. The author explained it as

the difference between the two societies. In Chinese society, the main emphasis is on

collectivism, so the negative face is less emphasized (Han, 2013).

      However, while studies have overwhelmingly supported the argument that

Chinese speakers, similar to other language speakers, prefer conventional indirectness

(Brown & Levinson, 1987; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1884; Chen, He, & Hu, 2013; Han,

2013; Lee, 2011), Hong (1999) detected differences through his analysis of the features

of Chinese requests strategies.

Hong's (1999) approach of examining Chinese speakers' requests strategies was based on the *Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project* (CCSARP), a project to investigate the "universal" pragmatics principles in speech acts, and the characteristics of these potential "universal" principles (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989; Hong, 1999; Tatsuki & Houck, 2010). Hong (1999) analyzed Chinese request strategy features with nine request strategy types classified by CCSARP: mood derivable (utterance as an order), performatives (verbs that convey order), hedged performatives (words that show uncertainty), obligation statements (obligation imposed by the speaker), want statements (statements of speaker's needs), suggestory formulae (words that turn request into a suggestion that interests both the speaker and hearer), query preparatory (using interrogative form as a request), strong hints (mention the issue), and mild hints (do not mention the issue explicitly) (Hong, 1999).

Results showed that while English speakers viewed mood derivable strategy as the least desirable way of making requests, Chinese speakers considered it a proper and efficient strategy (Gu, 1990; Han, 2012; Hong, 1999; Mao, 1994). However, Hong stressed the important roles of distance and power in making requests. Often a direct request could be perceived as more polite if interlocutors were socially close to each other (Hong, 1999). Another interesting finding was that the hedged performatives were used by English speakers to soften their requests, but Chinese people used them to show uncertainty (Hong, 1999).

In conclusion, Hong claims that Chinese speakers overwhelmingly prefer direct strategies, and therefore, Chinese does not belong to the "universal" principles (Gu, 1990; Hong, 1999; Mao, 1994). This study provides a deep examination of request strategies in

Chinese culture. In addition, most of the situations were close to people's daily lives. However, to earn more support from the field, more research is needed to test if direct request strategy is the norm in Chinese culture. In addition, this study should be carefully introduced in Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) classroom, so that learners will be informed and notice the difference between Chinese and their own cultures when making request.

Some cross-language studies in this section have demonstrated that although direct request strategies were used in some situations, Chinese, similar to other languages, prefers indirect request strategies (Chen, He, & Hu, 2013; Han, 2012, 2013; Lee, 2011). However, the choosing of request strategies relies on various factors, such as age, language used in the studies, and participants' background. Four of five studies above adopted the similar methodologies in examining the Chinese request strategies through a comparison with English, in which all the participants were either college students or young generations who grew up affected by western perspectives. Thus the limitations lie in the participants including only young generations and the dominated English speaker comparison groups. When teaching CFL learners such strategies, attention should be paid to the specific contexts.

Social Variables

As many studies have revealed the importance of social variables in determining request strategies, the next section will mainly focus on reviewing studies that addressed the relationship between social variables and request strategies.

Some researchers have argued that social variables have been emphasized back to Chinese Zhou Dynasty (Gu, 1990). The famous philosopher Confucius (551 B.C.-479

B.C.) claimed that *li*, which originally means the social hierarchy and order for the Chinese slavery system, was needed in Chinese society. Although thousands of years have passed, this ideology remains in Chinese people's speech acts. In the modern Chinese society, people use politeness to build harmony, reduce conflict, and avoid embarrassment (Gu, 1990; Hong, 1996). When making requests to people with different socioeconomic status, Chinese people will adjust their speech acts accordingly (Gu, 1990; Hong, 1996; Ji, 2000). In this part, the author will review four empirical studies to examine if Chinese follow the universal pragmatics principle. Results from all studies supported that Chinese request strategies are heavily affected by social variables.

In response to Brown and Levinson (1987), Lee (2011) found that Chinese learners of English and English native speakers were affected by social status when making requests.

The study attempted to discern the differences in effect of social power and ranking of imposition on Chinese EFL learners and native English speakers in making request (Lee, 2011). Thirty-seven Chinese learners with intermediate to high intermediate English proficiency and fifteen native speakers of English were asked to take a two-part twenty imagined scenarios' questionnaire. Questions in part one were used to determine factors that would affect participants' sense of social variables. The factors that contribute to a person's social status in this study include money, ability, knowledge, education, friends, social behaviors, race, gender, etc. Questions from part two were used to explore request strategies.

Results from questions in part one showed Chinese and native English speakers both ranked money, knowledge, friends and acquaintances, and social behaviors as

factors that would affect their sense of social power. However, while native English speakers also viewed race and gender as social variables, Chinese learners of English did not. The author concluded that people from both Chinese and English culture basically share a similar sense of social variables. Results from questions in part two showed that native English speakers prefer higher polite request strategies than Chinese learners of English (Lee, 2011). This study needs to be considered by teachers in the CFL classroom, because it is important to inform language learners with people's values in different culture, and thus to adjust their speech acts in communication.

In addition, Chen and Chen (2007), whose study has already been reviewed in the cross-language section, also indicate that both Taiwanese EFL and native speakers of American English were affected by social variables when making requests. They preferred direct strategies when speaking to those of an inferior status, such as a professor to a student. However, to equal or higher status, they preferred indirect strategies. The results demonstrate the salient effects of social parameters in choosing request strategies.

With the intention to analyze Chinese request patterns in terms of Brown and Levinson's (1987) proposal that social variables are important factors to choose request strategies, Hong (1996) investigated the effects of cultural and social values on Chinese request strategies. Three situations were designed: requests for a doctor's prescription, in which the patient had a lower status; borrowing money, with equal status between two office-mates; and removal of a vehicle from a no-parking area, in which the police had a higher status over the civilian.

Data showed address form, such as 91% of *yisheng* 'doctor', 50% of *xiaoWang* 'little Wang', and 59% of *tongzhi* 'comrade' in each situation, was mostly used. Although they seemed like the same in using address form in the three situations, *xiaoWang* was much less formal than a title *yisheng*, and *tongzhi* was an appropriate choice to show the speaker's (police) authority. The use of different address forms indicated the existing social distance and power between the interlocutors. Following the address form, 61%, 41%, and 52% of pregrounders, utterances used before the head request to provide reasoning, were used respectively. This preference showed people's choices of placing the compliment at the beginning of a request to impress or please the addressee, and thus to make the requests successfully. The author explained the overt use of pregrounders as the result of Chinese syntax-"because-therefore" order in making requests. However, in the third situation, when the speaker had higher power than the hearer, only four external modifications were used, which was much less than the first and second situations (both had eight types). In conclusion, social power and distance were important factors in choosing request strategies. When speakers were in lower status and had higher distance to the addressee, they used more polite language.

Wang (2011) examined Chinese request strategies through an analysis of a corpus of video clips of contemporary Chinese teledramas. Wang chose 3970 short sequences of video clips from 35 Chinese teledramas. In the term of politeness theory, she took power, social distance, and ranking of imposition, as the variables in nine situations. Overall, more direct strategies were collected in the teledramas. In addition, the most widely used direct request strategy was mood derivable, which was the least preferred strategy for English (Hong, 1999). Chinese request strategies from the teledramas, hence, did not

support Brown and Levinson's (1987) indirect strategies. However, findings also showed that requests strategies were affected by social variables, in which social distance played a heavier role than power, because of Chinese people's overemphasis of human relationships and formality.

Studies reviewed in this section generally support Brown and Levinson's (1987) argument that social variables are significant factors in determining request strategies in most cultures (Chen & Chen, 2007; Hong, 1996; Lee, 2011; Wang, 2011). Although people in different cultures may view politeness in different ways, they perceive social variables between interlocutors in a similar way; especially when the hearer has a higher power position than the speaker, the language will be adjusted to show politeness.

Practical Implications: Lesson Plan

Studies reviewed above demonstrate of the complexity of making requests in Chinese culture. Learners need to identify a variety of contexts before responding with an appropriate request strategies. The contexts in Chinese culture vary depending on age, gender, and other social variables. The following lesson plan attempts to address the difficulties of learners encountering request situations in Chinese.

Communicative goals

In this lesson plan, intermediate-mid learners of Chinese will be able to explain the differences between request strategies in Chinese and English. In addition, students can use appropriate Chinese request strategies according to the social power (lower, equal, or higher) between the interlocutors.

Material

In this activity students will watch four YouTube videos and work with two handouts.

Activity 1: **Introducing the concept of request** (10 minutes)

Students will be informed with the types of request strategies before watching three short YouTube videos of making request in Chinese and one of that in English (3 minutes). After watching the videos, students work in four groups to list the request strategies that they have heard both in Chinese and English (4 minutes). I'll ask two groups to share their lists (2 minutes). By the end of the activity, I will show them the commonly used Chinese request strategies (1 minute). The objective of this activity is to inform them Chinese people's preference of request strategies, and thus to increase their awareness of cultural difference between Chinese and their own culture.

Activity 2: **The effect of social power on making request** (10 minutes)

Students will read three conversations on a handout (see Handout 1). Each conversation contains situations in which the speaker has lower, equal, or higher social power compared to the hearer (5 minutes). While reading, students will find out the social power between the interlocutors. I will then synthesize request strategies for lower, equal, and higher social power on the white board, and I will invite students add their ideas to the category on their handouts (5 minutes).

Activity 3: **Listening activity** (8 minutes)

Students work individually to circle the right answers from the handout (see Handout 2) while listening to the teacher's questions (4 minutes). Then, students will work in pairs to practice the matched dialogues and expand (create) the dialogues by

themselves according to the interlocutors' social power (4 minutes). In this activity, students need to negotiate meaning with their partners to create appropriate conversations.

Activity 4: **Role play** (12 minutes)

Students work as two groups. The scenery is in a Chinese food market, in which half of the students are sellers, and the rest are customers whose goal is to bargain the price for food. In this activity, half of the students need to apply request strategies to bargain for a lower price while the others should sell with a good price. Students will share their bargain experience in China after the activity.

Activity 5: **Role play** (10 minutes)

Based on the handouts from the previous activities, students work in pairs to write and act out a role play. The topic can be chosen freely as long as it relates to social power between interlocutors. The objective is to make the request successfully while maintaining the relationship between interlocutors. The rest of the class will vote for the group that achieved the goal with the most appropriate request strategies.

Homework

Students interview their Chinese language partners about request strategies that they use in their daily lives in China. The interview questions should cover social variables, such as social power and social distance. Students will report to the class on the next day, and the whole class will synthesize the cultural norms for making requests in Chinese.

Conclusion

As more and more people from all over the world are interested in learning Chinese as a foreign language, Chinese speech acts, especially request which is a frequent occurrence in people's every-day lives, need to be addressed in the CFL classroom explicitly if culture competence is to be built. Learning request strategies is thus the prerequisite for successful communication by CFL learners.

While all studies reviewed in this paper support the idea that Chinese request strategies are heavily influenced by social variables of social distance, social power, and the ranking of imposition, some scholars also argue that Chinese request strategies are more direct than other languages, in which Chinese prefer imperative strategies, whereas other languages are in favor of conventionally indirect strategies (Gu, 1990; Mao, 1994; Hong, 1999). Thus when building CFL learners' request strategies in the foreign language classroom, teachers should inform learners of the multiple factors that will affect the choice of strategies in a variety of contexts. In addition, a well-designed lesson plan is needed to teach culture elements such as request effectively. It is only through well-designed, real-world related activities, can learner's culture competence be built.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

INTRODUCTION

       The following annotated bibliography is a combination of sources that I found meaningful in developing my understanding of effective language teaching, and emphasized the main components of my teaching philosophy. The first topic is communicative language teaching, in which language teacher creates an environment for students to engage in meaningful exchanges in the target language. The second part relates to the integrating of technology into a well-designed foreign language classroom, therefore, learners will have better access to fluent speakers and authentic resources. Last but not least, learners' literacy skills should be built in a Chinese DLI classroom to meet the needs of content learning in the target language. To present my understanding of each article/book, I summarize the main points and then explain the significance of the article as it influenced my knowledge of teaching a foreign language.

Early in the Master of Second Language (MSLT) program, I learned about Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which refers to an approach by which language teachers create an environment for students to engage in meaningful exchanges in the target language (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). My understanding of CLT has been expanded under the guidance of my professors and the academic literature I have read with different perspectives toward CLT. Most of the resources I have read so far advocate CLT as an effective teaching approach while a few point out that CLT is lacking and needs to be improved. In the following sections, I will elaborate my understanding of CLT based on the sources I have read.

I first learned about CLT from **Lee and VanPatten (2003)**. In the first chapter of this book, the authors introduce CLT by comparing it with traditional teaching methods, such as Audiolingualism (ALM), in which the teacher is the authority of the class and students are ordered to recite sentences or even whole dialogues from memory (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). I found resonance when Lee and VanPatten describe the drawbacks of a traditional classroom because I was taught in that way. In my experience as an English learner in China, there was no peer interaction or meaningful information exchange of any kind in my classroom. All I can remember is the teacher giving us sentence patterns and language points and students being required to repeat and recite. So even after eight years of English study, none of my classmates were able to talk to an English speaker.

I felt awkward about using English outside the classroom. I often questioned my learning methods and the way I was taught. When I began studying in the MSLT program, I was first introduced to the CLT approach in the pro-seminar course. One of

our assigned texts was Lee and VanPatten, who offer a meaningful alternative to my frustrating experience of the preceding years. According to Lee and VanPatten, foreign language learning calls for student initiative. Teachers should change their roles from authority figures to opportunity providers, facilitators, or designers (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). It is important to encourage students to communicate with others in the target language in the classroom; only through purposeful, real-world preparation will students be able to use the language outside the classroom successfully. Thus, I learned that language teachers have the obligation to design meaningful activities for the classroom, and I found another book that gave me clear guidance for CLT classroom activity designing.

In **Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, and Mandell (2001)**, I benefit most from the chapter on CLT classroom activities, especially the description of Task-Based Activities (TBAs). From Ballman et al, I learned that classroom activity is a pivotal factor to determine the accomplishment of the communicative goal in the class. In order to help students learn the target language in a meaningful way, the teacher should tailor classroom activities according to students' needs. Soon after reading this chapter, I had the opportunity to design a TBA for a Chinese 1010 class as a teaching assistant. I designed a role-paly activity to help students learn greetings for different situations. Students were divided into small groups to act out the assigned scenarios. They worked together to write dialogues using the greeting phrases learned in class. Then they rehearsed before performing for the class. After each performance, students were instructed to comment on the appropriateness of their classmates' greetings. The class was considered successful by both students and teacher because the communicative goal

was accomplished through this activity. Students knew how to greet people in various situations in Chinese and they had fun participating in the activity because they were using the language. Based on this successful experience in teaching Chinese, I was motivated to explore other CLT resources.

In two chapters of a book regarding language pedagogy, **Ellis (2012)** describes the roles that teachers and students play in the classroom. Ellis stresses the importance of the teacher's language in the L2 classroom. He advocates that teacher-talk in the foreign language (FL) classroom should take individual, contextual, and sociocultural factors into consideration (Ellis, 2012). I strongly agree with this statement for several reasons. First, the language that is presented by the teacher is the most valuable resource for language learning in the classroom. This is because for a majority of language learners, the teacher is their primary source of target language input. Also, good input should be comprehensible and meaningful (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). In the classroom, teachers should slow their rate of speech and pause to make sure students are able to follow along; this is especially true when teaching novice learners. In addition, shorter utterances and high-frequency words are needed to make the input more comprehensible.

When discussing the use of the L1 in the classroom, Ellis (2012) points out that there is a gap between teachers' beliefs about the use of the L1 and their actual use of the L1 in the classroom (Ellis, 2012). In other words, teachers believe that they are using more of the target language than what they use in reality. This reminds me of my own English learning experience, the target language was rarely used in the classroom, and I was not fortunate enough to be immersed in the target language at that time. This

experience inspired me to look for resources that discussed the role of the L1 in the L2 classroom.

In an article that emphasizes the use of the target language in the L2 classroom, **Turnbull (2001)** claims that "SL or FL teachers should maximize their use of TL" (p. 531) and "doing so benefits students' TL proficiency" (p. 531). Turbull supports the idea of talking in the TL as much as possible in the classroom, but he claims that there is a role for the L1 as well. Due to my experiences with CLT, I had thought that the teacher should use the TL 100% of the time in the classroom, but now I realize there is still a place for the L1. The L1 can be used to scaffold students, but it should not be used more than 5% of the class time (ACTFL Standards, 2015). Turnbull cites empirical research studies on the effectiveness of using the target language in the L2 classroom, from which he concludes that teachers should aim to use the target language as much as possible because it will have a positive effect on learners' TL proficiency (Turnbull, 2001).

From Turnbull's article, I learned that the L1 can be used in the L2 classroom, provided that the L1 supports the accomplishment of the communicative goal. Furthermore, the teacher should know how and when to use the L1 (Ellis, 2012) so that it benefits students the most in language learning.

One of the difficulties with teaching communicatively is determining how well the students understand my lessons. To evaluate language learning and teaching, I use the **NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-do Statements (2015)**, which is a relatively complete and practical guideline to assess what learners "can do" with the language they have learned in the classroom. There are checklists on different levels from novice-low to superior for learners to assess themselves. In addition, the checklists include the three communicative

modes: Interpersonal, Interpretive, and Presentational. In my Chinese classes, I introduce

NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-do Statements to students so they can learn Chinese purposefully

and always know what they can do after a period of time. When students are provided

with a road map for their learning, they are motivated to learn the language.

NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-do Statements can also be used by language teachers to

design classroom activities. I applied NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-do Statements in my

Chinese 1020 class. I knew that after one semester of studying in Chinese 1010, they

could introduce themselves briefly and greet their friends at a novice-low level. My goal

for the new semester was to help them moved to the novice-mid or novice-high level, so

they could introduce both themselves and others clearly. To accomplish this goal, I

adjusted my lesson plan to design related activities to train them purposefully. For

example, for a chapter on dating, I designed an interview activity to describe students'

ideal partners. In this activity, students used vocabulary of appearance and personalities

to exchange information. Once they gathered all the information, I asked them to match

their classmates with the same requirement for their significant others through reporting

to the class.

In addition to the Can-Do Statements, I find the **ACTFL Standards (2015)**

helpful with their emphasis on five aspects of language teaching: communication,

cultures, connections, comparisons, and communities. The first focus of the ACTFL

Standards (2015) is communication. In this guideline, communication is considered the

heart of foreign language learning, which means learners will communicate with each

other and exchange meaningful information through conversations. I can achieve this

language goal by having a specific communicative goal for my students to accomplish after each unit, such as ordering food successfully in a Chinese restaurant.

The other four aspects of the ACTFL Standards (2015) also play important roles in foreign language learning. Learners become more aware of cultural differences through constant language study, and the awareness of cultural differences will lead to a more appropriate way of using the language. During the process of realizing the differences between their L1 and L2 cultures, learners experience a comparison process which will also expand their views toward the world. While teachers are usually the main input in the FL classroom, they should be impersonal when bringing culture to the learners. The initial goal of introducing different cultures in the FL classroom should be to develop learners' awareness of the necessity of amalgamation of language and culture, and cultivate their critical thinking ability toward cultural differences. As a final point, all these elements are connected together to build a language community that allows students to experience a multilingual environment, where students are able to handle global issues with sufficient language proficiency. Therefore, a comprehensive guideline in foreign language teaching is important for both teachers and students. In conjunction with such guidelines, I conduct assessment during class, for which I look to **Adair-Hauck, Glisan, Koda, Swender, and Sandrock (2006).**

In their article, Adair-Hauck, Glisan, Koda, Swender, and Sandrock (2006) introduce the Integrated Performance Assessment (IPA) for the CLT classroom, which connects assessment to teaching and learning based on the Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century (National Standards, 2006). This assessment type claims that the point of assessment is to know learners' current language proficiency and

to adjust teaching strategies to improve their learning. This was not my experience in the English classroom in China. My English teachers would not seek input from students to adjust their teaching strategies, and the only evaluation of students' language proficiency consisted of tests. As a result, I had to do written exams, including vocabulary dictation, for every unit. All I needed to pass the exams was intense drills, such as memorizing sentence patterns and even whole texts. The teacher paid little attention to the use of language in our daily lives. As a result, I lost the motivation for learning English. Adair-Hauck et al. point out that assessment on language learning should focus on more than one correct answer. Specifically, they advocate for designing activities that mirror the tasks or challenges learners will face in the real world. Only in this way, teachers are able to determine students' ability to use the language. I learned from this article that communicative teaching involves more than the teaching material, the roles of teachers and students, and the classroom activities; effective assessment is equally important in improving language learning.

However, although CLT is widely acknowledged to provide an efficient language learning environment, some voices challenge the efficiency of CLT. To further understand the opposite voices, I read **Bax (2003)**. Bax claims that CLT should be replaced by a Context Approach (Bax, 2003). He argues that the most important part in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is context, and CLT fails to put context in an important position. Besides this, Bax also cites research that has demonstrated that even without CLT, learners can learn a foreign language efficiently, and thus CLT should not be overly praised in SLA. However, I learned from Lee and Vanpatten (2003) and Ballman et al. (2001) that the CLT classroom does focus on content, as well as many

other important aspects. TBA helps students apply their knowledge in a real-world

context. Thus, with what I learned before and my practical experience during the

semester, I have to question Bax's viewpoint.

From Bax (2003), I know that not everyone agrees on the best approach toforeign

language teaching. Bax proposes that CLT should be replaced, while others like Ballman

et al (2001) and Lee and VanPatten (2003) claim that CLT is the most effective teaching

approach in SLA. However, the only way for me to test their methodologies is through

classroom practice.

In another study that examines the efficiency of CLT, **Brown (2009)** presents the

perspectives of teachers and students on effective teaching methods. He reports

significant findings: teachers on one hand, tend to value communicative approaches as an

effective second language learner (L2) pedagogy, they consider information exchange to

take precedence over grammar practice, and they believe grammar practice should be

embedded in real world contexts. On the other hand, students prefer to have formal

grammar instruction over communicative exchanges in the L2 classroom (Brown, 2009).

At first, I could not understand why students would prefer a grammar instruction rather

than a communicative approach. As I read deeply, I found this may be caused by the

teacher's neglect of duty. It is the teacher's job to help students understand the

empirically proven principles of L2 learning, such as the importance of producing output,

the significance of peer interactions, and the value of negotiation of meaning, because

these are decisive factors for a successful foreign language learning.

All the studies I explored above helped shape my understanding of CLT during the

first semester of study in MSLT program. In closing, I want to mention **Shrum and**

Glisan (**2010**), whose book on CLT classrooms includes all teaching aspects from the introduction of language organizations, the roles of input and output, the standards for foreign language teaching, learning material, classroom assessment, to how to train the specific communicative modes. This book gives me a complete guide for foreign language teaching. I am especially interested in the case studies that are offered in the book and its accompanying websites. Shrum and Glisan's case studies show me how to solve real issues in my classroom.

The sources I presented above have expanded my understanding of CLT. I found diverse perspectives on CLT: some educators strongly advocate for the use of CLT, while others hold contrasting views and claim that CLT can always be improved. From my comparison of various perspectives of CLT and my teaching experience, I conclude that CLT will continue being an effective methodology in foreign language learning and I will benefit from CLT methodology by applying it to my own teaching.

TECHNOLOGY-ENHANCED FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Nowadays, technology plays a crucial role in people's personal and academic lives. Instead of communicating via mail and telephone, people can send instant messages through email and talk face-to-face on applications such as Skype. This technology has made connection and communication between people easier, and thus enabling foreign language (FL) learners to benefit by having better access to fluent speakers and authentic resources (Blake, 2013).

Considering the special role of technology, educators are increasingly examining both the positive and negative effects of technology on FL learning. I learned the importance of providing a technologically-enriched environment for my students through the reading of several articles and book chapters regarding integrating technology into the foreign language classroom. In the following sections, I will give an introduction to technological tools for the FL classroom, and then I will focus on how learners benefit from error correction and learner autonomy via online key-pal projects, through which learners' linguistic skills and cultural awareness are enhanced.

Among the sources that encourage using technology in the foreign language classroom, I learned the most from **Blake (2013)**. In the first three chapters, Blake articulates the fundamentals of using technology in the classroom. In chapter one, when illustrating the connections between technology and FL learning, the author points out that some people misunderstand technology with the assumption that technology and "internet" are equivalent. This perception of technology, from a limited perspective, hinders them from taking full advantage of technological tools in FL learning. Also important to note, Shrum and Glisan (2010) warn that technology tools should be used

only for the sake of supporting FL learning, otherwise, technology should not be integrated into the classroom. When I try to incorporate technology tools in my classroom, I first take the practical function of these tools into consideration. Other than making the class more interesting, I think about how the video will enhance the learners' learning. For example, when teaching food in my class, I show my students a video about cooking Chinese food, in which they can hear and see some of the names of Chinese dishes, ingredients, and cookware. In this way, the students will not only enjoy the time from watching the video, but they are also able to incidentally pick up some vocabulary. In addition, students also become aware of the differences in food and cooking styles between their own culture and the target language (TL) culture.

In the following two chapters, Blake talks about the evaluation of technological tools and the positive impacts that technology can bring to the FL classroom. Technology is classified according to their specific functions on FL learning. '*Google Docs*', an app that allows a group of people to share and write projects any time, at any location as long as there is internet, is classified as a tool for developing writing skills (Blake, 2013). In the FL classroom, '*Google Docs*' can be applied to improve learners' writing skills through collaboration with their classmates and teachers. Technology likes '*Google Docs*' can promote FL learning, provided that the activity is well designed. In the following chapters of his book, Blake elaborates on all kinds of technological tools to support FL learning, and from his references I found more empirical studies that examine various technology aspects. I will expand on several of these studies in the following sections.

Reading studies that examine the benefits of technology in the FL classroom, I learned that mutual error correction via online key-pal project is an effective approach to enhance learners' linguistic skills and cultural awareness. For example in **Edasawa and Kabata (2007)**, the authors investigate the effect of a cross-cultural key-pal project via email, in which third-year university students from Japan and Canada were paired up and communicated through email with each other's target language. Participants reported that they learned vocabulary from their partners. Error correction from the peers will benefit students in learning the language and this can often be observed from the pair or group activities in my classroom. Students in pair or in groups need to negotiate of meaning to gather information, and ample peer scaffolding and error correction occur during negotiation of meaning. The completion of the task demonstrates mutual benefits from error correction in collaboration works.

Edasawa and Kabata include additional significant findings in this study. Students reported learning both vocabulary and syntax through this project. However, even though students had ample opportunities to improve their language skills though asking each other direct questions in their TL, the learning took place in a rather indirect way, with students from both sides tried mainly to correct each other implicitly. This was counter to the authors' initial expectations. These findings could be explained by the differences between the two cultures. Generally speaking, Japanese tend to be implicit, and they may feel uncomfortable pointing out others' mistakes directly. Another reason could be the students did not know how to handle such situations, because they were not told to correct their partners. My students in Chinese 1020 are encouraged to find their Chinese partner whether on campus or from mainland China. After reading this article, I realize

that I should inform my students of certain cultural differences so that the language exchange program can proceed more smoothly and be more beneficial.

Learning from the previous study of Edasawa and Kabata (2007), **Kabata and Edasawa (2011)** continue to conduct cross-cultural key-pal projects with third and fourth-year university students from Japan and Canada. In this study, the authors gave specific and clear instruction before the project began. The results show that students had opportunities to learn the TL in all aspects. In addition, most students recognized the explicit corrections from their partners' responses. The findings in this study help me understand the main point of carrying out an online cross-cultural project. In this digital era, technology affects people's lives in various fields, especially in language learning. Technology tools can be applied in a variety of ways, but when selecting the tools for learners, teachers should first think about ways of designing the tasks to match the tools.

In a similar study, **Vinagre (2005)** examines foreign language acquisition through learner autonomy and explicit feedback. In this study, the author describes an email project between students from the US and Spain who worked with a partner to exchange information in their TL and give each other error correction through feedback. By the end of this twelve-week project, there were two significant findings: learner autonomy was improved, which means FL learners are actively in charge of their own learning and making decisions by themselves, and thus be responsible for their learning; and error corrections were explicit during the process of information exchange in the TL (Vinagre, 2005).

I infer several reasons for the results from reading Vinagre's analysis. First of all, students had freedom to choose the topics they were interested in, which gave them the

opportunities to learn something they really liked. Second, students in this project showed a genuine interest in each other's life, so they could expand their topics to a broader field, and this encouraged them to write more emails every week than they were required to write. Third, students could decide when and where to carry out the project, they were in charge of their own learning. Last but not least, students in this project were clearly told to correct each other, so they were aware of the importance of doing so.

Based on the success of the email information exchange project, I learned that the most important thing in applying technology to FL learning is to design the activity carefully. In Vinagre (2005), the project was carried out in a well-organized way. Before the project, students underwent extensive training on how to correct their partner, so they and their partner could benefit optimally from error correction. It inspired me to design an online exchange program for my \students in Chinese 1020 since half of them chat with a Chinese friend via a social networking app. For example, I can provide my students with a variety of interesting topics about their daily lives, such as the criteria for choosing a life partner. Students in my class and their Chinese partners can exchange their ideas, and then they will be aware of the similarities and differences between the two cultures. By the end of the project, I will ask my students to present their findings to the class. I believe a well-designed online project can enhance the learners' awareness of cultural differences.

Another important aspect that can be enhanced by technology is learner autonomy. **Schwienhorst (2003)** points out three approaches in learning autonomy: "an individual-cognitive; a social-interactive; and an experimental-participatory perspective" (p. 427). The author explains the first approach as one in which only the learners can change and

improve their existing construct system. While using online tools, such as email, to improve their language skills, learners will build learner autonomy if they are motivated and have the ability and freedom to exchange information. For example, in a tandem learning project, if both the language partners share an interest in a particular movie, then they will try their best to learn the professional terms about the movie in the TL to meet their needs. During the information exchange, only the learners will realize what they really need to learn.

The second approach is based on Vygotsky's work on the "*zone of proximal development*" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). The emphasis on person-to-person interaction encourages the development of interpersonal communication. Tandem learning has a direct impact on learner autonomy to fulfill the second approach. For example, in a tandem learning project, language partners are aware of the importance of giving each other feedback, so they provide their partners explicit feedback, such as error corrections on grammar and word choice. The feedback is considered to be authentic, because the language partners are usually fluent speakers. Therefore, learners will develop a stronger linguistic awareness via tandem learning.

The third approach in this article encourages the learners to be responsible and to evaluate their learning process. With his tandem learning project, Vinagre (2005) has shown me that, when learners have choices on what, when, and where to learn, they are able to manage their learning. Learners know what they lack to carry out the tasks, so they ask for feedback to achieve their goals.

Providing and obtaining feedback from their tandem learning partners is considered a key benefit in **Priego (2011)**. In this article, two secondary schools of

French-speaking and English-speaking students in Canada were paired up via email.

During the email exchange, students from both sides took the roles of the native speakers

(NS), and explicit feedback was the most salient way used by the NS. Students used

different ways to give explicit feedback, such as rewriting the entire email and pointing

out the mistakes directly when offering the right sentences. While in the roles of the non-

native speakers (NNS), students asked and thanked their partners for feedback.

In Priego's study, students turned out to be helpful in giving each other feedback.

Students provided scaffolding for each other via emails. This showed that students from

both sides were aware of the purpose of this project. They knew clearly their roles of both

NS and NNS, so they were not embarrassed when their partners gave direct failure

signals (Priego, 2011). This study reminds me of the mutual benefits between the two

language partners in a tandem learning project. For example, I was surprised when one of

the students in Chinese 1010 told me the story of Chinese moon festival last semester. He

could offer several different versions of the story from different people, but at the same

time, he could tell which story was most widely accepted. When I asked why he knew so

much about it, he told me he learned from several friends in China, and his friends came

from different regions so they shared different versions. The reason why he could figure

out the widely-accepted version was because he had been corrected so many times.

Examples like this tell me well-designed tandem learning projects provide mutual

benefits for both language partners, whether to improve their linguistic awareness,

cultural awareness or both.

From the articles about tandem learning projects above, I learned that only well-

designed online projects will be successful in the end. So it draws my interest to find

articles that will teach how to design a successful online project. **O'Dowd and Ritter (2006)** provide a good model for designing a successful online project. In this article, the authors list common explanations for "failed communication" (p. 623) in these projects. They also warn that conflict and misunderstanding in online exchange programs will happen every now and then if there is a lack of training and understanding before the project begins.

To minimize the risk of failed communication, O'Dowd and Ritter (2006) suggest that the teachers from both sides take every potential problem into consideration, such as time differences between the two countries, the difference of religions, and the ages of the groups. For example, learners from China and the US have at least 10 hours difference; the teacher should bear this in mind and design a workable schedule for the students. If students have very different religions, the teacher should inform the students of the potential conflicts. Second, students need to be trained in advance about their language partners' culture; students should be told to respect each other's culture and not to view the culture difference as a problem during the project. Failed communication is often due to misunderstanding about each other's differences. As long as the students from both sides learn the purpose of the exchange project, conflicts can be minimized, and then mutual benefit can occur.

Technology can provide ample benefits when it is used wisely. From the sources about integrating technology into the FL classroom that I have read so far, I learned well-designed online exchange projects can benefit learners by enhancing their linguistic awareness and cultural awareness. Learners will be responsible for their learning and evaluate their learning via online tools such as email or discussion board. If learners are

trained beforehand to carry out the project, the mutual benefits can appear through

feedback. In my future FL classroom, I plan to incorporate more technology in my

teaching to support FL learning.

DEVELOPING LITERACY IN CHINESE DLI CLASSROOM

Dual language immersion (DLI) can be defined as academic instruction in two languages (the majority language and the target language), in which learners not only develop linguistic skills, but also cultural and academic proficiency in both languages **(Fortune & Tedick, 2008)**. DLI programs have been in existence for more than half a century since the establishment of French DLI programs in Canada. Over the past 50 years, DLI programs have grown into a worldwide language learning model. Although these programs have become more and more prominent, I was unsure of the characteristics of the various types of DLI programs. Fortune and Tedick provide a comprehensive overview of DLI programs.

Fortune and Tedick (2008) divide DLI programs into three main branches: one-way, two-way, and indigenous immersion. All three types of DLI programs share the same goal: to foster bilingual, biliterate, and culturally competent learners (Christian, 2011; Fortune & Tedick, 2008). One-way immersion is the same as foreign language immersion, but it is for majority language speakers. For example, English speakers in the Chinese DLI program in Utah learn math, science, and social studies in Chinese half of the day, and the other half of the day they receive instruction in their native language. Two-way immersion is for both majority and minority language speakers, and at least one-third of the learners are native speakers of the minority language. Lastly, indigenous immersion programs are for learners whose family speaks the indigenous languages but they themselves do not. The goal is to revive the endangered languages.

Fortune and Tedick (2008) furthered my understanding of DLI education programs by pointing out specific features of DLI education that have led to

misunderstandings. I learned that DLI education follows the rules of: using L2 in instruction at least 50% of the day; aiming to build bi- or multilingual, bi- or multi literate learners; employing highly qualified teachers, and allocating time for instruction in two languages (Fortune & Tedick, 2008).

Finally, Fortune and Tedick (2008) call for a variety of participants, especially researchers in the field, to provide more support for the development of DLI education. I learned that only with the full understanding and support from all the participants will DLI education have a promising future. In order to further my understanding of how DLI programs receive support from the public, I turned to **Leite's (2013)** article, in which she elaborated on the unique support system for DLI programs in Utah.

Leite (2013) tells the history of the Utah DLI model from a variety of perspectives. Only the Spanish DLI program is provided in the two-way immersion model, whereas the Chinese, French, and Portuguese DLI programs provide only one-way immersion. In addition, Leite's main focus in this article was on the wide support of the DLI programs from the state government, school districts, administrators, principals, teachers, students, and parents. From the article, I found that the Utah model is different from any other DLI program in the world because they first received support from the government and then from local patrons. In 2008, after the passing of Senate Bill 41, fifteen schools received funding to start the 50/50 DLI model, which led to state-wide implementation of DLI programs.

Following the 50/50 model, every program involves two classes, and learners are instructed in two languages by two teachers. One teacher teaches in English for half of the day, and the other teaches in the target language for the other half of the day. In

addition, according to the Utah core curriculum, math, science and social studies are taught from grade one to grade six in the target language. In other words, academic content is taught in the target language. With this concern, I became interested in studies that show how learners' second language literacy skills can be developed successfully in their lower grades to support learning of advance academic content in the later elementary and secondary grades.

Beeman and Urow (2013) provide several strategies for building learners' reading skills in the DLI classroom. They recommend that teachers use more engaging strategies including sentence prompts and reading with a partner. According to their suggestion, sentence prompts are effective in helping learners analyze texts. For example, teachers could prepare some guiding questions before reading, such as predicting the main meanings of each paragraph. In this way, learners concentrate on getting main ideas, and thus, obtain a more complete understanding of a text. In addition, teachers can ask learners to analyze characters in the text, guess the relationship between characters, and dig for background information. To check learners' understanding of the text, teachers could put the learners in groups to retell the story together, so that learners are provided with more opportunities to think and say more about the text.

Furthermore, talking with a partner allows for peer scaffolding while reading. This works well for lower grade learners. For example, learners can work in groups to read a text together, in which each of them is assigned a paragraph. When analyzing the text as a whole, they help each link the whole text together by adding ideas.

Learning from Beeman and Urow (2013), I found sentence prompts and talk to your partner to build literacy skills could be really helpful for beginners in the DLI

classroom. I searched for more studies and found **Fisher and Stoner (2004)**, who provide more information about this topic.

Fisher and Stoner (2004) recommend that instructors use age-appropriate material in the DLI classroom to guide reading. For example, learners in first grade may only recognize single words. So teachers should use pictures, graphics, and/or cartoon comics with only a few words for reading. In this way, learners can tell the meaning of the text by visual aids, and do not need to depend solely on the words provided in the text. Fisher and Stoner emphasize the importance of using visuals to trigger learners' motivation in further learning the content. In addition, they also discuss how to implement pair reading. They suggest teachers should assign reading tasks in pairs or groups, so that learners can help each other when needed. What's more, teachers should join the groups as they walk around to check learners' participation and understanding of the text. In addition, teachers should design pre-reading practice before the reading. It is helpful for learners to be exposed to high-frequency vocabulary in the pre-reading activities, before students are exposed to them in the text. The ideas that I learned for these two articles were particularly useful, but they did not take into account the effect of the learners' L1 on their understanding of the L2.

Koda's (2007), in his article on reading in a second language, explores the complexity of developing L2 literacy skills and the effect that a learner's L1 reading proficiency has on their L2 reading skills. Before reading this article I understood that learners' could transfer reading skills from their L1 to their L2, but I was unsure of the why, how, or what skills would transfer. Furthermore, I understood that reading in the L2 was a complex task, but again I did not understand the depth of that complexity.

Koda claims that in L2 reading there are "continual interactions between the two languages as well as incessant adjustments in accommodating the disparate demands each language imposes" (p. 1). This interplay and accommodation between the two languages suggests an intimate relationship between a learner's L1 and L2 when learning to read in the L2, in which learners often utilize their L1 as a template for comparing and contrasting aspects and phenomena in the L2 script. This idea was particularly important to my understanding of how L2 learners of Chinese would utilize English, their L1, to facilitate their L2 reading skills, because the written scripts of Chinese and English are radically different.

Furthering my understanding of this idea, Koda illustrates the importance of taking into account linguistic distance. He argues that languages that are linguistically further apart will provide learners with more obstacles when they attempt to transfer reading skills from their L1 to their L2. After reading this article I decided to research skills that were specific to reading in Chinese as a second language.

In a study addressing the relationship between reading skills and reading comprehension, **Shen and Jiang (2013)** gave 42 adult learners of Chinese a character reading test, word segmentation test, and reading comprehension test. They found that learners who named characters accurately and quickly and segmented characters at a faster rate performed better on the reading comprehension test than those who performed these tasks at a slower rate. After reading this article I realized the importance of developing students' character recognition and character segmentation speeds. This is particularly important because typically characters are taught with the pinyin (the

transliteration of the character) and thus recognition is not fostered, or they are taught in a list format, in which segmentation skills are not developed.

In their conclusion, Shen and Jiang (2013) provide suggestions for developing these skills in the classroom. They advocate for reading aloud to improve character naming accuracy and speed, as well as repeated reading to develop both character segmentation skills and character recognition fluency. As these suggestions struck me as valid, I became interested in better ways to develop these skills, which eventually lead me to graded readers.

To further my understanding of graded readers, I read **Nation and Ming-Tzu's (1999)** article, in which they analyzed 42 graded readers to determine their effectiveness in building vocabulary. Although this article was aimed at helping teachers select or design a graded reader, it helped improve my understanding of how graded readers could be useful for developing the L2 Chinese reading skills outlined in Shen and Jiang's (2013) study. Nation and Ming-Tzu argue that graded readers can promote several learning goals including "gaining skill and fluency in reading, establishing previously learned vocabulary and grammar, learning new vocabulary and grammar and gaining pleasure from reading" (p. 336). Furthermore, they argue that although some graded readers are far removed from their authentic counterparts, other graded readers can resemble the linguistic complexity of authentic texts without overloading L2 learners.

Through their analysis of graded readers, Nation and Ming-Tzu (1999) provide educators with suggestions for developing a successful graded reader series. From their suggestions, I came to the conclusion that graded readers could be designed to increase character naming speed and accuracy as well as character segmentation fluency. I also

learned that graded readers are a better alternative to vocabulary lists for novice-learners

because they not only present the vocabulary in context, but they also encourage reading

for pleasure and the incidental learning of grammatical concepts. Although I believe that

graded readers are beneficial to Chinese L2 learners, I was also curious about other

techniques for developing character recognition skills. This curiosity leaded me to **Lam's**

(2011) article.

Lam (2011) first provides a description of the most common practices for

teaching Chinese literacy skills to L1 learners. Then he gives suggestions for teaching L2

learners of Chinese. This article proved valuable as it presented numerous strategies for

teaching characters and Chinese literacy skills. Of particular importance to the dual

language immersion program, Lam argues for a separation of spoken and written Chinese

course and for character-centered approaches in which instruction focuses on explaining

character components.

This article reinforced my previous beliefs that Chinese literacy instruction in the

Utah DLI model needs more explicit instruction. Due to the complexity of the Chinese

script, and the learners' lack of previous experience with logographic languages, more

time must be spent on developing literacy skills in Chinese than for other languages. I

also used this article to provide teaching methodology suggestions for DLI teachers, such

as using mind maps to separate characters into smaller components, or presenting

characters with similar semantic and phonetic radicals to demonstrate the function of

those radicals. Finally, this article also demonstrated how technology could be used to

develop the learners' understanding of the characters' components.

The articles presented in this annotated bibliography illustrate how my understanding of developing Chinese literacy skills in a dual language immersion program developed. Through the aforementioned articles I have come to the belief that for learners in the DLI program to reach native-like literacy skills in Chinese, educators should make use of graded readers at the early elementary levels and more time and explicit instruction should be dedicated to the development of these skills.

LOOKING FORWARD

During my two years in the MSLT program, I learned that teaching a language is not only about teaching the language item itself, such as vocabulary or grammar, but also about training learners' skills in using the language in their daily lives. I learn to create clear goals for each class I teach so my students can generate meaningful outcomes to meet their needs in the real-world situations. In addition, I have been fortunate to have the opportunity to work as a Chinese graduate instructor to put all the theories I learned from the program into practice. The one-year experience of teaching the novice level students at USU prepared me from being a qualified language teacher in the field of Chinese as a foreign language.

In the future, I would like to continue my career as a Chinese teacher in one of Utah's DLI program to teach higher level Chinese learners and finally go back to China to teach Chinese as a second language (CSL) or teach English as a foreign language (EFL) at a university. I may also pursue a doctorate degree in applied linguistics or education in the USA for the long-term plan. However, in the near future, I am looking to apply for a DLI teaching position in Utah and take what I have learned with theoretical foundations and practical techniques from the program in regards to teaching Chinese as a foreign language to American young learners.

My other plan is to open a dual-language school with my husband (also an MSLT graduate) in China later in my life. In our school, we would like to include both CSL and EFL learners so that both groups benefit from being immersed in the target language.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Handout 1

<u>The effect of social power on making request</u>

<u>Students will read and find out the social power between the interlocutors</u>

| 学生-教授	学生-学生	上司-下属
学生：老师您好，请问您有没有时间给我看看我的论文？ 教授：什么论文？ 学生：是关于中国饮食文化的论文。 教授：可以啊，你拿给我吧。 学生：那您什么时候方便呢？ 教授：现在就可以的。□ 学生：那太好了！太谢谢您了！	学生A: 小赵你好！ 学生B: 你好小张，有什么事儿吗？ 学生A: 是这样的，我今天忘带钱包了，我想问问你有没有带多余的钱？我明天一定还给你！ 学生B:哦，那没事儿，我还有多余的钱可以借给你，你需要多少？ 学生A: 我看看，我想十块应该够吃个午饭的了。谢谢你了！ 学生B:朋友之间不用那么客气。 学生A: 好的，那我明天一定还给你。 学生B:好。	上司：小刘你忙吗？ 下属：赵总，我准备写一份报告，请问有什么事儿？ 上司：哦，那你现在能来我办公室一趟吗？我需要你给我写份加急的报告。 下属：好的，我马上来！

Appendix B

Handout 2

<u>Listening output activity</u>

<u>Students will listen to the teacher and circle the appropriate answers</u>

老师-学生 1. 你知道中山路怎么走吗？	A:不知道。	B: 老师，不好意思，我也不知道。
学生-学生 2.请问现在几点了？	A: 哦，不好意思，我没手表。	B: 我也不知道。
学生-老师 3.请问老师现在有空吗？	A: 不好意思，我现在有点忙。	B: 没空。
老师-学生 4. 你能来一下老师的办公室吗？	A: 好的，老师。	B: 行。
学生-学生 5.你能借我点儿钱吗？	A: 好。	B: 没问题，你要多少？
学生-老师 6.请问老师可以帮我看看作业吗？	A: 我现在没空。	B: 不行。

Appendix C

Dr. deJonge-Kannan's observation notes for January 30, 2015
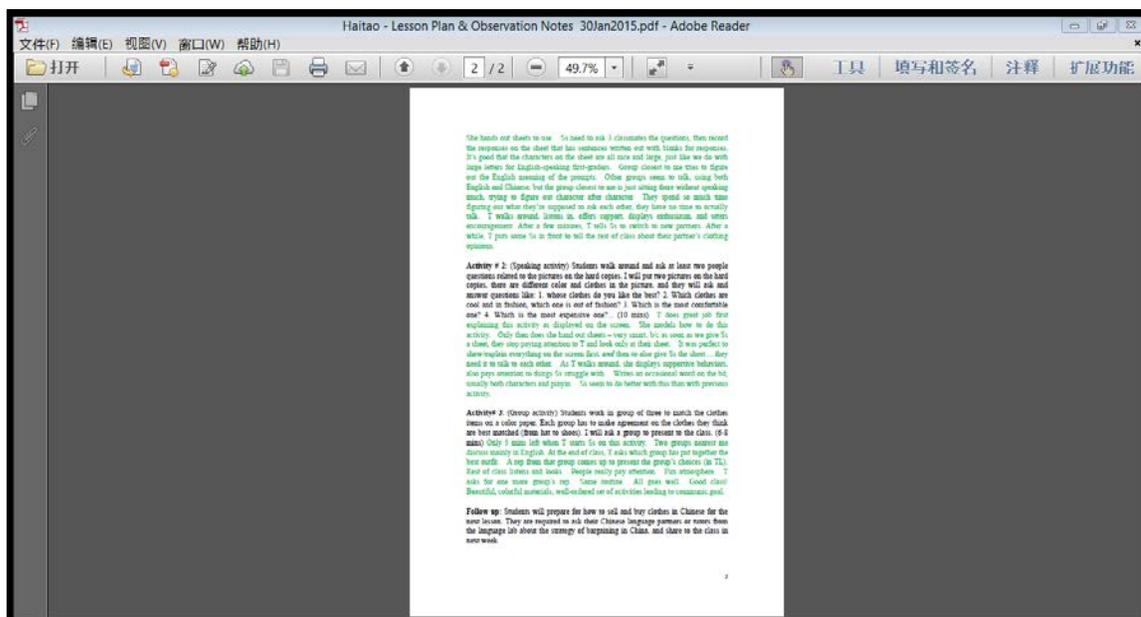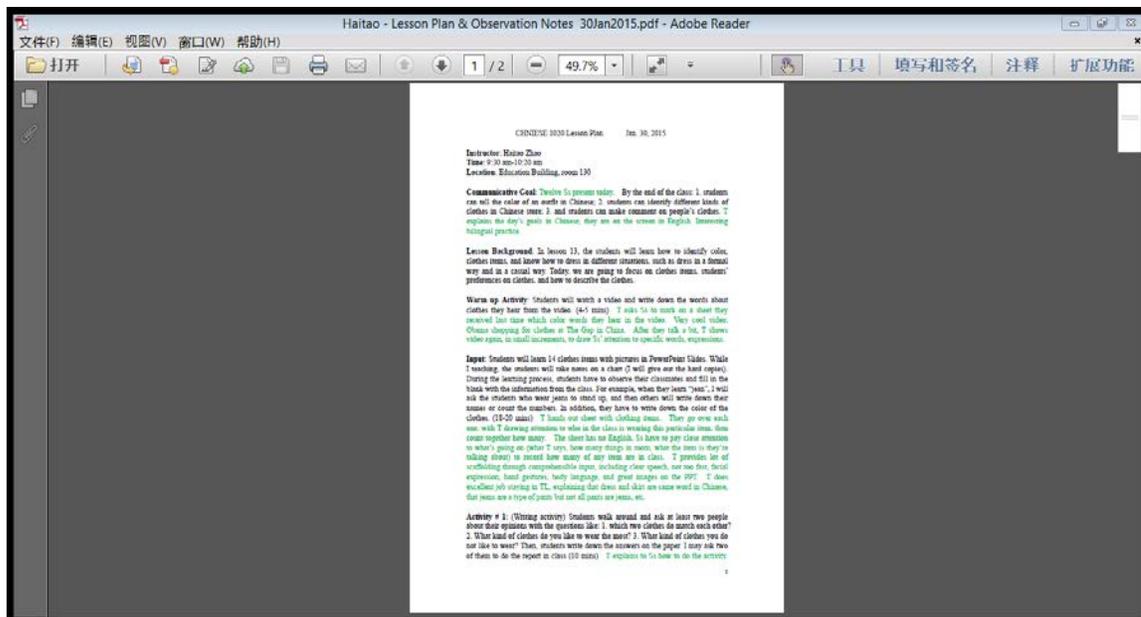
Appendix D

Handout 3

<u>Writing activity</u>

<u>Students walk around and ask two people with the three questions and write down the</u>

<u>answers.</u>

请问三个朋友下面的问题:
1. 你觉得哪两件衣服最配(pei-match)？
2. 你最喜欢什么衣服？
3. 你最不喜欢穿什么衣服？

一． 我的朋友是_____。他觉得_____和_____ 最配。他最喜欢 _____，最不喜欢穿_____。

二． 我的朋友是_____。他觉得_____和_____ 最配。他最喜欢 _____，最不喜欢穿_____。

三． 我的朋友是_____。他觉得_____和_____ 最配。他最喜欢 _____，最不喜欢穿_____。