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The Centre for the Studies of Curriculum and Instruction

The University of British Columbia
Vancouver, Canada

Date Jan. 26, 1996
Abstract

Recent studies in language education have advocated the integration of language and content learning, assuming that classroom discourse will display appropriate form-function relations. But Swain (1988) reveals that even good content teaching may result in classroom discourse where form-function relations are neither appropriate nor transparent, and calls for intentional teacher planning of classroom activities. Thus major areas for research are intentional planning for integration and functional discourse analysis. Approaches to the form-function analysis of discourse include register (Halliday 1985), genre (Martin 1992) and knowledge structures (Mohan 1990). All three provide a theoretical basis for functional discourse analysis and intentional planning.

In this qualitative, eight-month study of Chinese as a foreign language and culture class for beginning elementary anglophone students, the teachers designed student tasks around knowledge structures, using graphic representations to mediate between language and content. Data included lesson plans, informal interviews, field notes, and discourse data from student interactions and written work. The discourse was analyzed lexicogrammatically with a view to form-function relations, particularly the formal realizations of knowledge structures. Major questions were: how were foreign language teaching and cultural learning intentionally organized around knowledge structures at the level of both curriculum design and classroom implementation? What systematic form-function relations appeared in the discourse data. How are knowledge structures formally realized in the interactions and written work of young foreign language learners?

The results throw light on the possibilities of systematic form-function relations in the classroom, the integration of language and content learning, and on further directions for intentional planning.
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Acknowledgments

I would like to express my deep gratitude to Dr. Bernard Mohan, my supervisor, for his continued guidance, constant support, and inspiring feedback throughout the course of this study; to Dr. Margaret Early and Dr. Stephen Carey, my committee members, for their invaluable support and advice; to Dr. Jean Barman, Dr. Gloria Tang, and Dr. John Willinsky, for their generous encouragement.

I am also grateful to the teacher and the students who participated in the study; and to the Delta School Board, without whose co-operation the research could not have been conducted; to Karen Wilson, whose comments and proofreading have made this a better thesis.

I wish to thank the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada for support from grant # 410911063 (to Dr. M. Early and Dr. B. A. Mohna) and University of British Columbia for support in the form of University Graduate Fellowship.

My gratitude is also extended to my parents in China and my relatives in Singapore who have supported me in their way.

Finally, I wish to thank Yuan, my husband, for being always by my side, sharing my stress and happiness, and supporting me in every possible way.
Chapter 1
Introduction

1.1. Purpose of the Study

The program of Teaching Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language in elementary school is relatively new in Canada in comparison with other language teaching programs. To improve the program, research undertaken in classrooms is very important and necessary. The present project, based on the idea that the concept of activities is central to education (Mohan 1986), attempts to study second language teacher planning and classroom processes of language activities. Through a qualitative research approach, they are investigated from the perspective of second language teaching methodology.

In language teaching, a certain approach is connected with a certain understanding of what language learning means. And what language learning means entails the question of what language is. Thus, it can be said that different second language teaching approaches have their roots in different linguistic views. In terms of views of language, two dominant influential linguistic paradigms are the formalist/structuralist represented by Chomsky and the functionalist represented by Halliday.

Within the formalist paradigm, language is viewed as a system made up of only linguistic categories and "organized in terms of a set of principles" (Slobin 1986) or "rules" (Chomsky 1986) constraining form-form and form-meaning relations. Thus, learning a language is a matter of acquiring the rule-governed linguistic system of that particular language. A curriculum based on this view of language learning usually aims at mastering a particular language in its own right. The issue of how to learn a language
is seen as the issue of how to treat or handle linguistic forms or structures. Since form or structure is the major priority, there are only two ways to treat it, i.e. to deal with it (e.g. grammar translation method, Wilkins functional/notional syllabus) or ignore it (e.g. Krashen's Natural Approach, Prabhu's Procedural Approach).

A language-based, product-oriented approach (Approach 1) to language teaching is the one that deals with linguistic forms or structures (e.g. grammar translation method, Wilkins functional/notional syllabus), in the hope that the more emphasis is laid on forms and structures, the better the students will learn the language. Different from this approach is a task-based (Long 1992), process-oriented (Nunan 1988, Breen 1987) approach (Approach 2), which sees language not as a purely linguistic system in isolation from the learning process and, accordingly, lays all the emphasis on tasks instead of forms or structures of the language. Though different in terms of organizing teaching/learning units, both approaches see the ultimate goal of a language program as learning just a language.

Recent studies (e.g. Arnott 1985, Early et al. 1986, Mohan 1986, Swain 1974, 1978, 1988, Swain & Lupkin 1981, Collier 1987, Cummins, 1979, 1981, 1983, 1984, Dunn 1987, Rivera 1984, etc.) in language education have advocated the integration of language and content learning. The integration of language and content reflects a functional linguistic view towards language and language learning which sees language as "a resource for making meaning, not as a set of rules or psychological properties" (Martin, in press). Language activities are generally socially organized and embedded in cultural systems of meaning (Bauman & Sherzer 1974, Gumperz & Hymes 1972) and language is a concept closely related to learning about the world or learning through language (Halliday & Hasan 1985). Thus, language learning is viewed as "language socialization", defined as "socialization through the use of language and socialization to
use language" (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986:163). From this viewpoint, second language learning involves language socialization through the second language and simultaneously learning language and content (i.e., learning about the world).

One of the effects of this social, functional view of language learning is the advocation of a content-based approach to language teaching, which can also be partially seen as one of the results of the change in educators' perception of language education. Nowadays, language researchers and educators perceive the process of language learning and teaching more as language education rather than just acquiring an additional language. The idea that a second language program should be multi-dimensional in its goals is not only strongly suggested in the studies of language socialization (See Schieffelin and Ochs 1986), but also reflected in various language policy documents. For instance, in the United States, the goals of foreign language education established by the K-12 Student Standards Task Force (Kramsch 1994) include enabling students to 1) communicate across cultures; 2) develop insight into their own language and culture; 3) acquire new information/content through the L2; 4) make connections with other disciplines; 5) participate more fully in the global community/marketplace; and 6) demonstrate familiarity with the intellectual, artistic, and literacy contributions of target cultures. To achieve these goals, five areas of study are identified as

. study of culture
. study of the language system
. study of communication strategies
. study of learning strategies
. study of content areas.

Clearly, what is advocated here is a second language program that can integrate language development, cognitive skills, and content learning.
In Canada, curriculum guides for second language programs also lead into the direction of multiple outcomes of a second language program. For instance, in the curriculum guide for Mandarin Chinese, specific learning outcomes are derived from four general goals which include attitudinal, cultural, developmental, and linguistic goals (see Mandarin Chinese Curriculum Guide 1-4). The advocacy of such a multifunctional second language program calls for a connected approach which is able to incorporate language acquisition, content learning, and cognitive development. From an educational point of view, it is important to find ways to continue all students' academic and cognitive development while they are in the process of acquiring a second/foreign language (Early et al 1986). In this way, the value of a language program may be enhanced and the educational outcomes multiplied. In the situation of foreign language learning, even for those students who in the future might not use the target language, the course is also useful in the sense that what they gain from a language class is not only one more language but also various skills and knowledge useful in their future life. But is there a way for a language program to simultaneously develop students' language abilities, world knowledge, and cognitive skills?

In the last decade, Cummins' view of language proficiency (1981, 1984) has drawn attention to the difference between basic conversational language and academic language proficiency and underlined the importance of recognizing and respecting the resources of both the bilingual's language and the opportunities for positive cognitive transfer. Some research efforts (e.g. Arnott 1985, Early et al 1986, Mohan 1986, Swain 1974, 1978, 1988, Swain & Lupkin 1981, Collier 1987, Cummins, 1979, 1981, 1983, 1984, Dunn 1987, Rivera 1984, etc.) have been made to explore the possibility of integrating second language development and academic achievement for second language learners. Most of the studies in this area have focused on the integration of language and content and have regarded the content-based approach as one possible way to benefit the
students both linguistically and cognitively or academically (Mohan 1986; Cantoni-Harvey 1987; Crandall 1987; Chamot & O'Malley 1987; Benesch 1988; Enright & McCloskey 1988; Snow & Brinton 1988; Brinton, Snow & Wesche 1989).

However, while a content-based approach to language teaching has been favored on the assumption that "through content teaching, second language learning will be enhanced" "because content teaching is considered communicative teaching par-excellence" (Swain 1988:68), classroom research (Swain 1988, 1991) reveals that "content teaching is not necessarily good second language teaching" because of its lack of focus on form-meaning and form-function connections (Swain 1988:81). Swain has observed, through the investigation of French Immersion teaching, that a teacher might use present tense to talk about a historical event, avoiding appropriate but complex tense forms, because of the focus on comprehending meaning in history teaching. Swain also revealed that, "the language the teacher uses may be functionally restricted in certain ways, correction of content takes precedence over correction of form in order to preserve the communicative flow, correction of form that does occur is inconsistent in its message, and students' opportunities to engage in extended discourse are limited" (Swain 1988:76). Thus, Swain's work on French Immersion teaching shows a need for systematic use of form-function connections for more effective language teaching. It calls for more "carefully contrived activities, which bring into the classroom authentic language in its full functional range" (Swain 1988:82) because what second language learners need is the INTEGRATION of content and language learning instead of just content learning.

Among the research efforts to integrate language and content, the notion of activity (Ochs 1988), which is a key component of the concept of language socialization, provides an integrating concept and the Knowledge Framework (KF) proposed by Mohan (1986) is an analysis of activity. According to Mohan, central to education is the concept
of an activity. Action and theoretical understanding are two aspects of an activity. Practical knowledge and theoretical knowledge are the two sides of the KF. "The two aspects of an activity, action and theoretical understanding, match the two sides of the framework" (Mohan 1986:42). Thus, the KF can be perceived as a general model of activities which provides contexts for discourse. This general model of activity can provide a basis for the design of classroom work.

Mohan further argues that an activity can be divided into at least six major types of Knowledge Structures (KSSs) or knowledge processes: describing, sequencing, making choices, classifying, formulating principles, and evaluating. A topic or content area can also be broken down into six types of knowledge which make up the KF: description, sequence, and choice, which are included in the action situation of an activity and classification, principles, and evaluation, which are included in the background information of the action situation (See Table 1). Since each knowledge structure (or each box) has its distinct linguistic features, and accordingly when one is engaged in one of the activities of a certain KS under a topic, the particular language attached to that KS is required, the KF provides linkage between language and content. Furthermore, since all the six KSs are common to all activities, the framework provides for the possibilities of transfer of learning from one activity to another. This transfer of learning means both the transfer of thinking and the transfer of language learning (See Mohan 1986:46).

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Table 1. The Knowledge Framework (Mohan 1986)
Studies in ESL situations (e.g. Early 1990a, Mohan 1989, Tang 1989, etc.) have suggested that the Knowledge Framework (KF) proposed by Mohan (1986) is a helpful perspective to organize activities which could bring with them a wide range of form-function relations in a systematic way. Huang's (1991) research also indicates the feasibility of applying the KF in the foreign language teaching situation. What is needed is a detailed study of how the Knowledge Structures (KSs) are specifically reflected in students' tasks in second language classrooms and how the activities organized around the KF bring with them a range of form-function connections and what implications arise for development of both content learning and language learning.

1.2. Research Questions

The present research attempts to address this need by focusing on the design and the actual processes of classroom language activities organized around Mohan's KF in a Chinese as foreign language teaching situation. Specifically, this was the continuation of a case study (Huang 1991) which involved a detailed examination of classroom activities organized around knowledge structures in Chinese as a foreign language classrooms at an elementary school. The underlying assumption was that the classroom activities organized around the Knowledge Framework should be able to 1) involve the learners in the use of the target language over a wide "range of activities within the topics and subjects to be covered" (Swain 1988:77), and 2) bring about a broader range of form-function relations in the student use of the target language. In the study, the KF was used both for teacher planning and as an approach to discourse analysis in the treatment of classroom data. The purpose of the present study is two-fold: a) to increase understanding of how teachers plan and implement tasks aimed at language and content integration; b) to examine the nature of form-function relations in the discourse of
students engaged in these tasks. The specific questions which directed the research on this Chinese as a foreign language program are:

1). How is teaching planned around the KF and how are the plans implemented in the classroom?
2). What is the relationship between the students' involvement in the activities organized around the KF and the students' use of the target language?
3). What are the students' attitudes towards activities organized around the KF?
4). What systematic form-function relations appeared in the student discourse arising from the classroom language activities?
5). What are the appropriate ways to analyze student task discourse and how far do student tasks reflect knowledge structures in a Chinese as a foreign language teaching situation?

These questions are directly related to the research focus on how intentional teacher planning can possibly result in discourse which shows a broader range of and more systematic use of form-function relations. It is hoped the answers to these five questions can throw light on the possibilities of systematic form-function relations in the classroom, the integration of language and content learning, and on further directions for intentional planning.

1.3. Reasons for and Significance of the Study

Swain's study on French immersion programs (Swain 1988, 1991) has revealed a central problem in immersion methods which is the lack of appropriateness and transparency in form-function connections in classroom discourse, but very little work has addressed the issue. Second, while there are a few research studies regarding
intentional teacher planning on the integration of language and content in second
language learning situations such as ESL, little research has been undertaken to study this
kind of intentionally planned integration in a foreign language learning and teaching
situation. Third, using text analysis as research methodology to study student discourse
has been favored by researchers in the field of language education for some time (see
Hatch 1992, Larsen-Freeman 1980), but very often the contexts from which the student
texts are produced are not included in the picture of analysis. The lack of connection
between texts and contexts makes it difficult to see the relations between language
activities in educational settings and the language products resulting from those activities.
Fourth, studies in relation to the Knowledge Framework have so far been mainly
concerned with how it is employed as an approach to teacher planning to facilitate
integration of language and content. While there might, as well, exist the potential of
using it as an approach to discourse analysis in the treatment of data, little is known about
how this can be used to examine form-function connections in classroom discourse.
Finally, while serious discourse analysis for Chinese can hardly be pursued without the
development of a KS analysis for Chinese, research on KS analysis of the Chinese
language does not exist. The present study was conducted with the hope to fill part of
these gaps by investigating intentional teacher planning and form-function connections
through KS analysis in a Chinese as a foreign language and culture teaching situation.

The study, based on analytical description and discourse analysis, is a narrative of
the organization and the processes of the classroom activities organized around the KF in
a Chinese as a foreign language teaching situation. Through the presentation of
classroom processes and students' language product, it explores the effectiveness of such
classroom activities in terms of language acquisition, cognitive involvement, and content
learning. The study is the first attempt to investigate in detail the application of the KF in
a foreign language teaching situation. While studies with similar research foci are
conducted independently by different researchers in different settings (e.g., an ESL setting), the present one may contribute to educational knowledge by broadening the range of settings considered. What is important about the research is that, theoretically, it may enrich people's understanding of the role that the KF plays in generating a broad range of form-function connections in language activities; practically, the analysis of the empirical data obtained can provide implications for more effective curriculum design and classroom instruction for the teaching and learning of other foreign languages.

In addition, by presenting a whole picture of the on-going process of classroom language activities organized around the Framework, the study hopes to open a window from which one might perceive the dynamics of the application of the Framework in an actual foreign language classroom linguistically, cognitively, pedagogically, and/or personally. In return, the perception one gains from such a picture might provide indications for the improvement of such a language program in terms of curriculum design and classroom instruction.

1.4. The Plan of the Thesis

Chapter 1 discusses the reasons, purpose, and significance of the study, with the explanation of some technical terms relevant to the thesis.

Chapter 2, by reviewing some related literature from the perspectives of second language curriculum and language activities, aims at introducing Mohan's (1986) Knowledge Framework (KF), presenting what has been accomplished in relation to the Framework in the research area, thus revealing what has yet to be done. It points to the need for a study in relation to the Knowledge Framework in a foreign language learning
setting at a deeper level which includes detailed discourse analysis from the KF point of view.

Chapter 3 describes in detail how the study was designed and conducted and explains why it was thus designed and conducted.

Chapter 4 and 5 deal with the findings of the study, accompanied by data presentation. Chapter 4, by means of providing an analytical descriptive narrative of how intentional teaching was planned and actually conducted around the KF, particularly focuses on curriculum as designed and curriculum as experienced. It aims at describing a specific context from which the students' language product was produced. Chapter 5, focusing on student text analysis, attempts to analyze student discourse lexicogrammatically with a view to the formal realization of knowledge structures in order to investigate how far the form-function relations in the discourse data were systematic.

Chapter 6 draws the conclusions of the study by means of answering the research questions directing the study. It also gives some suggestions on the possible improvement of curriculum design and classroom instruction. In view of the limitations of the study, some recommendations for further research are made.

1.5. Definition of Terms

Since some terms used in the study are somewhat unique to the discipline, the terms relevant to the study are defined below.

Cantonese
Cantonese is one of the Chinese dialects spoken in the Guangdong area, the southern part of China. It shares most of the characters with other Chinese dialects but has independent pronunciation, tones, different vocabulary items, and some different sentence structures. Approximately 5% of the people in China speak Cantonese as their native language (Wu 1984).

Chinese

Chinese covers many dialects such as Mandarin (which is the official language in both Taiwan and the mainland of China), Cantonese, etc. However, in this study, whenever Chinese is used, it refers to Mandarin Chinese. In China, approximately 70% of the people speak dialects similar to Mandarin (Wu 1984).

Chinese Characters

Chinese characters are the written symbols of the Chinese language. Every syllable in Chinese is represented by a character. A character is not necessarily a word that conveys a meaning. A Chinese word is made up of one or more characters.

First Language (L1)

In this study, all the subjects involved speak English as their first language. Even though the teacher also speaks Cantonese and some of the students are from the families where other languages are occasionally spoken, "L1" in this study refers to English.

Foreign Language
In this study, "foreign language" refers to a non-native language learned and used with reference to a speech community outside national or territorial boundaries. For instance, Chinese learned by Canadians in Canada is a foreign language to these learners. Usually, a foreign language, whose speech community may be thousands of miles away, is learned with much less environmental support than a second language (see Stern 1983:16).

**Hanyu Pinyin--A Chinese Phonetic System**

Hanyu Pinyin is a Chinese phonetic system. It is made up of alphabetic letters from the internationally-accepted Latin alphabet to indicate the pronunciation of the Chinese characters. As the characters themselves do not represent sounds, the Hanyu Pinyin is a convenient tool which helps overcome difficulties in reading, writing, and remembering. Hanyu Pinyin is sometimes abbreviated as Pinyin (see NoName 1963).

**Interaction**

"Interaction" refers to talk between two or more individuals.

**Second Language (L2)**

In this study, "second language" refers to a non-native language learned and used within a country in which that language is widely used and has official status (see Stern 1983:16). For instance, English learned and used by non-native speakers of English in Canada is a second language of these speakers. Thus, a second language, because it is
used within the country where it is widely used, is usually learned with much more environmental support than a foreign language.

**Task vs. Activity**

In this thesis, "task" and "activity" are sometimes used to convey the same meaning: a segment of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting (see Nunan 1989: Chapter 1); sometimes, especially in Chapters 3, 4, and 5 of the thesis, they are used slightly differently. For example, the activity of classifying classmates might include several tasks which are conducted to accomplish the goal of the activity. Thus, "activity" refers to a goal achieved through a series of steps or actions and a task refers to a step leading to that goal.

**Tone**

In Chinese, the pitch and change in pitch of a syllable make for a difference in meaning. Such pitch contours are called the "tones". There are four basic tones in Mandarin Chinese, shown by the following marks:

- : 1st tone, high and level;
- /: 2nd tone, rising;
- v: 3rd tone, falling-rising
- \/: 4th tone, falling.

In addition, in common speech some syllables are pronounced both weak and short, known as the neutral tones, which are shown by the absence of tone marks. The tone mark is always placed above the main vowel (see Zhao *et al.* 1982; NoName 1963).
Chapter 2
Review of Related Literature

"(E)ffective research will be based on well-reasoned theory and synthesis of previous knowledge, so that these sources are not investigated randomly."

(Chaudron 1988:1)

In today's world of education, language teaching is viewed as language education. Language learning experience is more often perceived from the perspective of educational experience. Then what do we mean by "education"? What sorts of experience comprise "an education"? While it is difficult for people from different cultures to give the same answers to these questions, it might be agreed that "many objectives would be shared ones, e.g., a capacity for independent thought and judgment, a tolerance of personal and cultural viewpoints that differ from one's own, and a readiness to adapt to changing circumstances" (Abbott 1987:48). Since no school subject is exempt from the process of education, a foreign language course must contribute to such objectives. From this point of view, a foreign language course should, theoretically, aim at at least four goals so as to establish the links between language teaching and useful educational theory concepts (Stern 1984): 1) the development of the target language abilities which is the major goal of any language program; 2) the development of various thinking skills which is indispensable for "a capacity for independent thought and judgment"; 3) the awareness of different cultures which forms part of the basis for a "tolerance of personal and cultural viewpoints that differ from one's own"; 4) the ability to transfer learning which provides "a readiness to adapt to changing circumstances". Then, practically, is there a way to realize these goals concurrently in a language program?
In this chapter, related literature on second language curriculum, language activities, and specific approaches to a multi-purpose second or foreign language program will be reviewed, with the four general goals of a language course kept as background. The intention of the review is to argue, from the perspective of language socialization (Schieffelin & Ochs 1986), for the necessity and the naturalness of integrating language and content in a second language program, to demonstrate the feasibility of such an integration by introducing the Knowledge Framework (Mohan 1986) in theory and practice, and to reveal the need for the present research study.

2.1. Language, Content, and Second Language Curriculum

This part of the review takes the position of viewing language learning as language socialization (Schieffelin & Ochs 1986) in order to discuss the relation between content and language in second language education. It involves two themes. One concerns how content is dealt with in the existing second language curriculum. The other concerns the problems caused by a second language curriculum which lacks focus on content. The review and discussion aim at revealing how content has been neglected in most of the existing second language education programs and calling for a greater emphasis on content learning in second language curriculums.

Since "content" is an important concept in the review and the word itself entails many interpretations, for the sake of clarity, it is necessary to define the meaning of content first.

A definition of content.
A. How can I get a loan?
B. Why do you want the money?
A. To buy a car.
B. How much money do you need?
A. $2,000.00.
B. Please fill out this application.
A. When do I get the money?
B. In a week.
(Freeman 1982:101)

In this review, when "content" is used, it refers to the message content, either overt, explicit, or hidden, implicit, presented in texts (written or oral) or discourse. That is, content is understood as what is said, what is meant, and in what way what kind of reality is reflected by a discourse or text as social product in a cultural context. It is the message of the discourse as opposed to the language code in which the discourse is expressed. Thus, the content of the above dialogue can be interpreted from at least three perspectives: 1) What is said is about borrowing money from a bank to buy a car; 2) What is meant may be that one can get a loan by simply answering a few questions for a bank official and filling out an application; 3) As a (misleading) representation of how a loan is obtained in North America, an idealized, inauthentic reality of the world is reflected.

1 By distinguishing message and code, I by no means imply that messages and code can be separated in reality. I fully acknowledge that message and code are the two sides of communication and work hand in hand to serve the realization of the purpose of language, i.e. communication. Without either one of them communication can hardly exist. Thus, in discussion, the use of either term only implies an emphasis or focus on one side of language instead of a real separation. It is for the sake of convenience in discussion that a distinction between the two is drawn.

2 To avoid confusion, we must contrast the above sense of content with the typical use of the term "content" in second language curricula, where reference is made to curriculum content, either linguistic units such as words, structures, notions, functions as in lexical, grammatical, and notional functional syllabuses, or a series of tasks as in procedural (Prabhu 1987), process (Breen 1987), and task-based language teaching (Crookes & Long 1987a, 1987b, Long 1985, 1992, Long and Crookes 1987) curriculums.
The above interpretation of content shows that when message content is analyzed as both explicit (such as in interpretation 1 in the example) and implicit (such as in interpretation 2 and 3 in the example) messages conveyed by a text in a sociocultural context, language displays social, cultural, and even historical or political colors. It is interesting to note that though language as a sociocultural product is so closely related to message content, this relation is rarely reflected in the existing second language curricula.

2.1.1. An Examination of the Existing Second Language Curriculums

To examine the existing second language curricula, it is necessary to discuss different views of language and language learning in relation to second language curriculum design because a second language curriculum always has its roots in a view towards language and language learning. In addition, a discussion on views of language and language learning in relation to second language curriculum design may lead to a better understanding of the position I am taking in this review and the whole thesis, which is to view language learning as language socialization. Thus, in the following, existing curricula will be discussed in relation to views of language, language learning, and their relations to second language curriculum.

A second language curriculum has always been connected with an understanding of what language learning means. And what language learning means entails a discussion of the question of what language is. Figure 2.1.1. is a simple graphic showing different views of language, language learning, and their relations with second language curriculum design. The problem with this graphic is that it is a simplification which suggests clear-cut boundaries between various approaches to second language curriculum design while in reality the boundaries between many of them overlap or are fuzzy. Thus,
this graphic cannot be viewed as reflecting the reality of the existing approaches to language curriculum design but simply serves as a cognitive map. Maps help to orient oneself in a particular territory. "Yet they also have shortcomings. Since, by necessity, they must reduce objects, the objects lose their details" (Tesch 1990:59). But it is these details that help people tell the real differences between the objects concerned. Still, as long as we keep in mind that "boundaries overlap or are fuzzy, and their location on the map is, therefore, at best an approximation", "cognitive maps come in handy as intellectual tools wherever there are too many things to apprehend at once" (Tesch 1990:59). In the following, I will start my brief discussion from the top of Figure 2.1.1. from where related topics will follow.

Figure 2.1.1. Different Views of Language, Language Learning, and L2 Curriculum
In terms of views of language, two dominant influential linguistic paradigms are formalist/structuralist represented by Chomsky and functionalist represented by Halliday. We will take a look at the formalist paradigm first.

2.1.1.1. Within a Formalist Paradigm

Within the formalist paradigm, language is viewed as a system made up of only linguistic categories such as words, phrases, sentences, syntax, notions and functions, etc. and as a system "organized in terms of a set of principles (Slobin 1986) or rules (Chomsky 1986) constraining form-form and form-meaning relations. From the perspective of generative grammar, these principles or rules are seen as generating grammatical sentences in a language" (Ochs 1988:8). From a formalist viewpoint, thus, learning a language is a matter of acquiring the rule-governed linguistic system of that particular language. When this view of language learning is translated into a second language curriculum, what results is usually a curriculum which bases its organization of learning on the image of language as a linguistic system and aims at mastering a particular language in its own right. Linguistic forms or structures are the only items of concern and the issue of how to learn a language is the issue of how to treat or handle linguistic forms or structures. Within this view, people believe that language acquisition has to be evidenced by the acquisition of rules which govern the form of particular target language structures. Since form or structure is the only thing, there are only two ways to treat it, i.e. to deal with it (e.g. grammar translation method, Wilkins' functional/notional syllabus) or ignore it (e.g. Krashen's Natural Approach, Prabhu's Procedural Approach).

The approach dealing with forms/structures
A language-based approach to language teaching is the one that deals with linguistic forms or structures (e.g. grammar translation method, Wilkins' functional/notional syllabus), in the hope that the more emphasis laid on forms and structures, the better the students will learn the language. In this approach, second language learning is viewed as learning the linguistic system. Thus, teaching and learning units are based on linguistic units: lexical, structural, notional, and functional. This approach is labeled by Long (1992) as a synthetic approach because it "segment(s) the target language into discrete linguistic items for presentation one at a time" and "relies on learners' assumed ability to learn a language in parts (e.g., structures and functions) which are independent of one another, and also to integrate, or synthesize, the pieces when the time comes to use them for communicative purposes" (Long 1992:28). This approach is categorized by Breen (1987) as a propositional plan because of its strong reliance upon descriptive linguistics and, formal statement of what should be learned (Breen 1987b:85). In Nunan's (1988) survey of current second language curriculums, this approach is classified as product-oriented because of its focus on the learning product.

One representative of Approach 1 is the grammar-translation method, the teaching components of which are basically lexis and grammar points. The history of the method can be traced back to Plato. It falls right into the value system of classical Humanism (Skilbeck 1982) because it is knowledge-oriented and is "concerned with generalizable intellectual capacities and with the transmission of knowledge, culture, and standards from one generation to another" (Clark 1987:91). This method prevailed in almost all formal second language classrooms until very recently when classical humanism "with its socially divisive pattern of an intellectual schooling for the elite and a practical one for the masses is no longer acceptable" (Clark 1987:101). The grammar-translation method, though still popular in many second language classrooms, especially in foreign language teaching settings (See Breen 1987b for an analysis of the arguments in support of this
approach), has been strongly criticized for its lack of concern for practical skills, providing no opportunities for the students to communicate in the classroom in the course of their learning, and the failure to materialize the expected by-product -- a communicative ability -- of building up linguistic competence.

Another major representative of Approach 1 is the functional-notional syllabus which was born (together with audio-lingual approach, audio-visual/situation approach, topic-based approach, and Graded Objectives in Modern Languages Schemes in Britain) as a response and a critique to grammar translation method. This orientation in curriculum design is concerned with "bringing about a better understanding among social groups, through teaching them to communicate with each other effectively" (Clark 1987:22). First proposed by the Council of Europe team, the functional-notional syllabus derives from a reconstructionist (Skibeck 1982) ends-means (See Tyler 1949) approach to curriculum design, which "lays stress on the need for course designers to follow a series of interrelated steps, leading from an analysis of communicative needs, to a definition of syllabus content, to the creation of teaching/learning materials, to assessment and to evaluation" (Clark 1987:24). The approach is based on the conviction "that what people want to do through language is more important than mastery of the language as an unapplied system" (Wilkins 1976:42). Thus, it is the functions and notions of language, instead of the lexis and grammar, that become the center of the curriculum design. In this approach, curriculum design involves the selection and sequencing of language materials designed to provide the learner with a growing capacity to express meanings (See Wilkins 1976). The meanings to be covered and the forms associated with them were set out in terms of functions, general notions, and specific notions assembled under topic areas (See van Ek 1975).
Since coming into being in the 1970s, the functional approach has become very popular and favored by most of the language teachers, especially those in western countries. Despite the differences in actual teaching applications, most teachers would claim their approach as a functional one. Textbooks organized around functions/notions once prevailed in the market. Nevertheless, more and more people began to realize that a synthetic, propositional, product-oriented approach (Approach 1), either within the classical humanism system such as the grammar-translation method, or within the reconstructional system such as functional-notional syllabus, fails to reflect the way languages are learned and misrepresents the nature of language as communication by dividing language into discrete units of various types (Widdowson 1979), and a second approach (Approach 2) which is task-based (Long 1992), and process-oriented (Nunan 1988, Breen 1987) emerges.

The approach ignoring forms/structures

Approach 2, which has sprung mainly from psycholinguistic studies of language acquisition, sees language not as a purely linguistic system in isolation from the learning process. This approach is also labeled as progressivist because of its concentration on "creating the right environment for individual internal interlanguage development to proceed smoothly," "less stress on syllabus definition," "more emphasis on the need for a set of methodological principles of procedure," and "concern for individual differences among learners and for developing strategies to respond to them and to promote each learner's sense of involvement and responsibility in his/her own learning" (Clark 1987:55). Adherents believe that language learning cannot take place without a consideration of who learns the language, what is the nature of language as communication, and how language is to be learned. Unlike Approach 1 which is "external to the learner, other-directed, determined by authority, sets the teacher as
decision maker, ... and assesses success and failure in terms of achievement or mastery" (Long 1992:29), Approach 2, Long (1992) claims, "involv[es] no artificial preselection or arrangement of items and allow[s] objectives to be determined by a process of negotiation between teacher and learners" and is thus "internal to the learner, negotiated between learners and teacher as joint decision makers, emphasize[s] the process of learning rather than the subject matter, and assess[es] accomplishment in relationship to learners' criteria for success" (Long 1992:29). Approach 2 is claimed to hold promise because the advocates of the approach believe that when the task-based curriculum "is combined with a focus on form [of language] in task-based language teaching, the task receives more support in second language acquisition research as a viable unit around which to organize language teaching and learning opportunities" (Long 1992:27).

Available literature reveals that concrete proposals or practices in Approach 2 include proposals for a pre-production phase represented by Asher's (1969) Total Physical Response and Krashen's (1981) Natural Approach; "the 'fringe' methodologies such as Silent Way, Community Language Learning, and Suggestopedia" (Nunan 1988b: 19); procedural syllabus proposed and put into practice in the Bangalore Project by Prabhu (1987); Breen and Candlin's deep-end approach, and content-based approach represented by French immersion program in Canada (See Swain 1974, 1978). What is in common in all these proposals or practices, except for Breen and Candlin's deep-end approach, is that linguistic forms or structures are no longer the center around which a curriculum is designed. Forms and structures are generally not dealt with in the process of learning. In this psycholinguistically based approach, people believe that by engaging in tasks/activities or content learning, language acquisition will automatically occur. It is true that a content-based approach is very different from the rest in that it intends to include both content learning and language learning as its ultimate learning goals, while others see language learning as the only goal of a second language curriculum. But in
terms of learning a second language, many of them see language as purely forms and structures. Out of the concern for the weakness attached to Approach 1 which focuses on forms or structures, Approach 2 simply adopts an opposite position, i.e. to neglect forms or structures. Thus, it is this total neglect of forms or structures that groups all the above proposals or practices together.

The neglect of content within the formalist paradigm

On the surface, the two approaches (Approach 1 and 2 under formalist paradigm) to second language curriculum design are very different. But they are only different in terms of their choice of teaching and learning units: the product, i.e., the linguistic system, or the process, i.e., a series of tasks (activities) that might lead to the learning of the target language. In terms of the goal of a second language program, both of them share the same feature of viewing language learning as only the learning of a linguistic system. Neither of them (except a content-based approach) give appropriate emphasis to content. Both neglect the "message" of discourse and give priority to the language code in which the discourse is expressed. It is this view of language learning that we should be concerned about because it neglects language as a sociocultural product, and it gives priority to language learning (whether 1st or 2nd language learning, in or outside the classrooms) but pays no attention to learning about the society, the culture, the world in which a language is used. And this learning about society, culture, the world is content learning. But before I go into a discussion regarding this concern, I would like to examine how those existing second language curriculums neglect the learning of content so as to reveal the need for such a concern.

Approach 1 clearly views second language learning as the learning of a linguistic system because the focus of this approach is directly and exclusively on linguistic units.
Though the notional-functional curriculum takes into consideration the communicative purpose of language learning (and thus distinguishes itself from lexical, grammatical curriculums the emphasis of which is on words and structures), "notions and functions are clearly linguistic units, however, isolation of which in practice always results in a synthetic curriculum, such that exercises practicing requests or apologies replace exercises on relative clauses or the present perfect" (Long 1992:27).

Approach 2 is represented by the procedural curriculum (Prabhu 1980, 1984, 1987), the process curriculum (Breen 1984, 1987, Candlin 1987), the natural approach (Krashen & Terrell 1983), and the task-based language teaching (Long 1985, Long & Crookes 1987). Although all of these emphasize the process of learning, their essential concern is the learning of a linguistic system. Prabhu in his second language pedagogy states this view very clearly:

"I do not ... think it is legitimate to expect instruction in a second language to mirror, in the meaning-content that it employs, balance of content in education as a whole. The aim of second language teaching, as conceived of on the [Bangalore] project, was to develop in learners a grammatical competence in the language, and the procedure thought to be most likely to achieve this was a preoccupation with certain forms of meaning-content.... It is perhaps more reasonable, to expect courses in the mother tongue, in which the aim is not the development of grammatical competence as such, to consider the needs of learners' growth as individuals in the meaning-content they employ. (emphasis added)

(Prabhu 1987:52-53)

In Prabhu's view of second language teaching, meaning-content, i.e., the message of the discourse, plays a role only in developing students' grammatical competency. The tasks and activities in the syllabus "are not things in themselves to teach children. Instead they
are a weapon to teach English" (Prabhu 1980b). What message is conveyed to the students regarding their growth as individuals is not the concern of second language teaching. This implies that procedural curriculum sees second language teaching as asocial, apolitical and assumes that second language teaching can be conducted in isolation from education as a whole. Is it possible, in both theory and practice, to isolate language learning from the whole educational activity? If Prabhu regards second language teaching as second language education, can he hold the view that the learning of a language can be separated from the growth of a person?

Similar to procedural curriculum, the natural approach (Krashen 1982) emphasizes the development of a linguistic competence and assumes that learning takes place in a social vacuum, and that social aspects of the learning environment are irrelevant to what and how learners learn. In addition, as Mohan (1989) points out, Krashen's natural approach "is essentially a theory of how the sentence-level grammar of the second language is acquired". Krashen believes that the major causative variable in second language acquisition is comprehensible input in the second language, input that contains grammatical structure slightly beyond the learner's competence (Mohan 1989:100).

Process syllabus (e.g., Breen 1984, Candlin 1987), based on an educational and philosophical rationale which believes that the value of the target language learning should be taken into consideration in the general educational development of the learner (Candlin 1987:16-17), also perceives the goal of a second language program as learning a language. Though the focus of the curriculum design is on tasks, the task, as Breen states, is "assumed to refer to a range of workplans which have the overall purpose of facilitating language learning" (Breen 1987:23).
As for task-based language teaching (e.g., Long, Crookes), though the focus, like all other process-oriented curriculums, is on the process, the motivation of this focus is the belief that "tasks provide a vehicle for the presentation of appropriate target language samples to learners" (Long 1992:43). Again, the goal of second language education is seen as learning a language system or code.

From the above examination, it can be seen that most of the existing second language curricula in a formalist paradigm view second language education as learning a language as a linguistic system. Regardless of orientation, underlying components are limited to (a) a linguistic dimension which is meant to justify what aspects of language will be taught, (b) a psycholinguistic dimension which includes an account of the process underlying learning, and (c) a teaching dimension which relates to learning experience activities and tasks and to the role of teachers, learners and materials in the learning system (see Richards 1984). While Approach 1 bases its design on a formal linguistic analysis, Approach 2 more on a psycholinguistic theory, i.e., a second language acquisition theory. What is neglected by both approaches is the sociocultural aspect of language learning. But to take into consideration the sociocultural aspect of language learning, we need a functional view of language.

2.1.1.2. Within a Functionalist Paradigm

From the functionalist viewpoint, all language occurs in social context. "Language is a resource for making meaning, not a set of rules or psychological properties" (Martin, in press). Vocal and verbal activities are generally socially organized and embedded in cultural systems of meaning (Bauman & Sherzer 1974, Gumperz & Hymes 1972). Language learning is closely related to learning about the world or learning through language (Halliday & Hasan 1985). Thus, it is important to
look into the relationship between language learning and learning through language. The relation between learning and language learning is best illustrated by the concept of "language socialization", defined as "socialization through the use of language and socialization to use language" (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986:163).

Language socialization refers to a sociocultural framework for language acquisition which has its roots in linguistics, psychology, sociology and anthropology. In terms of linguistics, it draws upon the view of socio- and functional linguistics which sees language as inseparable from sociocultural context (Sapir 1921; Bourdieu 1977; Garfinkel 1967; Giddens 1979, 1984; Halliday & Hasan 1985; Hymes 1974; Leontyev 1981; Gumperz 1982; Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks 1977). Studies in sociology and anthropology have provided an abundance of empirical evidence to support the idea of the interdependence between language and sociocultural context. From various social and anthropological studies in different societies with different cultures (e.g. Briggs 1986; Demuth 1986; Eisenberg 1982; Heath 1983; Miller 1986; Ochs 1988; Schieffelin 1979; Schieffelin & Ochs 1986a, 1986b; Sachs 1977; Snow & Ferguson 1977; etc.), people have realized how acquisition of linguistic knowledge and acquisition of sociocultural knowledge or learning about the world are interdependent. From this viewpoint, second language learning involves language socialization through the second language and simultaneously learning language and content (i.e., learning about the world). If the "socializing function of input language is primarily linked to the message content of utterances" addressed to people (Schieffelin & Ochs 1986:164), then the message content of discourse sent to the learners plays an important role in second language learning. Thus, a second language curriculum from the view of language socialization should include an emphasis on both language development and content learning.
But what really makes language socialization as a model of language learning take a step further is the concept of activities. Studies on acquisition of knowledge (See Piaget 1952; Vygotsky 1962, 1978; Bourdieu 1977; and Giddens 1979, 1984) have provided evidence to support the view that "knowledge and praxis create each other" (Ochs 1988:15). From the studies on children's cognitive development in different societies and cultures (Vygotsky 1962, 1978; Bourdieu 1977; and Giddens 1979, 1984; Scribner & Cole 1981), it has been found that "higher intellectual skills of individuals develop in part through participation in socially and culturally organized activities" and "socially and culturally organized language practices in activity settings" have great impact on the children's cognitive development (Ochs 1988:15). Thus, language socialization as a model of language learning incorporates linguistic knowledge, sociocultural knowledge and activity. The relationship between the three is illustrated by Ochs (1988) as follows (Figure 2.1.1.2.):

Linguistic knowledge $\leftrightarrow$ Activity $\leftrightarrow$ Sociocultural knowledge

Figure 2.1.1.2. Activity Model by Ochs

This illustration shows that "sociocultural and linguistic knowledge structures activity, and activity creates ... and recreates ... knowledge in both of these domains" (Ochs 1988:16). Since linguistic knowledge refers to language and sociocultural knowledge includes world knowledge which can be understood as content, the above illustration implies:

Language $\leftrightarrow$ Activity $\leftrightarrow$ Content

From this illustration, it is clear that all three concepts are interdependent and activity plays an important role as the linkage between language and content.
Thus, from the perspective of language socialization, what is required in terms of a second language curriculum is the one that can incorporate language, content, and activity. Among the attempts to do so, Mohan's Knowledge Framework (KF) (Mohan 1986) is one of the few that systematically incorporates language development and content learning through intentionally organized activities. The KF approach is L2 as a medium of learning approach. What makes it different from other approaches of this kind such as French Immersion is that it attempts to address both language learning and content learning. The KF is a framework which helps organize classroom language activities and tasks in a particular context (a sociocultural setting defined in a very broad sense to include both social situations and academic fields) to systematically integrate the learning of language (constituted by grammar, functions, etc.) and the learning of content (topics or subject matter). Studies on the application of the KF in actual teaching situations have provided evidence to show its success in facilitating both the students' language development and their content learning (Early 1989a, 1989b, 1990, Mohan 1989, Early et al. 1989; Henry 1989; Oszust 1989, Tang 1989).

Some people might put a content-based approach towards language learning, such as French immersion programs in Canada, into the framework of language socialization because of its focus on content learning. It is true that French Immersion takes the approach of L2 as a medium of learning, but as Swain (Swain 1988) found out, through her studies of Canada's French immersion programs, in a content-based program, forms of language and form-function relations are very often neglected for the sake of content learning. As a result, "despite the high levels of fluency attained, there is nevertheless a tendency for the interlanguage of learners to fossilize and cease to develop" (Clark 1987:89). Besides, activity does not play a role in organizing a curriculum in most of the content-based approaches. It is always the content that is the focus and rules the organization of the curriculum while form is neglected. Thus, the essence of language
socialization, which is the integration of language learning and content learning through socioculturally organized activities, is not really reflected in the program.

Breen and Candlin's deep-end approach (Breen & Candlin 1980) does, in theory, promote the idea of getting learners involved in "learning language, learning through language, and learning about language" (Halliday 1987). But as analyzed earlier (See Section 2.1.1.1.), the ultimate purpose of learning is only a language instead of both language and knowledge of the world. From the perspective of language socialization, language learning can hardly take place without learning about the world. Though the deep-end approach is process oriented, and focuses on activity, activities designed around topical themes serve only as the carrier of language input and output instead of systematically integrating language learning and content learning. In other words, activities in the deep-end approach are not intended to be organized to provide a systematic relationship between language and content or form and function.

The functional-notional approach seems related to the idea of language socialization because it has its roots in functional linguistics and has, in theory, an emphasis on form-function relations in the design of curricula. But sociocultural context is not of a concern in the design of curricula. As examined earlier (See Section 2.1.1.1.), the core of its organization is a list of functions or notions, which lays, in reality, an emphasis on the mastery of certain kinds of structures of language. Activity as the linkage between language and content and socializing in the sense of learning about the world is not seriously taken into consideration.

2.1.1.3. Summary
In sum, all the available proposals or practices in second language curriculum have their roots in the views of language. Different views of language provide bases for different views of language learning. Within a formalist linguistic paradigm, language is treated as a linguistic system with rule-governed structures. Language learning is viewed as the mastery of this system. A formalist consideration results in a product-oriented curriculum dealing with the form or structure of language. A psycholinguistically based consideration results in a process-oriented curriculum that takes into consideration only the process of learning and neglects the forms or structures. What is in common in both product and process oriented curricula is the tendency to limit their ultimate goal to only the mastery of a particular language system. From the perspective of functional linguistics, language learning is viewed as language socialization which incorporates both language learning and content learning (labeled as socializing in the sense of learning about the world). Learning language, learning through language, and learning about language take place simultaneously through socioculturally organized activities. Thus, to view language learning as language socialization leads to the need for a curriculum that 1) incorporates both content learning (interpreted as both academic and cultural) and language learning as its ultimate goals; 2) is both product-oriented to emphasize the relation between language and content and process-oriented to signal the important role of activity in the process of achieving the goals.

In the following, I will limit my discussion, from the perspective of language socialization, to the curricula that lack a focus on content learning. As noted above, among the existing proposals and practices of second language curriculum, few (except for the L2 as a medium of learning approach) take content learning as one of the goals of second language education. Few of them deal with content in relation to the message a verbal task might send. Based on the concept of language socialization, from the perspective of seeing second language teaching as an educational activity like all other
educational activities, I would argue that a second language curriculum which lacks a focus on content is problematic in terms of 1) overlooking the process of language socialization and hence isolating language learning from sociocultural context; 2) hindering the realization of the educational goals of bilingual and multicultural programs, one of which is the establishment of "a tolerance of personal cultural viewpoints that differ from one's own" (Abbott 1987:48).

2.1.2. Problems Regarding the Neglect of Content in Second Language Curricula.

At this point, it is important to point out that in this thesis "socialization" is used in a very broad sense. Social is defined in its broad sense to mean "involving humans" (Veel in press). Thus, socialization includes engaging in not only a society with a particular culture, but also in a particular field or discipline. We will take science as an example. Science is a distinct way of knowing and behaving, having developed over a relatively short period of time and in particular social contexts. Today there are people we recognize and call scientists and activities and technology we recognize and call scientific. We are able to recognize and name Science because it is different from other ways of knowing and behaving. The culture, broadly defined as "shared meaning" by a group of people (Geertz 1973), in the field of science is distinct from that of others (See Veel in press). Thus, we can argue that to engage in the field of science is to engage in sociocultural activities in a particular context. In the same line, content, which was broadly defined at the beginning of the thesis as the message of the discourse as opposed to the language code in which the discourse is expressed, refers to both academic content and cultural theme. To keep in mind how all these terms are broadly defined, I will now turn to discuss the problems entailed by second language curricula lacking a focus on content.
A second language curriculum that only focuses on linguistic development tends to overlook the process of language socialization and hence isolates language learning from sociocultural context. In his procedural approach to curriculum design, Prabhu reduced second language learning to the development of grammatical competency. Thus, when activities or tasks are designed, issues about social circumstances, that is, in what cultural context a discourse is produced and how the meaning of interactions is made or interpreted, become moot. Though the students are expected to engage in tasks using the target language, the sociocultural aspect of the task does not receive any attention. Nevertheless, as Schieffelin and Ochs point out:

"The process of acquiring language is deeply affected by the process of becoming a competent member of society. The process of becoming a competent member of society is realized to a large extent through language, by acquiring knowledge of its functions, social distribution, and interpretations in and across socially defined situations."

(Schieffelin & Ochs 1986:168)

Knowledge of language functions, social distribution, and interpretation in and across socially defined situations can only be distributed through the message content conveyed by verbal activities. From this perspective, if a second language curriculum ignores content, or if message content is not carefully addressed or is ignored, as in Prabhu's approach, it is hard to see how such a curriculum can enable students to learn the language and become competent members of society.

A personal anecdote related to me by a language teacher shows the importance of viewing language learning as language socialization. It is a story about a child who is from a background where it is appropriate for a child to jump into a conversation between two adults and talk with them as an equal member. At school one day the child jumped into a conversation between two teachers, which shocked the teachers who believed that
the child's behavior was very rude and impolite. Later, the child gradually realized that the behavior perceived as appropriate at home is not necessarily perceived as appropriate in school and this realization, reached both implicitly by experiencing the awkwardness that accompanied his action and explicitly by being told not to do so, comes with his actual participation in verbal activity which involves interpretations in and across socially defined situations. The story shows that language learning not only involves learning about a grammatical system, i.e. how language works by itself, but also involves acquiring knowledge of language functions, social distributions, etc. This learning takes place in the context of, and with negotiation for, the rules of a culture.

Language socialization also means that "language learning is not seen in isolation" (Mohan 1989:99). Language learning is integrated with learning about the world, or put another way, language learning is integrated with content learning. My personal experience has reinforced in me a deep concern about the neglect of content in second language curricula. I was concerned when I saw a grade 6 ESL boy who was asked by his ESL teacher to study a paragraph about seeds-plants relationship from a little book written for much younger children; I was even more concerned when I was told that the boy had learned all and more than the content of this paragraph long before he came to Canada. If language learning is a concept so closely related to negotiation, meaning making, and learning about the world, then the boy's study of that paragraph becomes senseless: the whole language learning activity is reduced to a single job of memorizing words and structures in a new language. The very reason for all this is that the curriculum of this ESL program cares only about the students' language development in terms of a linguistic system without being concerning simultaneously with the students' cognitive development which in real life is so much integrated in language learning.

What is worth noticing is that the curriculum of this program claims to use a whole language approach because the words and structures are believed to be presented, taught
and learned not in isolation but in meaningful texts. Indeed, the text by itself does contain meaningful content. But the content is used only to present a linguistic system, i.e., the words, the structures, and the grammar. When such a text is engaged by the student, since the content represents no meaningful goal, he is learning the language in its narrowest sense, as a linguistic system instead of negotiating, socializing, learning about the world. Thus, language learning is isolated from, instead of being integrated with, content learning. Nevertheless, from the perspective of language socialization, language learning and content learning are interdependent.

The second question to be raised regarding the neglect of content in second language curriculum is related to the realization of the educational goals of bilingual and multicultural programs. It might be agreed that the goals of bilingual and multicultural education include an establishment of successful cross-cultural communication skills, an awareness of one's own culture and an ability to understand and appreciate the cultures of others which provides a basis for an enriched personal and cultural viewpoint, and a consciousness of becoming a qualified global citizen (Ovando 1990). To realize these goals, second language education has to embrace both language teaching and culture teaching. As we now realize, "language and culture are not separable" (Brooks 1960:80). The "learning of any new language implies the learning of a new culture as well" (Conle 1992:173). However, the close relationship between language and culture does not imply that a culture can be automatically learned or a cultural message can be correctly sent through a program dealing with only the linguistic system. In fact, the neglect of dealing with culture—content—can easily lead to a distorted image of a culture and an unworkable mastery of a language system.

But how can culture be appropriately dealt with in a second language curriculum? In some second language programs, culture learning is reduced to "fun, food and
fellowship" (Arora & Duncan 1986:2). In some other programs, culture is viewed as where and when to say what. To my knowledge, few second language curricula explicitly use cultural theme as the organizer. In other words, culture has seldom been systematically dealt with as one of the goals in a second language curriculum. In the Chinese as a foreign language curriculum guide (Mandarin Chinese Curriculum Guide 1-4), though it is stated, throughout the guide, that one of the objectives is culture, there is nothing mentioned about Chinese culture. What the guide does emphasize is a series of words and structures related to functions and notions. It leaves it to the teacher to figure out what to teach in terms of culture. Since many teachers of the language are not native speakers of Chinese and have only limited or zero knowledge about the culture, the result is often the negation of culture teaching and learning. Students keep using ni ("you" in casual form) instead of nin ("you" in polite form) to address older people, which is considered very impolite in Chinese culture. One might argue that to be able to say ni is better than nothing. After all, we only have so much time for a second language program. I would argue since language is learned and used in order to learn about the world and to socialize, the use of language has to be put in a social, cultural context. If a person spoke with a perfect use of words and grammar, but unintentionally in a manner considered rude and impolite, he would not be credited with appropriate sociolinguistic knowledge. When we design a curriculum, we cannot forget about the nature, the function of a language. It is the socializing nature of the language that determines that culture (content) be dealt with, and with great care.

The neglect of dealing with content as cultural theme often results in a program which neglects the cultural aspect of language learning. However, the hidden curriculum keeps sending messages which result in a distorted image of the target culture. For instance, in Chinese culture, when one says "I like your sweater", it quite possibly means "I would like to have your sweater". This cannot be explained as the Chinese word "like"
has two meanings as "like" and "like to have". It has its root in the Chinese culture which values indirect ways of expressing personal wishes or opinions as a virtue. If this cultural message is not taught either implicitly or explicitly, the students would assume that in Chinese culture "like" is used the same way as it is in English culture. The result is illustrated by a story of a Chinese woman who considered an English person very greedy after being told many times how much she liked her sweater, her skirt, her scarf, etc. 

Culture exists no matter whether you want to deal with it or not. As Arora and Duncan (1986) point out in their book *Multicultural Education*, cultural education takes place through the curriculum, planned or hidden. The neglect of it can be very likely to lead to an unfaithful image of the culture which results in the failure of language socialization.

It is important to put content as cultural theme in the bigger picture of bilingual and multicultural education, from the viewpoint of the majority of students learning a second language. If the second culture is not openly dealt with, talked about, and thought about, an awareness of one's own culture and an appreciation of others' cultures cannot be realized. One cannot tell the characteristics of one kind of fruit without studying the characteristics of other fruits. From the viewpoint of minority students, learning a second language, isolating culture from language teaching and learning can lead to failure to use their second language appropriately. To benefit both majority students and minority students in a second language program, content as cultural theme has to be seriously dealt with in the curriculum.

It is true that some programs in educational settings deal with or teach about culture systematically, such as the social studies textbook *Exploring our World* (Neering *et al.* 1986). But usually these programs are designed for cultural studies and can be of little help to language learning. In most of the existing second language curricula, few deal with the target culture explicitly and systematically. But studies in sociolinguistics
and anthropology (e.g. Schieffelin 1986, 1989; Scollon and Scollon 1981; Watson-Gegeo 1990; Ochs 1982, 1986, 1988; Brown 1980; Gumperz 1982; Mehan 1979; Poole 1990; Schieffelin and Ochs 1986; Heath 1982, 1983; etc.) have led to an understanding of the importance of assigning a far more significant role to culture and its interrelatedness with language. These studies have provided "a significant body of convincing evidence that emphasizes the role of culture in organizing the kinds of interactional sequences that might affect classroom interaction and thus be relevant to language teaching" (Poole 1990b: 50). Thus, there is a need for a second language curriculum that can systematically integrate language learning and cultural learning, culture as content has to play a key role in organization.

But what is the key to develop such a second language curriculum?

2.2. Language Activities to Serve as Context for Content Learning and Language Development

-- A sociocultural view of second language classroom activities

Activity is a central concept to education. Education initiates people into activities. The same is true for language or second language education. Language education initiates the learner into language activities.

But while the idea that language activity is central to language education may be agreed upon by today's language educators, people with different views of language learning have different concepts of activities. Language activities viewed from different viewpoints entail different functions and thus serve different purposes in a language program. In other words, different views of language activities have their roots in their
different views of language learning and thus serve different purposes defined within their particular views of language learning.

Taking the position of viewing language learning as language socialization (Schieffelin & Ochs 1986) to discuss the functions entailed by language activities in second language classrooms, this part of the literature review will first briefly review different views of language activities so as to provide a basis for a more detailed discussion of a sociocultural view of language activities. Next, a sociocultural view of activities will be introduced through an examination of some influential studies in psychology, anthropology, and sociology, which are often cross-cultural studies. The discussion on sociocultural views of activities will form the basis for the last part of the review, which is to argue, from the perspective of language socialization, for a framework (i.e., the Knowledge Framework by Mohan (1986)) that can enable socioculturally organized activities in second language classrooms to promote both content learning and language development in second language programs.

A Definition of Language Activity

To discuss activities, we need first of all to define what activity means. In his discussion on a task-based syllabus, Crookes (1986) defines task as "a piece of work or an activity, usually with a specified objective, undertaken as part of an educational course, or at work" (Crokes 1986:1). In this review, I will borrow Crookes definition of task to refer to classroom activities. Thus, a classroom activity is a piece of work with specified objectives undertaken as part of an educational course. To apply this definition in settings of language teaching and learning, a language activity means a piece of work accompanied by use of language with specified objectives undertaken as part of a language course. In the following, the discussion of language activities will be based on this definition.
2.2.1. Different Views of Language Activities

Classroom language activities have always been an important part of the implementation of a certain language curriculum. Since a language curriculum is closely related to how language learning is viewed, classroom language activities designed or conducted to implement a particular curriculum inevitably bear the imprint of a particular view of language learning which is rooted in a certain linguistic paradigm (See Figure 2.2.1).
As I have discussed earlier, in the field of language education, two dominant influential linguistic paradigms are the formalist/structuralist represented by Chomsky and functionalist represented by Halliday. Within the formalist paradigm, language learning is viewed as L2 acquisition. Within this view, there are two different approaches to curriculum design. One is the structural linguistically based, product-oriented approach (e.g. grammar translation method, Wilkins' functional/notional syllabus). The other one is the psycholinguistically based, process-oriented approach (See Prabhu's 1987; Breen 1987; Crookes & Long 1987a, 1987b; Long 1985, 1992; Long and Crookes 1990).
In contrast to the formalist paradigm is a functionalist paradigm in which language learning is viewed as language socialization, i.e. to socialize through the use of language and socialize in order to use language (See Scheffelin & Ochs 1986). Thus, language learning involves both language acquisition and learning about the world, or content learning. A curriculum with such a view intends to include both content learning and language learning as its objectives. Very often, this view results in a curriculum that treats the target language as a medium of learning.

Within different approaches to second language curricula, activities are viewed differently and according to the need to perform different functions. Within a structural linguistically-based, product-oriented approach, language is viewed as a system made up of linguistic categories and learning a language is a matter of acquiring the rule-governed linguistic system of that particular language. To reach the goal of mastering forms or structures, teaching and learning units are based on linguistic units such as lexis, structures, notions and functions. Language activities are viewed as "carriers, or classroom practice devices, for traditional syllabus items " and pedagogic activities designed or conducted are those that are "either likely or guaranteed to elicit particular structures" (Long 1992: 30).

These kinds of language activities are favored not only by the grammar-translation method and the once-upon-a-time very popular army method or oral-lingual method, but also by a curriculum that is based on topic and situation. As Long observes, language activities within such a curriculum attempt to "disguise the underlying focus on isolated linguistic forms by avoiding overt drills in the teaching materials that embody the syllabus and instead, while ostensibly dealing with a topic, situation, or most recently task, seed dialogues and texts with the linguistic item of the day" (Long 1992:30). Major problems of such activities are situated in their static, target language, product
orientation. In his critique of a synthetic, product oriented syllabus, Long (1992) very clearly summarizes its problems as follows:

"In sum, whatever the unit of analysis—structure, notion, function, word, topic, or situation—synthetic syllabuses suffer from some generic problems, most obviously their static, target language, product orientation. Syllabus content is ultimately based on an analysis of the language to be learned, whether this be overt, as in the case of word, structure, notion, and function, or covert, as with situation and topic. Further, the analysis is conducted on an idealized native-speaker version of that language. SLA research offers no evidence to suggest that native like exemplars of any of these synthetic units are meaningful acquisition units, that they are (or even can be) acquired separately, singly, in linear fashion, or that they can be learned prior to and separate from language use." (Long 1992:33-34)

This criticism against a synthetic, product oriented syllabus can be appropriately used to criticize the view of activities serving this kind of curriculum.

As a response to the problems of a synthetic, product oriented syllabus, based upon "overwhelming evidence" provided by SLA research, in an attempt not to leave the learner out of the equation, the process oriented curriculum has come into being. A powerful argument in support of a process-oriented curriculum is that "language learning is a psycholinguistic process, not a linguistic one" (Long 1992:34). Representatives of this approach include Krashen's Natural Approach (Krashen 1985; Krashen & Terrell 1983), Prabhu's Procedural syllabuses (Prabhu 1980, 1984, 1987), Breen and Candlin's Process syllabuses (Breen 1984, 1987; Breen & Candlin 1980; Candlin 1984, 1987; Candlin & Murphy 1987), and Long and Crookes' Task-Basked Language Teaching (Crookes, 1986; Crookes and Long 1987a, 1987b; Long 1985, 1989, in press; Long & Crookes 1987, in press). In spite of many detailed differences among them in terms of both curriculum design and the conducting of activities, they share a similar view of
language activities, i.e. language activities are solely to provide opportunities to use the
target language.

While Krashen's theory of comprehensible input (Krashen 1982) helps us to
realize the importance of the process of language learning, his idea of classroom activities
is basically limited to providing students with plenty of opportunity to develop their
comprehension abilities. Activity mainly functions as a carrier of comprehensible input
which is regarded as sufficient condition for language development.

While denying the sufficiency of comprehensible input, Prabhu claims with
Krashen that language form is acquired subconsciously through "the operation of some
internal system of abstract rules and principles" (Prabhu 1987:70) when the learner's
attention is focused on meaning, i.e., task-completion, not language' (Long 1992:35). It is
based on this belief that Prabhu has developed his procedural syllabus. In his procedural
syllabus, an activity involves two steps, i.e., "pre-task" and "task proper". The first step is
to present and demonstrate the task "to let the language relevant\(^3\) to it come into play"
(Prabhu 1984:276). The second step is to let the student work on a task, focus them on
meaning and, as part of that process, engage them in confronting the task's linguistic
demands (Prabhu 1987).

Process Syllabus adherents claim that the focus "is the learner and learning
processes and preferences, not the language or language learning processes" (Long
1992:38). However, activity "is assumed to refer to a range of workplans which have the
overall purpose of facilitating language learning--from the simple and brief exercise
type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem solving or

\(^3\) All emphasis added.
simulations and decision-making" (Breen 1987:23). This definition of, or function served by, an activity actually focuses the syllabus on solely language acquisition.

In task-based language teaching, language acquisition is again the purpose of a language program. Activities are designed and conducted to "provide a vehicle for the presentation of appropriate target language samples to learners--input which they will inevitably reshape via application of general cognitive processing capacities--and for the delivery of comprehension and production opportunities of negotiable difficulty....

The strengthening of the subset of those that are not stabilized by negative input, their increased accessibility and incorporation in more complex associations within long-term memory, adds to the complexity of the grammar and constitutes SL development" (Long 1992:43).

From the above examination, it is not difficult to see that all the mentioned process-oriented approaches towards a language program view classroom language activities as tasks to provide opportunities to use the language, either in terms of listening comprehension as in Krashen's Natural Approach, or in terms of language production as in other approaches. Though this psycholinguistic view of language activities is different from the purely linguistic view of a product-oriented approach towards language learning which asserts that the purpose of activity is to elicit particular linguistic forms or structures, they share the same view towards language learning, that is, language learning is purely language acquisition. Thus, language activities in both approaches are viewed as facilitators for language acquisition.

Different from the above is a sociocultural view of language activities. This view has its root in functional linguistics and is associated with the concept of language socialization as language learning. Within this view, language activities are to serve as a
context for content learning and language development, instead of as mere facilitators for language acquisition. To have a better understanding of this sociocultural view of language activities, we have to first examine how activities are viewed from a sociocultural perspective.

2.2.2. A Sociocultural View of Activities

In her book *Culture and Language Development*, Ochs (Ochs 1988) devotes a whole section entitled as *To know a language* to the discussion of language learning from a sociocultural perspective. The following discussion is basically within the framework outlined by Ochs in her book, but also with the support of literature from other sources.

To understand language acquisition from a sociocultural perspective, one needs to understand "how sociocultural knowledge, linguistic knowledge, and the processes of socialization and language acquisition impact each other" (Ochs 1988:4-5). In Ochs' sociocultural framework, socialization is a concept that "implies notions of society and culture" and language is a concept that has "forms of organization beyond the sentence", which is discourse. Discourse refers "to a set of norms, preferences, and expectations relating linguistic structures to context, which speaker-hearers draw on and modify in producing and interpreting language in context". The understanding of discourse construction, which is part of every native speaker-hearer's competence, "involves tacit knowledge of norms, preferences, and expectations surrounding linguistic form-form, form-meaning, and form-function relations... Knowledge of form-meaning and form-function relations includes knowing how forms index contextual information, such as speaker and/or situation goals, social identities and relationships, affective and epistemic..."
stances" (Ochs 1988:8). Thus, learning a language involves not only linguistic forms but also sociocultural knowledge, or knowledge about the world. In other words, "acquisition of linguistic knowledge and acquisition of sociocultural knowledge are interdependent" (Ochs 1988:14). But the interdependency of linguistic and sociocultural knowledge does not exist in the abstract. As illustrated by the model (Figure 2.1.1.2.) proposed by Ochs, human "activity mediates linguistic and sociocultural knowledge and knowledge and activity impact one another" (Ochs 1988:15). This model has its basis in both psychology and sociology (See Figure 2.2.2.b. for contribution from different fields to a sociocultural view of activities). We will consider the issue within psychology first.
Activity Viewed from a Sociocultural Perspective

Sociohistorical approach of Vygotsky:
Leont'ev's concept of Activity

supported by

1. studies in educational fields
2. Kulah's study on Kpelle children's learning of proverbs in Liberia
3. Childs' and Greenfield's description of learning to weave in south-central Mexico
4. Lave's study of tailoring in Liberia

Figure 2.2.2.b. Contributions to a Sociocultural View of Activities
Within a psychological approach, Piaget's (Piaget 1952) notion of assimilation and accommodation leads us to see that knowledge structures activity and activity structures knowledge. What is not emphasized in Piagetian theory is the role of society and culture in intellectual development (see Vygotsky 1962; Wertsch 1985a, b).

Within Vygotsky's sociocultural/sociohistorical theory of psychological process (Vygotsky 1962, 1978), Leont'ev centralizes activity in a cultural theory of cognition:

human psychology is concerned with the activity of concrete individuals, which takes place either in a collective--i.e., jointly with other people-or in a situation in which the subject deals directly with the surrounding world of objects--i.e., at the potter's wheel or the writer's desk. ... if we removed human activity from the system of social relationships and social life, it would not exist.... the human individual's activity is a system in the system of social relations. It does not exist without these relations. (Leont'ev 1981:46-47)

Leont'ev's idea of activity does not stand alone. Research carried out in social science and cognitive/developmental psychology "strongly supports the basic proposals put forth by sociocultural theorists and that illustrates the usefulness of their conceptual framework" (Cole 1985: 152). As Cole observes, in the search for basic units of analysis for the systematic study of traditional cultures, Nadel has arrived at a formulation quite similar to Leont'ev's notion of activity:

Society and culture are broken down, not to, say, individuals, nor to the "works of man" (Kroeber), but to man-acting. In this sense no legitimate isolate can be discovered other than that of a standardized pattern of behavior rendered unitary and relatively self-contained by its task-like nature and its direction upon a single aim. (Nadel 1951:75)
In his study of the Tallensi of northern Ghana, Fortes (Fortes 1970) also chose a unit of analysis that included both individuals and society:

... the social space is the society in its ecological setting seen from the individual's point of view. The individual creates his social space and is in turn formed by it. On the one hand, his range of experiences and behavior are controlled by his social space, and on the other, everything he learns causes it to expand and become more differentiated. In the lifetime of the individual it changes pari passu with his psycho-physical and social development .... In the evolution of an individual's social space we have a measure of his educational development. (Fortes 1970:27-28)

Thus, while "Nadel provides a basic unit of activity that is both individual and social...Fortes adds the notions that (1) the nature of activity changes over time and (2) activities are mutually constructed by participants" (Cole 1985:153).

In the field of cognitive/developmental psychology, again as Cole observes, studies on the hypothetical content of schemata (Rumelhart and Norman 1980) have helped make its relationship to anthropological units such as "person-acting" become immediately apparent.  `Rumelhart tells us that there are schemata representing our knowledge of objects, situations, events, sequences of events, actions, and sequences of action.  " A schema contains, as part of its specification, the network of inter-relations that is believed normally to hold among constituents of the concept in question" (Rumelhart 1978:3)' (Cole 1985:154). Nelson's discussion on the mechanisms of schema acquisition "brings us directly back to Vygotsky. Schemata, she tells us, are built up from recurrent events occurring in social contexts" (Cole 1985:154). Children participate in social events, one of the salient facts about which is "that they are most often directed by adults and that the goals involved are the goals of others. Thus the children's parts in the interactions are determined for them .... Adults provide directions for the activities,
and often even supply the lines" (Nelson 1981:106). The essential point raised by Nelson is that "children are frequently operating in someone else's scripts, subordinate to the control of others" (Cole 1985:154).

But as Vygotsky observed, this control is not static. Shifts in control or responsibility exist. The term used to described this shifting control within activities is "zone of proximal development". In Vygotsky's word, the zone of proximal development is the difference between a child's "actual development as determined by independent problem solving" and the higher level of "potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky 1978:86).

Empirical evidence in support of the concept of the zone of proximal development comes from both educational studies (Brown and French 1979; Bruner 1985; Cazden 1981; Wertsch 1978) and psycho-anthropological studies. The diagnostic and experimental work in the educational field "demonstrates the ways in which more capable participants structure interactions so that novices (children) can participate in activities that they are not themselves capable of; with repeated practice, children gradually increase their relative responsibility until they can manage the adult role" (Cole 1985:155). Some anthropological research studies, such as Kulah's study on Kpelle children's learning of proverbs in Liberia (Kulah 1973), Childs and Greenfield's description of learning to weave among Zinacantecan weavers of south-central Mexico (Childs & Greenfield 1982), and Lave's study of tailoring in Liberia, describe zones of proximal development within culturally organized activities in some detail. All these studies reveal that in a real sociocultural context, there exists systematic ordering of instruction. People "who are responsible for guiding the construction of knowledge do so by using certain kinds of guidance strategies" (Mercer 1995:6). Content and
interpretation are not taught but arranged for. Activities bear powerful top-down constraints.

The above discussion shows how studies in psychology reveal how learning or acquisition of knowledge is related to human activities. Recent sociological approaches proposed by Bourdieu (1977) and Giddens (1979, 1984) resonate with the mentioned psychological approaches. While "Bourdieu's practice theory proposes that the habitus of a social group, its socially constituted system of dispositions (cognitive and motivating structures), gives rise to practices, which in turn tend to reproduce habitus", Giddens' theory of structuration sees structures "as sources and products of social behavior" (Ochs 1985:16).

In sum, within psychological approaches, while Piaget reveals that knowledge structures activity and activity structures knowledge, Vygotsky brings the sociocultural aspect into the picture. Thus, the relationship between knowledge and activity is described as sociocultural. Linguistic knowledge structures activity, and activity, which is systematically arranged with powerful top-down constraints, creates and recreates knowledge in both of these domains. Within sociological approaches, Bourdieu's practice theory and Giddens' theory of structuration together have proposed an interdependency of social practices and social behavior. Thus, as Ochs summarizes:

Both practice theory and structuration theory along with the constructivist theory of Piaget and sociohistorical theory make the claim that structure and practice enjoy a complex, cybernetic relationship. From the point of view of these theories, parole generates langue as well as the converse. Thus, linguistic knowledge is at least partially generated from language practices. (Ochs 1985:16).

On applying this idea to a theory of language acquisition, Ochs continues:
Children's language practices are partially engendered by grammatical, discourse, sociocultural, and general cognitive structures. However, these structures of knowledge are created in part through children's participation in temporarily and spatially situated practices/activities.

The notion of practice or activity is central to an integrated theory of language acquisition in other ways as well. Activities play a mediating role vis-a-vis linguistic and sociocultural knowledge. First, language activities are at the same time linguistic and sociocultural phenomena. Second, the sociocultural contexts that language activities engender or reflect become part of the pragmatic or social meaning of particular linguistic structures carrying out these tasks. Language is a form of life, speaking is part of an activity, and meanings of words consist of their uses in these activity contexts. The net effect is that children are acquiring linguistic and sociocultural knowledge hand-in-hand as they assume various communicative and social roles in language activities. (Ochs 1985:17)

To summarize the above in relevance to the present study, the following points stand out:

1.) Linguistic knowledge draws on sociocultural knowledge. If we understand sociocultural knowledge to include content knowledge, classroom language activities have to be designed and conducted to provide context to facilitate both language learning and content learning.

2.) The notion of activity is of central importance to the acquisition of both linguistic and sociocultural knowledge. Social activities involving language are structured by linguistic and sociocultural knowledge which is also structured. It is through participation in these structured activities that children and other novices acquire knowledge in these two domains. Thus, classroom language activities should be organized around structures of sociocultural knowledge to promote the acquisition of linguistic and sociocultural knowledge.
3.) In a real sociocultural context, learning takes place in a series of systematically arranged activities with powerful "top-down" constraints. This finding suggests that activity settings "arrange" for development to take place. Part of the activity setting is the presence and role of knowledgeable participants who can give guidance to students "on how to use talk" (Mercer 1995:114). This, with the above two points, indicates the importance of intentional planning by a knowledgeable person, namely a teacher in the case of a language classroom, of language activities around structures of sociocultural knowledge in classroom settings.

Thus, what has been argued for so far is a framework for social/culturally organized activities which can provide context for both content learning and language learning in a language classroom.

2.3. **Socioculturally Organized Activities in Language Classrooms—The KF: a Bridge between Content Learning and Language Development, Form and Function, Discourse and Context.**

The discussion on different views of classroom language activities in section 2.2.1. shows that within a formalist paradigm where language learning is viewed as purely language acquisition, activities are viewed as either carriers of linguistic forms or structures (as in product-oriented approaches towards the language program) or tasks to provide opportunities for language use (as in process-oriented approaches towards the language program). From the perspective of language socialization, language learning involves an understanding of form-form, form-meaning, and form-function relations. This understanding comes from an acquisition of both linguistic and sociocultural knowledge through participation of socioculturally organized activities. Thus, activity
viewed as facilitating only language acquisition does not serve the purpose of a language program based on the concept of language socialization.

Even when we consider only language development, activities proposed for only language acquisition as in process-oriented approaches may not help if language acquisition is meant to cover both BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills) and CALP (Cognitive-Academic Language Proficiency) (Cummins 1981, 1984; Cummins and Mackay in press). They provide no solution regarding how activities can be systematically organized to facilitate BICS and CALP. Studies in sociohistorical approaches to development show that the organization of participation in language practices influences the direction of cognitive development. Since BICS and CALP require different cognitive skills, the development of both requires a framework which can systematically organize language activities associated with different cognitive skills. Cummins has developed a language proficiency framework (See Cummins 1979, 1981; Cummins & Mackay, in press) within which classroom activities can be located to determine the relative cognitive and linguistic complexity demanded for successful completion of the task in question. But what is left out of the framework, as Cummins acknowledges himself, is the sociolinguistic dimensions of proficiency which is associated with the acquisition of sociocultural knowledge, the twin sister of language acquisition.

To put the above together, from the perspective of language socialization, it can be argued that what is needed is a framework for organizing activities socioculturally to provide context for both language learning and content learning.

A general model of activities as contexts for discourse
With the development of schema theory (Carrell 1985), many researchers have begun to investigate the role of text structures in reading (Carrell 1983, 1984, 1985; Carrell et al. 1989; Meyer 1985; Urquhart 1984; Carrell, Devine & Eskey 1988; Wang & Qi 1988). These researchers found that being familiar with various text structures is helpful in bringing the learners' background knowledge to reading materials which facilitates the utilization of context in comprehension. Indeed, in reading research, text structures are shown to play a very important role in reading comprehension (Carrell 1984, 1985; Urquhart 1984; Bartlett 1978; Armbruster et al. 1987). Mohan, however, raised a question (1989): Are we dealing with the structure of text or the structure of knowledge? "Reading researchers speak of the interaction between the organization of expository text and the formal schemata of the reader, where formal schemata are taken merely to mean familiarity with text structure. Yet cognitive psychologists like Abelson speak of such formal schemata or "knowledge structures" as explaining "how people organize their knowledge of the world so as to understand and retain new information" (Abelson & Black 1986:1)" (Mohan 1989). Thus, the idea that "knowledge is schematized" (Abelson & Black 1986:1), forms part of the basis of Mohan's (1986) proposal of a "Knowledge Framework".

Yet, from a sociocultural perspective, knowledge does not stand alone. Drawing upon various studies on human activities and the relations between activities and the acquisition of knowledge from the field of psychology (especially from a sociohistorical approach), sociology, and anthropology, Mohan bases his KF on the concept of activity. According to Mohan, activity has two aspects: action and theoretical understanding. The KF is thus composed of two sides: practical knowledge and theoretical knowledge. "The two aspects of an activity, action and theoretical understanding, match the two sides of the framework" (Mohan 1986:42). Since context can be viewed as being comprised of knowledge (i.e., what speakers and hearers can be assumed to know) and situation (See
Schiffrin 1994:362-385), the KF can be perceived as a general model of activities which provide contexts for discourse.

Mohan further argues that an activity can be divided into at least six major types of Knowledge Structures or knowledge processes: describing, sequencing, making choices, classifying, formulating principles, and evaluating. A topic or content area can also be broken down into six types of knowledge which make up the KF: description, sequence, choice which are included in the action situation of an activity and classification, principles, and evaluation which are included in the background information of the action situation (See Table 1). Since each Knowledge Structure (KS) has its specific linguistic features, and accordingly when one is engaged in one of the activities of a certain KS under a topic, the particular language attached to that KS is required, the KF provides linkage between language and content.

In the KF, activities are socioculturally (socially as in different classrooms with different people forming different social relations; culturally as engaging in different cultures being learned, either a subject matter or a cultural theme) organized around specific topics. The topic and the way a particular activity is organized (e.g., classifying trees) structure the knowledge to be acquired and the language to be used which in return further structure the activity. On the one hand, classifying trees helps students gain the knowledge of taxonomy of trees and the language of classification. One the other hand, the students' and the experts' knowledge of taxonomy and the language of classification can shape the activity of classifying trees they engage in. To be successful in classifying trees, negotiation of the relations between form (e.g. deciduous trees) and meaning (e.g. the trees that shed leaves), form (e.g. divide) and function (e.g. classifying) are inevitably required. It is in this kind of participation of socioculturally organized activities around
specific topics that form and meaning, and form and function are socioculturally connected.

**An organizing framework to organize language taught and learned as a medium of learning**

"Language is normally a medium of learning about the world" (Mohan 1986:3). And the world is inseparable from human activities which provide the context for human communication. Thus, learning a language as a medium of learning is inseparable from learning activities. Since the KF provides a general model of activities and each KS has specific linguistic features, it could serve as an organizing framework to organize language taught and learned as a medium of learning.

According to Mohan, the KF is divided into action situation and background information and the communication about the KSs in both aspects is inseparable from discourse development:

All action situations ... contain description, sequence, and choice... the language resources necessary to talk about description, sequence, and choice are common to all language situations, and ... developing discourse about the three knowledge structures calls for a broad competence in the language. (Mohan 1986:53-69)

Background knowledge is the general, theoretical aspect of an activity, and contains classification, principles, and evaluation ... these three knowledge structures can be keyed to their associated thinking processes, ... and related to language items that can be used in the classroom. ... Learning to talk and write about these knowledge structures is then an important part of the development of competence in academic language. (Mohan 1986:95)
Thus, based on the concept of an activity from which language is inseparable, the KF can be perceived as a framework to organize language taught and learned as a medium of learning. Since activities at the theoretical level are more cognitively demanding and the associated language is more academically oriented, they can be intentionally organized to facilitate the development of CALP.

A Framework to organize classroom activities involving various thinking skills

"There is no reason for the language classroom to be restricted to teaching language for its own sake" (Mohan 1986:3). If language is taught and learned as a medium of learning, the position of cognitive development must be emphasized.

People have studied the relationship between human development of language and cognitive abilities for a long time (See Ringler & Weber 1984:48-49). In spite of the controversy over the issue as to which comes first, all the research "emphasizes the close interrelationship of language and thought and suggests the need for teachers to consider both in planning for language-related activities" (Ringler & Weber 1984:49).

Ellis, Standal, Pennau, and Rummel (1989) hold a similar point of view. They argue that "language and thinking spring from experience and support each other... It is of utmost importance to realize that language and thinking are vitally related. ... Thinking is a basic element in all the language arts" (Ellis et al. 1989:3).

In the book Thinking Through the Language Arts, Nessel et al. (1989) address the same issue from the perspective of teaching language arts through activities. They argue that by "promoting active student involvement and by giving attention to priorities, the language arts teacher will help students develop as thinkers. ... Thinking should not be
isolated and taught separately from the language arts; it is an integral part of language comprehension and use" (Nessel et al 1989:21). From the perspective of activity planning, they further point out that "students will improve their thinking to the extent that they are given the chance to see relationships, reason logically, and synthesize information in their regular language arts and content area work. They will be more likely to perform well if the teacher plans activities specifically to elicit such thinking within the regular day-to-day activities" (Nessel et al. 1989:22).

Some useful studies have been undertaken to investigate the relationship between communication and thinking skills from the perspective of curriculum design (See Resnich & Klopfer 1989). Yet, to effectively plan activities which could develop the students' language abilities and elicit thinking processes at the same time in language classrooms, there exists the need for a framework which can essentially and systematically combine the two. Mohan's KF attempts to provide just this.

The Framework is based on the concept of an activity. To be efficiently engaged in an activity, people not only have to communicate about the activity, but also have to be involved with various thinking processes related to certain cognitive aspects of the activity. Since the KF is a general model of various activities, it can be perceived as a framework to organize classroom activities involving and accordingly developing various thinking or cognitive skills. More importantly, "knowledge structures ... provide an understanding of fundamentals and aid in transfer" (Mohan 1986:92):

i) The three knowledge structures of an action situation are a key to communication, discourse, and thinking across the curriculum. ...they provide a framework which makes possible the transfer of thinking skills and language skills to all areas of learning. (Mohan 1986:70)
ii) The three knowledge structures of background knowledge can be keyed to their associated thinking processes communicated through graphics, and related to language items that can be used in the classroom. (Mohan 1986:95)

iii) By recognizing and using the knowledge structures of an activity, the content teacher and the language teacher can develop a common approach in teaching for transfer of thinking skills across the curriculum. (Mohan 1986:96)

One of the important results of recent research in psychology within the sociocultural/sociohistorical approaches is that cognitive skills, once acquired, may be lost if the activities for which these skills are necessary are not habitual (See Scribner & Cole 1981). This finding indicates the importance of engaging in activities of different KSs repeatedly for cognitive development. Since the KF breaks any topic into the same different kinds of KSs, engaging in activities organized around different topics within the KF makes the repetition of the use of various thinking or cognitive skills possible.

In sum, the KF, based on the concept of activity, links language and content, form and function, discourse and context, in a systematic way. It provides us with a model which integrates context, communication, and thinking skills. In this model, activities serve as contexts for both content learning and language development.

The application of the KF

Since Mohan's KF was proposed, some efforts have been made to apply the framework in language curriculum design. Early, Thew, and Wakefield (1986) utilized the KF in designing activities in a resource book for teaching English as a second language across the curriculum. Based on content or topics, a series of classroom activities was planned around the KF, with the design of relevant key visuals graphically representing the six KSs. On the basis of the principle that "efficient instruction aims to
meet several objectives concurrently" (Early et al. 1986:15), the resource book aims at integrating language and content instruction by means of systematically combining experiences, context, key visuals, thinking skills, and language skills.

Emphasizing content-based language learning, Low (1989) studied a content-based curriculum designed for international students participating in a summer English language program. The curriculum designed around Mohan's KF, as in the ESL resource book of Early et al. (1986), aims at integrating thinking, language, and content in a language program. The study focused on the development, implementation, and evaluation of the curriculum. Though the findings raised concerns at the task design level related to language and other aspects of tasks, the instructors involved in the program, after having implemented the curriculum in the classrooms, responded positively to the curriculum principles and supported such a content approach to language learning. As stated by Low, this "approach goes beyond a traditional view of language teaching and encompasses a broader perspective of language education" (Low 1989:55).

The above studies have shown the possibility of applying the KF in curriculum design for both K-12 students and college students. They have provided evidence that by designing activities or tasks around the KF, language, thinking, and context can be integrated at the level of curriculum design.

In addition to the work that has been undertaken on the application of the KF in curriculum design, several studies have also been conducted in relation to Mohan's KF in specific teaching situations (See Early 1989a, 1989b, 1990a, 1990b; Mohan 1989; Early et al. 1989; Oszust 1989; Henry 1989; Tang 1989). The findings from these studies have provided evidence that the KF has been successfully applied in actual teaching situations for ESL students. These studies, especially the ones based on the Vancouver School
Board Language and Content Project, show that the KF is a feasible way of analyzing content or topics with the use of graphics and that classroom activities on relevant topics can lead to systematic use of features of language by the students, in the ways indicated by the KF analysis of the topic. From the application of the KF in an actual teaching situation, what the students could gain is not only language development, but also continuous cognitive growth which is vitally bound to their academic success across the curriculum and their vocational success throughout their lives.

2.4. Summary and conclusion

In the above literature review, I analyzed several existing second language curriculum design approaches in relation to their views of language and language learning. The analysis leads to an awareness that few of them seriously or systematically deal with content as either subject matter or cultural theme. All of them focus purely on the development of a linguistic system without considering language learning in a sociocultural context as socialization and learning about the world. From the viewpoint of language socialization, I have focused the discussion on two of my concerns about this neglect in relation to language learning and the realization of the goals of bilingual, multicultural education. The discussion aims at pointing to the importance of focusing on the organization of language learning events with closer attention to the function and content of the discourse itself (as opposed to the linguistic system). Thus, language socialization is "considered within a sociocultural framework concerned with how individuals are presented with information, modes of negotiating or interpreting information, a world view" (Schieffelin & Ochs 1986).
Calling for attention to the message content of a second language curriculum by no means implies abandoning the focus on language learning. What has been argued for is a curriculum approach that perceives both content learning (the learning of subject matter such as science and social studies or the learning of the second culture) and language learning as its goals. In the second part of the review, the concept of activity has been viewed, from the perspective of language socialization, as the bridge to link content and language learning. The review shows that different views of language learning have different concepts of activities. Language activities viewed from different viewpoints entail different functions and thus serve different purposes in a language program. I first discussed how language activities are perceived as to serve only the acquisition of linguistic knowledge in product- and process-oriented approaches towards a language curriculum which views second language learning as purely L2 acquisition. Then, from the examination of how activities are viewed socioculturally in studies in psychology, anthropology, and sociology, I discussed what language activities entail from the perspective of language socialization. This discussion has lead to an awareness of the need for a framework which can organize language activities to serve as context for both content learning and language development.

Finally, I introduced Mohan's Knowledge Framework. The discussion of the theory behind and the application of the KF shows how the KF can enable socioculturally organized activities in second language classrooms to promote both content learning and language development in second language programs. The main point is that there is both the need for and the possibility of integrating content learning and language development in a language program through socioculturally organized activities.

Studies in ESL situations (e.g. Early 1990a, Mohan 1989, Tang 1989, etc.) have suggested that the Knowledge Framework (KF) proposed by Mohan(1986) is a feasible
way to organize activities which could bring with them a wide range of form-function relations in a systematic way. Huang’s (1991) research also indicates the feasibility of applying the KF in a foreign language teaching situation. What is needed is a detailed study of how the Knowledge Structures (KSs) are specifically reflected in students’ tasks in second language classrooms and how the activities organized around the KF bring with them a broad range of form-function connections which can facilitate systematic development of both content learning and language learning.
Chapter 3

The Study

3.1. The Research Design and Methodology

"It is important to cast the concepts of one's theory into a structure that can be operationalized. This means, on the simplest level, that there must be a strong logical link between the data an ethnographer proposes to collect and the theoretical constructs to be illuminated."

(Werner & Schoepfle 1987:193)

The research was conducted to investigate second language teacher planning and classroom processes of language activities organized around Mohan's Knowledge Framework in a situation of teaching Chinese as a foreign language. The purpose was to uncover the process of teacher planning and how classroom activities organized around the KF can bring about a broader range of form-function connections in students' language use so as to benefit foreign language students. Since "field study research can explore the process and meanings of events" (Marshall & Rossman 1989:49), an ethnographic approach, which implies field study, was adopted as the main research methodology. By means of ethnographic techniques (Spradley 1980), data was collected "to obtain a holistic picture" (Wiersma 1986:16) of the whole process of organizing the classroom activities using the KF. The study was undertaken in a natural setting of fourth and fifth grade classrooms in an elementary school in BC.

The research was not conducted either to make comparison between different teaching approaches nor to study the causal relationships between the adoption of a method and the outcome of that method's adoption. Rather, it was a piece of "exploratory or discovery-oriented research" (McMillan & Schumacher 1989:383) that examined "a
topic in which there has been little previous research" (McMillan & Schumacher 1989:423), a piece of research that delved "in depth into complexities and processes" (Marshall & Rossman 1989:46), a piece of research that attempted to provide descriptions and analysis of processes of second language classroom activities "within their specific contexts" (Wiersma 1986:233). The selection of the site and participants was thus based on the "criteria implied in the foreshadowed problems" (McMillan & Schumacher 1989:392) and the researcher's accessibility to the site.

Mohan's KF is the key concept in the research. On the one hand, from the perspective of second language teaching methodology, the KF was used for teacher planning. On the other hand, the KF was also used as an approach to discourse analysis in the treatment of classroom data, which suggests examination of some research techniques. Appropriate ways to undertake the analysis of student task discourse was a focus. More specifically, how the systemic-functional linguistic analyses (Halliday 1985, 1994) can be employed to undertake such discourse analysis was investigated.

3.1.1. Setting and Site

Human activity is a concept that cannot be separated from human behavior. Since "human behavior is significantly influenced by the setting in which it occurs," "one must study that behavior in situations" (Marshall & Rossman 1989:49). Thus, one of the important questions to be asked was related to the location chosen for the field work, i.e.: Where should the study be conducted? The rationale behind the location selection criteria was two dimensional: relevant and practical. In terms of relevancy, academically, the location chosen had to be able to provide the researcher with the opportunity "to study certain topics", "to investigate specific theoretical problems", and "to suggest solutions to practical problems" (Hicks & Ellen 1984:193). Methodologically, it had to be a "social
situation" (Spradley 1980:39) related to the desired topics in which the researcher could observe and participate with the "actors" (Spradley 1980:41) in the relevant activities that took place. In terms of practicability, the location had to be the one that was "accessible", that could generate "frequently recurring activities", that held "opportunity for participation" (Spradley 1980:47-52).

Based on the above criteria, the site of the study was Chinese as a foreign language classes in an elementary school in a suburban area in BC where 74 of the 76 students in the program were native speakers of English without any Chinese background linguistically, ethnically, or culturally. First, the topic of the research was "classroom activities in a foreign language teaching situation" and the Chinese program offered in this elementary school was a foreign language program instead of a second or heritage language\(^1\) program such as those offered in most of the schools in BC. Second, the focus of the proposed study was the adoption of Mohan's KF in a foreign language teaching situation and the Chinese program in the school was the only one among the existing programs that was using the KF in the designing of classroom activities. Third, since the KF can be perceived as a response to the practical problem of the lack of focus on form-meaning and form-function connections in many of the existing second language programs, the study in this location where the KF was used might suggest solutions to the problem. Fourth, since the researcher had established a good relationship with the school and the teacher during a previous research study and the researcher had gained the trust of the teacher, accessibility and the opportunity for participation would not be problematic. Fifth, since the KF was being used in the program, classroom activities organized around the KF would possibly occur frequently to allow observation on the process of designing and conducting those activities.

\(^1\) Here, second or heritage Chinese language program refers to the one in which the students have strong Chinese background linguistically, ethnically, and culturally.
The setting for the study was Melba Elementary in BC. When I just started visiting Melba in 1990 for a previous related study, there were a few ESL students who spoke Mandarin Chinese as their first language while the majority of the students in the school spoke English as their first language. In the community outside the school at that time, there were few Chinese speakers though the population of Chinese immigrants in that area was growing. At the time of this study, the population of Chinese speakers was greater in both the school and community. Quite a few ESL students in the school came from Taiwan where Mandarin Chinese is the official language. Thus, though Chinese was taught in the program as a foreign language, there existed opportunities for the English students in the Chinese program to practice their limited Chinese with a native speaker of Chinese. This indeed happened with some students.

The site of the study was originally two ordinary grade 5 classes and one grade 6 class made up of students from different grade 6 classes. Thus, there were, in all, three sections at the same language level in the program. The Chinese teacher, the students from each of the three sections, and I met twice a week. Each class lasted 40 minutes. Since the classroom was not the Chinese teacher's, the teacher could not freely arrange the decorations on the walls and boards. But, during the periods of the Chinese class, the teacher was allowed to use the boards or the walls freely and change the classroom seating.

3.1.2. Participants

Students. The study was to involve 76 Grade 5 and Grade 6 students at the age of 9 to 11, who were attending regular classes at the elementary school. Except for 5 students who were new in the program, the remaining 71 students had been in the program when it had started in October, 1990. So most of the students had already had
one year of Chinese learning experience. Nevertheless, it does not mean that the students were not beginners. After a break from the program of more than four months (June 1991 to October 1991), the students had forgotten much of what they had been introduced to in terms of Mandarin Chinese.

The students involved in the Chinese program were divided into three classes: Section 1, all grade 5 students; Section 2, fifth graders and sixth graders; Section 3, all fifth graders. At the beginning of the study, I decided to include all three classes for data collection. As time passed by, I found it difficult to manage because of the tape recordings and keeping a field journal. At the same time, the teacher and I found it difficult to actually conduct what we had planned for the classes in Section 1 because of some discipline problems. So in the middle of the study, I decided to drop Section 1 and concentrate on Section 2 and Section 3 for on-site classroom observation while collection of student written work as part of the data was still to cover all the sections. In Section 3, one parent did not consent. In Section 2, 2 students withdrew from the program. Thus, at the end, the actual number of student participants dropped from 76 to 47 for classroom observation, and to 73 for student written work.

Among the 47 students, 27 were girls and 20 were boys. While one boy and one girl had some Chinese background, all the students in the program were native speakers of English. Though there were a few Mandarin Chinese speakers (ESL students) in the school and a couple of students in the Chinese program did try to use their limited Chinese to talk with them, for most of the students in the program, the Chinese class seemed to provide the only place for the children to be in touch with Chinese. Thus, for the children in this Chinese program, Chinese was taught and learned as a foreign language.
Teacher. The teacher, Ms. C, is a female Canadian born Chinese Canadian whose first language is English and who speaks some Mandarin and fluent Cantonese. Ms. C has had a very good teacher training background and is a very competent teacher with more than ten years of ESL teaching experience in the classroom. Besides this Chinese class, she was teaching mainly ESL in the school. Some of her ESL students spoke Mandarin Chinese as their first language.

It was Ms. C's third year to be involved in the program. This program was started for the first time in the school's history in October, 1989 as a pilot project which involved only twenty three students. Ms. C was the initiator of the pilot project. With the support of the parents, the school, the school board, and the Ministry of Education, the program was expanded into a full scale language program which involved more than 80 students in 1990. From October 1990 to May 1991, Ms. C was one of the two teachers responsible for the program. Since October 1991, Ms. C became the only teacher in the program. When she was teaching Chinese, her ESL students were taken care of by her teaching assistant. Her Chinese class was conducted in both English and Chinese.

3.1.3. The Program and the Research Focus

The Chinese program at Melba was in its second year when I started data collection. The whole program was developed on the basis of the Mandarin Chinese Intermediate Program Curriculum Guide (Ministry of Education of BC 1991). This curriculum guide details the goals, objectives, and learning outcomes for teaching Mandarin Chinese to students in intermediate 1-4. According to the Guide, there are four goals to be striven for in this program:

1. attitudinal (domain of awareness, appreciation, feelings, etc.)
2. cultural (domain of values, customs, traditions, etc.)
3. developmental (domain of thinking skills and learning how-to-learn)
4. linguistic (domain of productive and receptive ability with language)

(Mandarin Chinese Intermediate Program Curriculum Guide, P. 13)

These four goals interact with and cut across the components of communicative competence:

1. strategic competence—our attitudes and needs towards communication;
2. social competence—our ability to communicate in socially appropriate and sensitive ways;
3. discourse competence—our ability to link ideas and concepts and utilize our general knowledge in communication;
4. grammatical competence—our ability to utilize the linguistic structures of a language correctly.

(Mandarin Chinese Intermediate Program Curriculum Guide, P. 13)

The curriculum guide aims to provide an activity-based focus with which the teacher could lead the students towards general communicative competence in Chinese as mentioned above. Though it does not provide specific activities, the guide is organized according to a series of themes or topics based on which relevant classroom activities can be developed:

* Personal Information
* Family
* School
* Shopping
* Transportation
* Leisure
* Environment

These themes were chosen on the recommendation of classroom teachers familiar with children's interests and themes found in other areas of the Intermediate curricula. Each
theme can be a teaching/learning unit and all themes are recycled at different levels with expansion for each higher level. Table 3.1.3 provides an idea of the themes covered in the whole program.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expansion Core Theme</th>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Level 3</th>
<th>Level 4</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>introduction</td>
<td>general</td>
<td>descriptions</td>
<td>daily activities</td>
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<td>immediate</td>
<td>extended</td>
<td>meal time</td>
<td>home</td>
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<td>school</td>
<td>rooms and</td>
<td>equipment,</td>
<td>activities</td>
<td>activities</td>
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<td>personnel</td>
<td>subjects</td>
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<td>gift giving</td>
<td>corner store</td>
<td>postal service</td>
<td>grocery</td>
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<td>and banking</td>
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<td>rice and wheat</td>
<td>senses</td>
<td>fish</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1.3. Topics in the Mandarin Chinese Intermediate Program Curriculum Guide

Around these themes, a resource book for classroom activities around the KF (draft) had been developed when the Melba Chinese Program was still in its pilot phase. The KF was used in the resource book because it had earned many positive responses from ESL classrooms in terms of content teaching and learning, developing the students' linguistic abilities as well as various thinking skills at the same time. The goals set up in the Chinese Curriculum Guide require such a framework. But, while the resource book provides a series of activities which are handy for classroom teachers, it has its limitations in terms of the language to be involved in the predesigned activities. Following the Curriculum Guide, the resource book organized activities around the provided themes and linguistic items. My previous study (Huang 1990) shows that these kinds of activities could easily prohibit the students from using certain language items.
relevant to a certain topic. My feeling was that the language to be used by the students should come out of the need of engaging in certain activities rather than that activities should be limited by the provided linguistic items. While the linguistic items provided by the Curriculum Guide could be used as a check list, activities should not be limited by them. In this study, I would like to see what kind of language could be involved while the students engaged in the activities. Thus, because of my research interest, the teacher and I decided not to strictly follow the resource book, especially in terms of the language to be involved. Linguistic items were not to be prescribed but to be induced by the activities around certain topics.

My research focus was classroom language activities organized around the KF. But the program embraced much more than that. Throughout the whole year, the program provided the students with opportunities to go to an exhibition of Chinese painting, experiencing Chinese art through brush painting and practicing Chinese calligraphy, going on a field trip to China Town, putting on a show in Chinese, exploring Chinese culture by inviting the museumobile organized by the Vancouver Museum, and organizing Mandarin Madness for the community, i.e., a Chinese night named and organized by the students. All these fun and educational activities deserve being researched in terms of the relations between those activities and language/culture learning. However, for this thesis, I focused mainly on classroom language activities to serve my research purpose. It is worth mentioning that what is recorded and researched in this thesis can reflect only part of one aspect of the program of the year, i.e., classroom language activities organized around the KF.

3.1.4. The Methodology--Qualitative Research
Being **qualitative** is perhaps the most suitable word available to describe the methodology this study adopted. "QUALITATIVE research has a long ... history in the human disciplines" (Denzin & Lincoln 1994:1). Since the 1920s and 1930s when the work of the "Chicago school" in sociology established the importance of qualitative research for the study of human group life (Vidich & Lyman 1994:23-59), qualitative research, as "an ongoing critique of the politics and methods of positivism" (Denzin & Lincoln 1994:1), has been widely employed by researchers from various social science disciplines, including education, social work, and communication. Following the outlines of the fieldwork method charted as early as the 1920s and 1930s by pathbreaking studies of anthropologists, including Boas, Mead, and Malinowski, researchers have produced an abundance of fruitful studies trying to explore and understand human beings and human activities as socially, culturally, and politically contextualized individuals/groups and events.

Though widely used and encouragingly productive, qualitative research remains a field of inquiry without agreement as to its definition and the conduct of its actual practice. Qualitative research is defined in various different ways in different articles or books on qualitative research, and quite often very vaguely. The following offers just a few examples.

"Qualitative research is multimethod in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter" (Denzin & Lincoln 1994:2).

"Qualitative research is meant to denote all research not concerned with variables and their measurement" (Tesch 1990:43).

" 'Qualitative' implies a direct concern with experience as it is `lived' or `felt' or `undergone'" (Sherman & Webb 1988:7)
Definitions such as these are simple but too vague to be really understood. As a result, metaphors, commonalties, and characteristics of qualitative research are employed to help illustrate what qualitative research is. People have also tried to provide "an overall perspective" (Lancy 1993:2) of qualitative research by discussing related issues including history, epistemology, methodology, etc.

To Denzin and Lincoln, qualitative research "is multimethod in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter" (Denzin & Lincoln 1994:2). This definition, using Denzin and Lincoln's words, is "initial" and "generic". WHAT and HOW questions are the two aspects about which further description or explanation are to be provided. The WHAT question is answered through a job description: "qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them". The HOW question is dealt with by using metaphors favored by many researchers including Nelson, Treichler, and Grossberg (1992), Levi-Strauss (1966), and Weinstein and Weinstein (1991). First, the multiple methodologies of qualitative research is viewed as a "bricolage" which means "a pieced-together, close-knit set of practices that provide solutions to a problem in a concrete situation". Following this, the researcher is viewed as "bricoleur" who "uses the tools of his or her methodological trade, deploying whatever strategies, methods, or empirical materials as are at hand (Becker, 1989)" (Denzin & Lincoln 1994:2). Without a simple, straightforward, and an agreed-upon definition, the bricolage/bricoleur metaphor has suitably revealed some of the most important features of qualitative research.

In Sherman & Webb's *Qualitative Research in Education*, qualitative similarities are summarized in terms of experience. To them, it is the experience as being "lived".

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2 Emphasis added.
or 'felt' or 'undergone'" with which "qualitative' implies a direct concern" (Sherman & Webb 1988:7). Around experience, several commonalties in qualitative research are listed and treated as the features that go with qualitative research. At the top of the list is *context*. It is argued that experience "is shaped in context" and hence has to be studied in its context (Sherman & Webb 1988:5). This feature is in accordance with Denzin & Lincoln's idea of "concrete situation". Second, the contexts of inquiry "are natural and must be taken as they are found" (Sherman & Webb 1988:5). Denzin and Lincoln's "natural setting" just fits into this feature. Next, it is stated that "experience is to be taken and studied as a whole, or holistically" (Sherman & Webb 1988:5). Since "holism implies context" which has "boundaries" (Sherman & Webb 1988:5-6), the concept of "a pieced-together, close-knit set of practices" does reflect the idea of holism. The fourth feature is that methods of inquiry "must be appropriate to the aims" of the study (Sherman & Webb 1988:6). Here, I believe that the idea of "multimethod" is implied because in qualitative research, quite often several methods have to work together to be appropriate to the aims if "experience is to be ... studied as a whole". The last commonalty in qualitative research highlighted by Sherman and Webb is judging or appraising. Judging is viewed as "an appraisal of the qualitative situation, the relation of the parts and whole, and an indication of the potentialities that can be sought from the actualities. Judging is a means for keeping inquiry going and for keeping it pertinent to the problem and its solution" (Sherman & Webb 1988:7). Though not in prominent position in Denzin and Lincoln's *Hand Book of Qualitative Research*, the idea of judging and appraising is echoed in various terms that go with a new generation of qualitative researchers who are attached to post-structural, post-modern sensibilities, including verisimilitude, emotionality, personal responsibility, an ethic of caring, political praxis, multivoiced texts, and dialogues with subjects (See Denzin & Lincoln 1994:5).
In Bogdan and Biklen's *Qualitative Research for Education*, five characteristics of qualitative research are listed:

1. Qualitative research has the **natural setting** as the direct source of data and the researcher is the key instrument.
2. Qualitative research is **descriptive**.
3. Qualitative researchers are concerned with **process** rather than simply with outcomes or products.
4. Qualitative researchers tend to analyze their data **inductively**.
5. "**Meaning**" is of essential concern to the qualitative approach.

On this list, though some different terms such as "descriptive", "process", and "inductively", are used from those in the above discussion, all of them are inherently related. First, meaning as a concern to qualitative research refers to the researcher's interest in "the ways different people make sense out of their lives" (Bogdan & Biklen 1982:29). Thus, **meaning** is a term that goes hand in hand with **experience**. Since experience means "an event or series of events participated in or lived through", or "active participation in events or activities", or "the knowledge or skill so derived" (Morris *et al* 1969:462), it is the **process** instead of the products or outcomes that becomes the focus. To understand process or experience as it is lived or felt or undergone, the research has to be **descriptive** because process or experience cannot be represented otherwise. However, "[o]bjective reality can never be captured" (Denzin & Lincoln 1994:2). Epistemologically, all human knowledge is "presumptive" (Campbell 1977) and "direct learning through our sense experience is colored by our state of mind" (Werner & Schoepfle 1987:58). Thus, description is always the description that is **interpretive** from the researcher's understanding colored by her own state of mind.

Finally, interpretive description of "phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them" (Denzin & Lincoln 1994:2) does not exist before the researcher enters the study.
Theory has to be developed **inductively** on the basis of analytical, interpretive description as the result of qualitative research.

Lancy also provides a list of commonalities of qualitative research. But his list emphasizes more specifically the part of methodology. The shared elements of methodology that Lancy provides are: 1) the researcher as instrument; 2) interviewing informants; 3) gathering artifacts; 4) triangulation; 5) analyzing the data with little idea at the outset how to partition the continuous mass into discrete, perhaps even countable, categories; and 6) reporting the study in a narrative format (See Lancy 1993:13-23). All these elements can be said to be based on the characteristics of qualitative research discussed above. While 1), 2), and 3) are associated with the ideas of experience, meaning, and process, 4), 5), and 6) are in direct connection with concepts such as interpretive, inductive, and descriptive.

Characteristics of qualitative research are also discussed by means of providing an overall perspective of qualitative research. Lancy (1993: Introduction) and Denzin & Lincoln (1994: Introduction) provide such an overall perspective through a discussion on some of the related issues. Table 3.1.4.a. is a summary of the main points discussed.
While Denzin and Lincoln offer an initial, generic definition of qualitative research, a simple definition is just not possible to Lancy. Nevertheless, both have managed to present what constitutes qualitative research through discussions on issues such as tradition, epistemology, qualitative versus quantitative research, paradigm, and methodology (See Lancy 1993:3-23; Denzin & Lincoln 1994:1-15).

Going through literature on qualitative research, either in terms of disciplines such as ethnography and ethnology in education (Hymes, 1980; LeCompte & Preissle, 1992), participant observation and ethnography in anthropology (Marcus 1994), sociology (Atkinson & Hammersley, 1994), etc., or in terms of research approaches such as case study (Hamel et al 1993), discourse analysis (Manning & Cullum-Swan 1994: 463-478), action research (Lather 1991), etc., some of the terms which repeatedly stand out are natural setting, process, meaning, experience, multiple methodologies, descriptive, interpretive. Thus, it is not difficult to argue that these are the main features or elements that constitute qualitative research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lancy</th>
<th>Tradition</th>
<th>Epistemological Issues</th>
<th>Relationship between Qualitative and Quantitative Research</th>
<th>Qualitative Paradigm</th>
<th>Shared Elements in Methodology</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Denzin &amp; Lincoln</td>
<td>definition</td>
<td>History</td>
<td>Qualitative versus Quantitative Research</td>
<td>Qualitative Research as Process</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1.4.a. Related Issues of Qualitative Research Discussed by Lancy (1993) and Denzin & Lincoln (1994)
The present study was an exploratory one conducted to investigate classroom language activities in their natural setting and in a concrete situation. It was an analytical description of the processes of those activities and the data were analyzed inductively. It attempted to interpret students' texts as discourse which were produced in certain contexts. In terms of methodology (See Figure 3.1.4.), the study was a qualitative one, trying to explore the possibility of intentional teacher planning which could result in student discourse with more systematic form-function connections. It was also an action research (Lather 1991) because of the active participation of me, the researcher. In this action research, two major methods were adopted to address the issues the study attempted to explore. First, in order to study intentional teacher planning around the KF, a case study (Hamel et al. 1993) was conducted "by giving special attention to totalizing in the observation, reconstruction and analysis of the cases" (Zonabend 1992:52) concerning the KF in second and foreign language teaching situations. In this case study, the picture of the broad process of the organization of the classroom activities around the KF was obtained through the ethnographic approach by "continuous observation, trying to record virtually everything that occurs in the setting being studied" (Borg & Gall 1989:493). To address the issue of systematic form-function connections, discourse analysis was conducted to find out the form-function relations in the students' discourse.

![QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY Diagram](image)

Figure 3.1.4. A Summary of the Methodology Employed by the Study

Discourse analysis plays a major part in the thesis. It was used as part of the research methodology to examine the linguistic functions of the language interactions. Since the
approach adopted in this study towards discourse analysis is one that was gradually
developed out of emerging needs during the long process of data analysis and thus is new and
unfamiliar, it is worthwhile paying some attention to a discussion of what this approach is,
where it stands in the field of discourse analysis, and how it can help answer the questions
concerned in the thesis. The following is devoted to such a discussion.

Discourse analysis

In this section, we will use Schiffrin's (1994) survey of discourse analysis as a wide-
ranging current review. But discourse analysis is a diverse field, and we do not wish to imply
that we endorse Schiffrin's views as authoritative or that all the various schools of discourse
analysis would agree with them.

As a term, discourse analysis faces the same definition problem as qualitative
research. "[An] attempt to define discourse analysis succinctly is a next to impossible task"
(Larsen-Freeman 1980:x-xi). As "one of the most vast, but also one of the least defined,
areas in linguistics" (Schiffrin 1994:5), it is "not a strictly unified discipline, with one or a
few dominant theories and methods of research" (Van Dijk 1990:3). "Multidisciplinarity"
can be said to be one major property of discourse analysis (Van Dijk 1990:135) because "our
understanding of discourse is based on scholarship from a number of academic disciplines
that are actually very different from one another" (Schiffrin 1994:5). Different approaches
to discourse analysis are accompanied by different views of the general nature of language
and the goals of linguistics. But basically, as Schiffrin argues, it is the two paradigms in
linguistics, which are formal and functionalist, that set up the basic distinctions in those
approaches (Schiffrin 1994). Figure 3.1.4.a. is a summary of Schiffrin's analysis of different
views towards discourse.
As shown by Figure 3.1.4.a, discourse is defined in three different ways according to which linguistic paradigm it is based on. From the formalist position, discourse is viewed as "language above the sentence or above the clause" (Stubbs 1983:1). It is comprised of units such as clause (e.g. Linde and Labov 1975), proposition (e.g. Grimes 1975), or sentence. Language above the sentence is a view shared by people like Hymes (1974), Van Dijk (1985), Harris (1951), Grimes (1975), etc. The problems with the view are 1) The units in which people speak do not always seem like sentences; 2) It is circular to define discourse as something larger than the lower-level unit it seems to create, i.e. sentences; 3) Discourse structures are not always the sort of hierarchical structures to which linguists are accustomed at other levels of analysis (See Schiffrin 1994:20-43).

The second definition of discourse is based on the functionalist paradigm in linguistics. In this paradigm, discourse is defined as "any aspect of language use" (Fasold 1990:65). Discourse is "viewed as a system (a socially and culturally organized way of speaking) through which particular functions are realized" (Schiffrin 1994:32). Thus, this definition brings "the context of which discourse is a part" (van Dijk 1985:4) into the
picture. There are also problems with this definition. First, the too broad and general analyses of language functions leave no space within which discourse analysts can formulate a clear set of principles, goals, topics, and methods specific to their own enterprise. Second, the definition fails to make a special place for the analysis of relationships between utterances. Third, it provides no way to define discourse as different from other levels of language use (See Schiffrin 1994:20-43).

The third definition, "discourse is utterances", is provided by Schiffrin in the hope that it captures the ideas that discourse is "above" (larger than) other units of language and that discourse arises as a collection of inherently contextualized units of language use. Obviously, this definition comes from a combination of the two distinguished linguistic paradigms. But as Schiffrin herself acknowledges, the problem with this definition is that "the notion of "utterance" is not really all that clear" (Schiffrin 1994:39).

Just like qualitative research, it is indeed very difficult to define discourse. Nevertheless, if we examine what people believe they should or really do in discourse analysis, Schiffrin's view on discourse is the one that is favored, regardless of differences in definition. As van Dijk has observed, the "conventional rules and conditions of meaning- and reference-interpretation, and those of world-knowledge use, and pragmatic action and functions have liberally integrated into the task of linguistic discourse analysis (van Dijk 1977: 11).

Broadly speaking, discourse analysis "is the study of the language of communication-spoken or written. The system that emerges out of the data shows that communication is an interlocking social, cognitive, and linguistic enterprise" (Hatch 1992:1). Thus, to study or analyze discourse, both form (i.e. linguistic aspects) and function (i.e. social and cognitive aspects) have to be brought into the enterprise. More
specifically, discourse analysis (or studies as labeled by some discourse analysts such as Renkema (1993)) "is the discipline devoted to the investigation of the relationship between form and function in verbal communication." Its aim is "to provide an explanatory description of systematic differences in forms and functions and the relation between them" (Renkema 1993: 1-3).

Though the above statements present discourse analysis as the study that includes both form and function, it does not necessarily mean that all definitions of discourse analysis take this view of inclusion. The view that discourse analysis is "the analysis of language in use" (Brown & Yule 1983: I) or "linguistic studies whose emphasis is on the communicative value of the text" (Bulow-Moller 1989:10) is popular among discourse analysts in the functionalist paradigm. Nevertheless, an inclusive view is more or less reflected in various approaches to discourse analysis in actual practice, regardless of what paradigm a particular approach comes from.

Both conversation analysis (e.g. Schegloff 1972a, b) and variation analysis (e.g. Labov & Fanshel 1977) begin with structure. They search for either sequential regularities and patterns in talk or structurally constrained variants within monologue and dialogue. Yet, both are led to analyses that build upon an interdependency between structure and function. Speech act theory (Searle 1975, Davison 1975), ethnography of communication (e.g. Hymes 1972, Ochs 1988, Schieffelin 1990), interactional sociolinguistics (e.g. Gumperz 1982b), and pragmatics (e.g. Grice 1975) are functional approaches to discourse. They begin with function, but all end up incorporating structure into their analyses. In her Approaches to Discourse, Schiffrin (1994) has a fairly detailed and comprehensive review of these approaches, so I will not go any further.
So far what I have been suggesting is that though discourse is defined quite differently by analysts from different linguistic paradigms, in terms of what they actually do in discourse analysis, most studies end up treating both form and function. In this review, I do not intend to define discourse because such a task is not the focus of this thesis. Nevertheless, based on what I have presented above, I view discourse analysis as studies that take into consideration both form and function. And I also take the view that "to provide an explanatory description of systematic differences in forms and functions and the relation between them" (Renkema 1993: 1-3) should be the aim of discourse analysis. From the perspective of communication, it is clear that without form, function cannot be realized; and without function, form loses its purpose.

Discourse analysis and qualitative research.

It can be argued from three perspectives that discourse analysis can serve as qualitative research, i.e. research goals or aims, research methodology, and actual research practice.

Without an agreed-upon definition of discourse, people do have relatively similar ideas about what the goals or aims of discourse analysis (or studies) are. "The goal is to either discover..., or to find... so that the researcher can make `assertions!'" (Tesch 1990: 80). The analysis is "to provide an explanatory description of systematic differences in forms and functions and the relation between them" (Renkema 1993: 1-3). It "aims to discover rules, patterns, properties, and structures of natural discourse" (Jackson 1986:129)\(^3\). These goals or aims are fairly similar to those of qualitative research, i.e. to examine, to discover, to describe, and to explain a phenomenon as it is natural both in itself and in its setting.

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\(^3\) Emphasis added.
In terms of methodology, the general approach of the qualitative researcher can be described as the method of analytic induction (Denzin 1970). Many discourse analysts begin with collection of a set of examples of the phenomenon being studied. The examples are used to build, inductively, a hypothesis. What is distinctive about the method is that analysts establish and present "argument from example" (Jacobs 1986: 149). They display a number of fragments of discourse and describe particular features that, presumably, can be seen by any reader. Nevertheless, there is "no agreed-upon set of analytic procedures for the description of discourse. ... Given all the ways in which communication is accomplished, it is difficult to see how one and only one "best" method of analysis might apply" (Hatch 1992: 1). Hence, discourse analysts, depending on their specific research questions, do not hesitate to draw upon and utilize approaches, methods, and techniques of ethnomethodology, phenomenology (See Schiffrin 1994), ethnography (See Poole 1991), participant observation, interviews, cultural studies (e.g. Werner & Schoepfle 1987), feminism (e.g. Lather 1992), etc. Thus, it can be argued that being inductive, descriptive, and multimethod, which are characteristics of qualitative research, stand out as important descriptors of discourse analysis in terms of methodology.

In terms of actual research practice, the application of discourse analysis as a research method (e.g. Schieffelin 1986, 1990; Ochs 1982, 1986, 1988; Brown 1980; Gumperz 1982; Watson-Gegeo 1990; Heath 1983; etc.) has shown its own power in addressing some qualitative questions related to relationship among language, culture, and society. Though there are people who believe that "discourse analysis usually is less context-embedded" (Tesch 1990), the reality show the opposite. In actual practice of discourse analysis, regardless of differences between approaches, context has played a role though it has been viewed differently in different approaches. Figure 3.1.4.b. is a summary of how context is viewed by different approaches to discourse analysis.
Pragmatics sees knowledge, i.e. what speakers and hearers can be assumed to know, as context; speech act theory, interactional sociolinguistics, and ethnography of communication adherents see context as being comprised of both knowledge and situation or social circumstances; variation analysis sees context as situation and text defined as linguistic context of utterances; and conversation analysis sees context as being all of the three (See Schiffrin 1994: 362-385). The point I would like to make is, no matter how context is viewed, once knowledge or situation is involved, cultural and social factors have to be brought into the picture, because both knowledge and situation are culturally and socially, even politically bound. A brief examination of the theories and basic research focus combined with contributions of various approaches to discourse analysis in actual practice (See Table 3.1.4.b.) based on Schiffrin 1994) demonstrates
fairly qualitative concerns such as meaning, holistic explanation, cultural beliefs, and exploration of how, all of which indicate an emphasis on process.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approaches</th>
<th>Theories</th>
<th>Basic Concerns / Focus</th>
<th>Contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speech Act Theory</td>
<td>Language is used not just to describe the world, but to perform communicative acts, i.e. a range of other actions that can be indicated in the performance of the utterance itself.</td>
<td>The function of language, i.e. communicative acts performed through speech.</td>
<td>It provides a means by which to sequence texts, and thus a framework for defining units that could then be combined into larger structures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional Sociolinguistics</td>
<td>- Language is a socially and culturally constructed symbol system that creates macro-level social meaning and micro-level interpersonal meanings. - Language and context co-constitute one another: language contextualizes and is contextualized.</td>
<td>Culture, society, and language in general. Situated meaning in specific. In sum, social and linguistic meanings created during interaction.</td>
<td>It provides: - a set of concepts and tools that provide a framework within which to analyze the use of language during interpersonal communication; - a sociological framework for describing and understanding the form and meaning of the social and interpersonal contexts that provide presuppositions for the interpretation of meaning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnography of Communication</td>
<td>- Instances of communication behavior are never free of the cultural belief and action systems in which they occur. - What we say and do has meaning only within a framework of cultural knowledge. - Language is but one part of a complex pattern of actions and beliefs that give meaning to people's lives.</td>
<td>- Holistic explanation of meaning and behavior. - Language and communication as cultural behavior. - To discover and analyze the structures and functions of communication that organize the use of language in speech situations, events, and acts.</td>
<td>It provides an analysis of language as one part of a complex pattern of actions and beliefs that give meaning to people's lives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pragmatics</td>
<td>Human beings work with very minimal assumptions about one another and their conduct, and that they use those assumptions as the basis from which to draw highly specific inferences about one another's intended meanings.</td>
<td>- To analyze speaker meaning at the level of utterances, and thus often amount to a</td>
<td>It offers a view how participant assumptions about what comprises a cooperative context for communication contribute to meaning, and how those assumptions help to create sequential patterns in talk.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversation Analysis</td>
<td>Conversation is a source of much of our sense of social order, also exhibits its own kind of order and manifests its own sense of structure.</td>
<td>- Considers the way participants in a conversation construct systematic solutions to recurrent organizational problems of talk. - Focus on detailed analysis of particular sequences of utterances that have actually occurred.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variation Analysis</td>
<td>Linguistic variation (i.e. heterogeneity) is patterned both socially and linguistically, and such patterns can be discovered only through systematic investigation of a speech community.</td>
<td>- Structural categories within texts and the way syntactic structure and variation helps to define and realize those structures. - What is actually said.</td>
<td>The discovery of formal pattern in texts. - The analysis of how such patterns are constrained by the text.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In sum, discourse analysis as a field of study that concerns form-function relations in communication can be, and has been, employed either in or as qualitative research. Its goals or aims, its methodologies, and its actual practice, all indicate its qualitative features.

The application of discourse analysis in language education and form-function issue

Discourse analysis as research methodology in language education has a very short history by comparison with other research approaches. The researchers who applied discourse analysis in the field as late as the late 1970s are regarded as "pioneers" (See Larsen-Freeman 1980: Introduction). Nevertheless, interesting questions have been tackled and much of insightful discovery has been made since then (See Larsen-Freeman 1980; Ochs 1988; Christie & Rothery 1988; Hatch 1992; etc.).

In "Discourse Analysis in Second Language Research" edited by Larsen-Freeman (1980), a number of questions addressed by researchers through discourse analysis are presented:

1. What is the effect of context on the form and meaning of linguistic structures?
2. What is the nature of the pragmatic knowledge that a learner must acquire when studying a second language?
3. What discourse rules do second language learners violate?
4. What is the nature of the second language input to the learner?
5. What is the structure of conversations in which nonnative speakers are engaged?
6. What can conversational analysis contribute to the optimal age issue?
7. What is the nature of the discourse which transpires in the classroom between a teacher and his or her students and among the students?
To tackle these questions, people used various approaches to discourse analysis including textual analysis, speech act theory, conversational analysis, and ethnography of communication. The result is better understanding of some of the issues in language acquisition such as the importance of context, development of sociolinguistic competence, source of errors, the role of input, the use of extralinguistic features, and the role of conversation in language acquisition (See Larsen-Freeman 1980).

In "Discourse and Language Education", Hatch reveals how researchers have searched for system in discourse. The book emphasizes specific methods of discourse analysis and how these methods might be applied in research in language education more than actual research in language education. The method offered by the book is classified into three groups as follows:

"A. Linguistic and cognitive templates (text characteristics)
   1. Goffman's system components
   2. Labov and Waletsky's (versus Mandler's 1978 and Rumelhart's 1975)
      narrative structures
   3. Levinson's(1983) deictic and Halliday and Hassan's cohesive ties
   4. Analysis of differences in features across modes
   5. Speech act analysis

B. Linguistic and cognitive processes (text structure results from selection/activation based on speaker's/writer's goals and intents)
   1. Schank and Abelson's script analysis
   2. Mann and Thompson's rhetorical structure analysis
   3. Participant cohesion
   4. Pragmatics of speech acts
   5. Chelsea- (1980) contextual analysis

C. Social, linguistic, and cognitive processes (text structure evolves from socially built communication)
   1. Schegloff's conversational analysis
   2. Goffman's ritual constraints; the playing of "self"
   3. Labov's evaluation component
4. Tannen's and Chafe's (1982) involvement features
5. Speech event analysis"  
(Hatch 1992: 291-292)

It is to be noted that all the methods are discussed from the perspective of text characteristics or structures. While the first group of methods attempts to describe the structure as a template that is a characteristic of the text, the second and the third groups focus on how text structure results or evolves.

While the studies cited above are revealing and even exciting, a review of literature shows that in research of language education, not all of the domains of inquiry within discourse analysis as qualitative research are well studied. As Poole (1990b) reveals, discourse analysis in qualitative research such as ethnographic research (e.g. Schieffelin 1986, 1989; Scollon and Scollon 1981; Watson-Gegeo 1990; Ochs 1982, 1986, 1988; Brown 1980; etc.) and its application in education (e.g. Gumperz 1982; Mehan 1979; Poole 1990; Schieffelin and Ochs 1986; Heath 1982, 1983; etc.) have contributed greatly to our understanding of the importance of assigning a far more significant role to culture and its inter-relatedness with language. These studies have provided "a significant body of convincing evidence that emphasizes the role of culture in organizing the kinds of interactional sequences that might affect classroom interaction and thus be relevant to language teaching" (Poole 1990b: 50). Nevertheless, little research has been undertaken to study discourse, spoken or written, emerging from language classroom activities, the organization of which emphasizes the role of culture and content. Although various studies on content-based approaches to language teaching have shown that the lack of form-function and form-meaning connections is important (See Swain 1988), little research has been undertaken to study what might bring systematic form-function connections in language classrooms. Though Swain's work calls for more "carefully contrived activities, which bring into the classroom authentic
language in its full functional range" (Swain 1988:82), it is difficult to find research in such areas.

Clearly, there is a need to study systematic form-function connections possibly brought by intentionally organized classroom language activities which assign a significant role to culture and its inter-relatedness with language. I will argue that this can be done by a discourse analysis approach that operates within the assumptions of systemic-functional linguistics.

Set up a case

To take into consideration both culture and language viewed as a combination of form and function, one has first of all to take the position of viewing language learning as language socialization (Schieffelin & Ochs 1986).

From the viewpoint of systemic-functional linguistics, language is closely related to learning about the world or learning through language (Halliday & Hasan 1985). Thus, it is important to look into the relationship between language learning and learning through language. The relation between learning and language learning is best illustrated by the concept of "language socialization", defined as "socialization through the use of language and socialization to use language" (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986:163). From this viewpoint, second language learning involves language socialization through the second language, simultaneously learning language and content (i.e., learning about the world). If the "socializing function of input language is primarily linked to the message content of utterances" addressed to people (Schieffelin & Ochs 1986:164), the message content of a discourse sent to the learners plays an important role in second language learning. Here, I
would argue that the emphasis on content can be an emphasis on culture if we define culture as "shared meaning".

As I have argued before, for language learning, we cannot stop at content because "content teaching is not necessarily good second language teaching" (Swain 1988:81). We need a content-based approach which can 1) assign a significant role to culture and its inter-relatedness with language; 2) bring systematic form-function connections through intentionally organized classroom language activities.

Among the research efforts to integrate language and content, the notion of activity can provide an integrating concept, since "activity mediates linguistic and sociocultural knowledge" (Ochs 1988: 15). The Knowledge Framework (KF) proposed by Mohan (1986), which is a framework for analysis of activities, makes systematic form-function connection possible. But to understand how activities organized around the KF which starts from content bring with them a broad range of systematic form-function connections, we need to analyze student task discourse.

**An approach**

In this section, I will discuss an approach to discourse analysis being developed currently as a result of investigating form-function relations in discourse from the KF perspective\(^4\). The approach, which is labeled as Knowledge Structure Analysis (KSA) bases its analysis on the theory of the KF and draws upon the work of systemic-functional linguistics (See Halliday 1985, 1994, Martin 1992, 1985, Eggins 1994, etc.), and ethnographic research (Werner & Schoepfle 1987).

\(^4\)This approach is currently in development with the effort made by a group of researchers under the leadership of Mohan at UBC.
The Framework of Knowledge Structures (KSs) plays a very important role in this approach. First, the KF is a framework for analysis of human activities in terms of meaning. Thus, the KF provides a base for analyzing meanings that go with the language involved in a particular activity. Second, the KF divides a topic (or an activity) into at least six basic KSs (i.e. classification, description, principles, sequence, evaluation and choice), every one of which has specific linguistic features. Thus, to study the linguistic features associated with a particular KS leads to discovery of form-function connections at discourse level.

Knowledge structures are constructed from semantic relations which have linguistic realizations that can be categorized in a constructive manner. Mohan's discourse analysis model identifies the knowledge structure that is the macro-organization of the text. To indicate the semantic structure in the passage, a graphic is drawn using nodes to represent the related ideas and lines to indicate the relationships. The researcher then analyses the language evidence in the passage to examine his/her claim that the identification of the semantic structure is appropriate.

Using this approach to analyze the macro-organization of texts, the researcher investigates the various discourse realizations of a specific knowledge structure. The knowledge structure is encoded using a number of basic language devices. At this stage, the approach draws upon the work of systemic-functional linguistics which categorizes linguistic systems such as reference, conjunction, and transitivity (See Halliday 1985, 1994, Martin 1992, Eggins 1994). In addition, the KSA adds lexical analysis because lexis plays an important role in understanding semantic relations. In genre analysis, language devices such as reference, conjunction, and transitivity are analyzed to identify the staging features of the genre. In the KSA, they are analyzed to identify the way in which they convey the macro-organization of the text.
Knowledge Structures and Discourse in the KSA

The aim of this section is to explain how knowledge structures might be reflected in discourse. For example, when a discourse builds a classification structure, what linguistic features are likely to be important? An answer is given in the following extensive quotation from Mohán et al (ms.):

"Genre analysis in systemic linguistics provides essential guidelines for answering this question. Christie and Rothery (1989) offer an accessible account based particularly on the work of Jim Martin and illustrated with examples from student writing. They give a simplified and partial summary which is shown in Figure 3.1.4.c. A "Report" genre includes a general classification, such as a classification of animals. A "Recount" genre is an account of a sequence of past events. The summary neatly captures some of the main genres and their linguistic features, but omits others, such as Judgment genres, which offer "an opinion or judgment supported by some kind of evidence", and Explanation genres, which "explain why some natural phenomenon is so" (Christie and Rothery 1989:80-81).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information</th>
<th>General</th>
<th>Procedure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Specific</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Recount</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3.1.4.c. A Summary of Different Genres in the Work of Christie and Rothery (1989)

Their analysis uses four systems of English: reference, transitivity, conjunction, and theme. These systems distinguish between the different genres of Figure 3.1.4.c. For example, reference divides into generic ("frogs are green") and specific ("that frog is green"), and is a major way to express the difference between general information and specific information. Transitivity includes relational processes ("that frog is green") and material processes ("that frog jumped") which are a major way to express the difference between a focus on things and a focus on events.
We want to relate the analysis of knowledge structures to Figure 3.1.4.c, so that we can build a bridge to previous work. We see knowledge structures and genres as complementary concepts. Figure 3.1.4.d summarizes the analysis used in the present study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLASSIFICATION</th>
<th>PRINCIPLES</th>
<th>EVALUATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Generic Reference</td>
<td>* Generic Reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Relational Process</td>
<td>* Material Process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>* Additive Conjunction</td>
<td>* Consequential Conjunction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical</td>
<td>* Taxonomic, Part/Whole Lexis</td>
<td>* Cause-Effect Lexis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level</td>
<td></td>
<td>* Generic Reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Material Process</td>
<td>* Mental Process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Consequential Conjunction</td>
<td>* Comparative Conjunction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Cause-Effect Lexis</td>
<td>* Evaluative Lexis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|                | * Generic Reference | * Material Process |
| Specific       | * Consequential     | * Temporal Conjunction |
| Practical      | * Conjunction        | * Sequential Lexis |
| Level          | * Evaluative Lexis   | * Choice Lexis |
|                | * Evaluative Lexis   | |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>SEQUENCE</th>
<th>CHOICE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Figure 3.1.4.d. Form-Function Relations in Student Discourse

There are a number of points of difference between Figure 3.1.4.d and Figure 3.1.4.c:

a) Figure 3.1.4.d deals with Choice and Evaluation, the "human consciousness" area indicated by "Judgment" genres that are omitted from Figure 3.1.4.c. We suggest that "mental process" transitivity may be an important realization in this area. One reason for this suggestion is that both Choice and Evaluation essentially imply human consciousness. Another is that it incorporates the third of three main transitivity groupings of Halliday (1994): being (which includes relational processes), doing (which includes material processes) and sensing, the world of consciousness, (which includes mental processes).
b) "Principles" in Figure 3.1.4.d is closer to Explanation than to Procedure, and involves causal-conditional relations rather than solely time-sequence relations.

c) Figure 3.1.4.d deals with knowledge structures (KSs), not genres. The difference can be illustrated with regard to descriptions of the human body, a clear case of a part-whole knowledge structure. In some cultures, the human body is standardly described from head to toe; in others, it is standardly described from toe to head. This difference would lead to a difference in genres between cultures, since the order of elements in text will differ. But it would not be a difference in knowledge structure, since the relation of parts to whole stays the same.

Thus Figure 3.1.4.d deals with the classification KS which forms part of a report genre, but not with the Report genre as a genre. It deals with the time sequence of events that forms part of a recount or a narrative, but not with all aspects of recount or narrative genres.

d) The KSs we are dealing with appear to be cross-cultural (See Werner & Schoepfle 1987). Werner and Schoepfle use many of them as ways of representing and analyzing cultural knowledge. Rather than thinking of them as culturally universal, we prefer to think of them as working metalanguage which explorations of cultural knowledge can extend and revise. This is a role that we would like to see them play in a multilingual, multicultural classroom.

e) The linguistic features chosen in Figure 3.1.4.d are intended to be those that specifically build knowledge structures, rather than those that characterize genres. In sequence, for instance, we aim to identify important features that build the time sequence of events; we are not concerned with other aspects of narrative as such, like initial orientation. It is our belief that the systems of reference, transitivity and conjunction are as important for KSs as they have proved to be for genres. These systems have a very direct relation to KSs. In our view, theme has a more complex relation, so it has been omitted from the analysis. Our basis for these systems is Halliday (1985, 1994) and Martin (1992).
We have added the feature of Lexis, because lexis is often an important realization of the semantics of the knowledge structure in a given text. In a classification discourse, if we say: "bears are animals", we draw on the lexical relation of classification between "bears" and "animals".

Our choice of features is not a dogmatic claim, but a working hypothesis whose purpose is to aid the analysis of texts, reflection and revision. Work on the analysis of KSs in discourse has only just begun. The choice of features is based on systemic work in the analysis of English. It is an open question, and an interesting one, whether similar features realize KSs in discourse in other languages.

Our aim in analyzing texts is to identify some of the main features which are associated with a given KS in text generally. We are not attempting to find all of the features.

f) We will present a graphic representation of each text example of a KS. In our experience, this is a useful way of making explicit our interpretation of the text and the KS. It also creates a place for the discussion of other interpretations and representations of the text and KS.

g) As we analyze texts below, we will follow a pattern. We will:
1) introduce a text and identify the KS that it represents;
2) present a graphic representation of the KS in the text;
3) specify the main semantic relation or relations that serve to construct the KS in the discourse example;
4) identify the key linguistic features that express the knowledge structure in the discourse, with particular attention to reference, transitivity, conjunction and lexis.

This ends the quotation from Mohan et al (ms.). While Mohan et al (ms.) discuss linguistic features with particular reference to English, an important aspect of the present study is that it will apply the analysis to Mandarin Chinese.
3. 2. Conduct of the Study

3.2.1. Getting into the Classroom

The first time I gained access to Ms. C's Chinese class was in March 1990 when I was conducting research for my master's thesis. In October 1990, the program which had been a pilot one was expanded into a full scale Chinese program. Though I had already completed the research for my master's thesis, I kept in touch with the on-going program. Out of my own interest and with the permission from the two teachers involved in the program, I went to Melba Elementary from time to time, sitting at the back of the classroom, talking with the teachers, getting myself familiar with the students. By the time I officially started my study in October 1991, I had already given students some time to become familiar with me and also given myself some time to get some general idea of the class regarding the size of each class and what the students had already encountered in their first year of Chinese learning.

In October 1990, as requested by Ms. C, I started coming to Melba to work as a Mandarin monitor two weeks before the Chinese class started. During the two weeks while I was planning and organizing in Ms. C's ESL classroom, some students in the Chinese program met and talked with me. By the time I walked into the first Chinese class of the year with the teacher together, most of the students knew that I was to work with Ms. C as a Chinese monitor. My active involvement did not turn out to be a surprise to the students at all. The students had already seen me as a natural part of the program.

3.2.2. Researcher Role
As the researcher, I acted as an observer participant to make on-site active observation (Bogdan & Biklen 1982:127-135) so as to get first hand information.

The study, because of its focus on the on-going process of designing and conducting classroom activities, was an intensive and extensive one in terms of the amount of time spent in the setting on a daily basis and the duration of the study over time. This kind of intensive and extensive study "requires the researcher to devote considerable time ... to developing trusting relationships with the participants" (Marshall & Rossman 1989:81). The development of such a relationship is largely dependent upon the roles that a researcher and the researched gradually assume. During the process of "role making" (Turner 1952:20), a researcher and the researched start from the phase of "surface encounter" wherein the parties relate as almost total strangers and limited interaction is permitted, through the phases of "proffering and inviting" and "selecting and modifying" wherein the involved parties "seek to expand the meanings of their own roles and the roles of the other" and definitions of roles are "selected" and "modified", to the phase of "stabilizing and sustaining" which is "characterized by a tenuous balance in the mutually accepted definitions" of the roles made by both parties for themselves and each other (Olesen & Whittaker 1967:274-278).

Ms. C and I were first introduced to each other because of our involvement in the development of a resource book for the elementary Chinese program in BC. After this "surface encounter," followed by a negotiation of the roles I could assume, I undertook my Master's research as a "participant observer" (Bogdan 1982:127-135) who was not involved in the designing of classroom activities. In October 1991, one year after the research project was completed, I came back to the school to work as a Chinese class
monitor\textsuperscript{5} out of my own interest and the request of Ms. C, the teacher. During the period between October 1991 to May 1992, I was actively working with Ms. C to design classroom activities. Sometimes, I was involved in teaching as well. Thus, I had become a co-teacher, co-designer instead of just a monitor. In fact, the role I assumed is the result of "proffering", "inviting", "selecting", and "modifying". And this is the role I performed throughout the study.

But because of the roles I played, both the planning and the implementation of classroom activities had been strongly affected by my involvement. Though the scene was no longer "intact" (as it would be without me) because of my active participation, the role I had assumed served my purpose for the study: it was the activities organized around the KF instead of "an intact cultural scene" (Borg & Gall 1989:492-493) that interested me.

Officially, as a monitor, I was not allowed to be involved in the planning and teaching. It was because of my research interest and the full trust the teacher gave me that I had gained the opportunity to work with the teacher cooperatively at the level of curriculum design and classroom implementation. In fact, the teacher and I were working as a team. Technically, I had assumed the role of an observer participant, a role which would not have been established if it were not for the study (McMillan & Schumacher 1989:393). And because of the role I had assumed, the research was in essence "action research" (Lather 1991).

In this action research, what had to be acknowledged is the power relations between the researcher and the researched. This acknowledgment is crucial because

\textsuperscript{5} In September of 1989, the BC Education Ministry started an experimental monitor program for the Chinese program in Lower Mainland in which each Chinese class required a monitor who was a native speaker of Mandarin Chinese to work as a cultural or language assistant with the teacher.
power relations "necessarily affect the research design in various stages, including ... the
kinds of questions asked ..., the nature of the data collected, and the emergent hypotheses
generated" (Roman 1992:301). From the point of view of "scientific realism" (House
1991:3), "the data which ethnographers use is a product of their participation in the field
rather than a mere reflection of the phenomenon studied" (Hammersley 1992:2). Thus,
the nature of the data I collected was strongly influenced by the role I assumed during the
research. Indeed, while in ethnographic research the relationship between the researcher
and the researched is important in obtaining reliable data, the relationship regarding
power relations requires more sensitivity. In the study, one of the focuses is the students'
attitude towards the activities around the KF. Since the relationship between the students
and me was the one between a teacher and the students, the students as the researched
became subordinates of me. Thus, I needed to beware that what I obtained from the
students as data could be what the students thought I would like to have, and hence the
data collected could be inevitably colored by the bias of the researcher. Awareness of
what might happen does not necessarily prevent it happening, but the acknowledgment of
such relations could at least help me and other potentially interested people to be aware of
the bias that the study might entail.

3.2.3. Lessons Observed

I started working as a Chinese monitor at Melba on October 9, 1991, but the first
Chinese class did not start until October 21. Data regarding language activities actually
conducted in the classrooms were gathered between October 21, 1991 and June 11, 1992.
(See Table 3.2.2 for summary of the lessons observed in both Section 1 and Section 2.)
During this period, I observed 105 lessons in total and tape recorded 63 lessons. In
Section 2, among the 51 lessons observed, 47 were relevant to the KF. In Section 3,
among the 54 lessons observed, 46 were relevant to the KF. For the whole year, two
thematic units were covered, i.e., personal information and Chinese New Year. In both sections, 34 lessons were on personal information.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Section 2</th>
<th>Section 3</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Observation period</td>
<td>91/10/21-92/6/11</td>
<td>91/10/24-92/6/11</td>
<td>91/10/21-92/6/11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total of lessons observed</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lessons tape-recorded</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lessons relevant to the KF</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lessons on Personal Information</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lessons on Chinese New Year</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.2.2. Observed Lessons

In addition to the observation in Section 2 and 3, starting from April 16, 1992, I conducted a small group session which involved 5 grade 6 students from Section 2. There were two reasons to have this extra session. By the end of March, both Ms. C and I could see that time had always been a pressure on us and very often we did not have control of how much time we could have for what we would like to accomplish. For my research questions, I would like to see what we could do in terms of activities designed around the KF for a complete unit. But it always took longer than we had expected to complete anything in classes. We knew that I would not see a complete unit if we did not try something else. Luckily, starting from April, because of time scheduling, some grade 6 students were asked not to go back to their own class right after their 40 minutes' Chinese class until 20 minutes later. Ms. C could not stay with these grade 6 students for that extra 20 minutes because she had her own ESL students to teach. Thus, I was asked to do whatever I thought appropriate with these 5 grade 6 students in that extra 20 minutes. This extra session covered 8 lessons. I did what we did not have time to do in the regular Chinese classes. All 8 lessons in that extra session were tape recorded. Thus, the data collection on the classroom language activities of the Personal Information Unit...
is reasonably complete and the observed 113 lessons together should be able to reflect the whole process of the classroom activities.

In Section 2 and 3, most of the lessons were taught by Ms. C. But there were occasions when I was asked to teach because Ms. C had to be away. But all 8 lessons in the extra session were taught solely by me.

Each lesson lasted 40 minutes. However, frequently large parts of the lesson were not directly related to my research questions. Sometimes, two thirds of a lesson was devoted to the rehearsal of a performance. Sometimes the children got too excited and Ms. C had to spend some time restoring order. A few times, the lesson was interrupted by school announcements. In addition, calligraphy done in that period was a legitimate part of each lesson. Thus, the time that could be shared by language activities relevant to the KF was indeed very limited. This explains why by the end of March I was in danger that I might not be able to accomplish what I planned.

Before I started data collection, I intended to use both audio and video tape recorders to record everything happening in classes. However, for various reasons, ethical and technical, video taping started very late. Nevertheless, since several data collection strategies were adopted, those data on lessons not video recorded can be complemented by those obtained in the field journal kept during my stay in the school.

3.2.4. Data Collection Strategies

"Every method of data collection is only an approximation to knowledge. Each provides a different and usually valid glimpse of reality, and all are limited when used
alone" (Warwick 1973). In order to obtain data from as many sources as possible, several data collection strategies were adopted at the same time.

**On-site participant observation.** The most elementary requirement of ethnographic methodology is "field residence, in which the researcher is present in the field or site for an extensive time", to be engaged in "a labor intensive mode of inquiry" which is termed as "on-site observation" (McMillan & Schumacher 1989:400). On-site participant observation was one of the major data collection strategies adopted in this research.

According to Marshall and Rossman, "Observation entails the systematic description of events, behaviors, and artifacts in the social setting chosen for study. ... Through observation, the researcher learns about behaviors and the meanings attached to those behaviors. ... Participant observation is a special form of observation and demands firsthand involvement in the social world chosen for study. Immersion in the setting allows the researcher to hear, see, and begin to experience reality as the participants do" (Marshall & Rossman 1989:79).

For the study, on-site participant observation helped me to identify the students, to get the general idea of the class, to get familiar with the teacher and the students, to experience the classroom atmosphere. Only by observing each lesson, could a close and critical reflection on that lesson be made and only by critically reflecting on what happened in the implementation of the plan of each lesson could decisions on the planning of the following lessons be sensibly made. So, the main target for on-site observation was: how were the activities designed (i.e. teacher planning) around the KF and how were they conducted in the actual teaching (i.e. the process of the plan implementation)? Did the pre-designed activities organized around the KF bring with
them a broad range of form-function connections when the students engage in them? If they did, how?

Audio/video tape recording. One of the research questions of the study was how teaching planned around the KF was implemented. Since the process of implementation involved non-verbal behavior and communication, and human activities are affected by spatial layout, video recording was used because "pictures of non-verbal communication and of the spatial layout of people can enhance analyses" (Hicks & Ellen 1984:199). Video "is particular valuable for discovery and validation." It "preserves activity and change in original form. It can be used in the future to take advantage of new methods of seeing, analyzing, and understanding the process of change" (Marshall & Rossman 1989:86).

For the study, lessons were audio tape recorded, which took about approximately 8 months, so as to obtain the complete record of all the classroom activities for future data analysis. Because of the delay in obtaining consent from the parents, video tape recording did not start until very late. Extensive field notes and audio tape together helped compensate for what was missed by the lack of video taping. Both tape recording and on-site classroom observation were to help investigate how plans were actually implemented, i.e., how the teacher engaged the students in the activities around the KF.

While video-taping could help me capture the process of classroom activities visually, it could also have certain weaknesses and limitations, such as expansiveness and intrusiveness. With the help from my department at UBC and by familiarizing the researched with being taped in advance, the limitations were overcome. A major concern was the ethical issue of using a video camera. The technical question was: how would the project be completed if some parents refused consent (i.e., some students could not be
video taped)? The ethical question was: was it possible for those who would not be involved in the study to continue to stay in the program and avoid being video taped at the same time? The answer was that with whole class activities, the focus was to be on the class as a whole, not on individual students. So, for those whose parents did not consent, I managed to avoid getting them audio/video taped by using a direction microphone and by not video-taping them through carefully positioning the camera. Thus, these students managed to continue their Chinese learning without having to participate as subjects in the study.

Since the use of the target language induced by the classroom activities was one of the focuses, audio taping was used at the same time in order to record the verbal interaction. Though video taping could also record the verbal interaction, technically, it was more convenient to use a tape recorder for transcribing.

**Keeping a Field Journal.** One of the concerns a researcher has is the analysis of the huge amount of data that will be collected. Though classroom activities organized around the KF were the main focus, what was recorded in the video/audio tape recorder was not necessarily limited to the desired activities. Taking attendance, checking homework, making announcements, discussing and preparing for a field trip, etc., occupied a significant space in the tape. According to my previous experience, what was expected to happen (such as the conduct of the pre-designed activities) might not happen at all because of various kinds of interruptions. Thus, what was to be left in the audio/video tape might be something irrelevant to the study. To help the eventual data analysis, I kept a field journal as a record which has a part briefly describing the content of each lesson, so that I knew, when the time came, where to look for the relevant tapes for transcription and analysis. In addition, the journal also helped to record those events that were relevant to the study but could not be tape-recorded, such as those taking place...
outside the classroom. This record helped enhance the possibility of more correctly interpreting the obtained data in the analysis.

**Collecting lesson plans.** Teacher planning was a main focus of the study. A series of lesson plans entails the process of planning. A lesson plan records the intention of the teacher for a particular lesson in the form of a document. Thus, copies of lesson plans, produced as the joint effort of the teacher and me, the researcher, were collected as "artifacts" (McMillan & Schumacher 1989:411) so as to study teacher intentions. The questions to be asked in relation to the collection of lesson plans were how they were developed and how they were carried out.

**Collecting students' language products.** Language products (both oral and written work) were collected and analyzed. The investigation focused on the form-function relations reflected in the students' language work to decide if the students benefited from the activities they had engaged in. Since one of the most important questions that the study pursued was whether the language activities organized around the KF could bring with them a broad range of form-function connections in the students' use of the language, the collection of the students' language products was a crucial step to answering the research question.

**Interviewing students.** Because of the "limited scope of things which can truly be observed" (Holy 1984:25), to expect observation to be powerful enough to obtain all the necessary data seems overoptimistic. Thus, interviewing is introduced as one of the main data collection strategies in ethnographic research. For the present research, both the teacher and the students were interviewed in the form of "informal conversational interviews", which means that "the questions emerge from the immediate context and are asked in the natural course of events" (McMillan & Schumacher 1989:405). The teacher
was interviewed in the process of co-planning and the questions without predetermination were in relation to teacher intention. As for the students, I interviewed them during the process of working with them in and outside the Chinese class and the questions were in relation to opinions, values, and feelings so as to examine the students' attitudes towards the activities they had engaged in.

3.2.5. Transcription

Since the focus of this study is on the classroom language activities, what was transcribed were the utterances of the teacher and the students. Those utterances in Chinese were transcribed into Chinese characters and then the characters were transcribed into Hanyu Pinyin -- a phonetic system. Those utterances in English were transcribed into English.

3.2.6. Data Analysis

"Inductive analysis" (McMillan & Schumacher 1989:415) was used for establishing the patterns, themes, and categories, such as teacher intention, students' attitudes, the kinds of activities designed and conducted, and types of language used. At a more detailed level, in the analysis of student task discourse, discourse analysis of the language interactions examined the linguistic functions of the interaction. More specifically, how systemic-functional analysis (Halliday 1985) can be adapted to undertake such discourse analysis was investigated.

The analysis of the students' task discourse. Knowledge Structure Analysis, which bases its analysis on the theory of the KF and draws upon the work of systemic-functional linguistics (See Halliday 1985, 1994; Martin 1992; Christie & Rothery 1989,
etc.) and ethnographic research (Werner and Schoepfle 1987), was applied to student discourse. This analysis concentrated on certain semantic relationships which appeared in genres (Martin 1992) and were fundamental to them. However, it did not analyze the sequential aspects of genres, but looked at the semantic relations which underly a variety of sequential patterns.

The analysis of teacher intention and students' attitudes. To validate data analysis, triangulation, which is "the cross-validation among data sources, data collection strategies, time periods, and theoretical schemes" (McMillan & Schumacher 1989:418), was used for establishing data trustworthiness. For the analysis of both teacher intention and the students' attitudes, triangulation means cross-validation among data obtained from observing, interviewing, and artifact collection (i.e., lesson plans for teacher intention, students' language products in both written and transcribed oral form for students' attitude).

Epistemologically, all human knowledge is "presumptive" (Campbell 1977) and "direct learning through our sense experience is colored by our state of mind" (Werner & Schoepfle 1987:58). What was essential for me in the process of data analysis was to "seek counter-patterns as well as convergences if data were to be credible" (Lather 1986:65).
Chapter 4
Data Presentation and Findings---Part I
The Design and Conduct of Classroom Language Activities

This chapter reports on the findings of the study on the process of designing and conducting classroom language activities around Mohan’s KF in Chinese as a foreign language classes at Melba Elementary. The discussion with data presentation of the chapter is organized to highlight five themes that gradually emerged during the process of my data collection and analysis: 1) initial teacher planning vs. curriculum as experienced; 2) graphic organizers and language product; 3) language use elicited vs. that imposed; 4) student discourse--language product situated in specific context; and 5) students' attitude towards the activities. The focus of this chapter is on the first three research questions raised earlier:

1). How is teaching planned around the KF and how are the plans implemented in the classroom?
2). What is the relationship between the students' involvement in the activities organized around the KF and the students' use of the target language?
3). What is the students' attitude towards the activities organized around the KF?

By means of providing a detailed analytical descriptive narrative of the actual teaching and learning situation, the chapter aims at presenting a picture of the on-going process of the classroom activities which served as the context for the student language product.

4.1. Teacher Planning vs. Curriculum as Experienced

4.1.1. Initial Planning

For this particular Chinese program of this particular year (Oct. 1991- June 1992), Ms. C and I were responsible for everything, from choosing materials to providing a time
frame for units. All classroom activities were co-designed by Ms. C and me. Following the curriculum guide, we had decided, before we started teaching, to cover as many topics (See Table 3.1.3) as possible. For every topic, we were to use the KF to organize classroom language activities, i.e., we were to have the students engage in activities of classification, description, principles, sequence, evaluation, and choice for every topic we would cover. Personal Information was the topic we decided to start with.

In addition to the available curriculum guide and the KF, we also decided to use Chinese Reader for Children Book II (Youer Hanyu Keben Xiace) as a supplementary material and integrate it into the KF. This is a Chinese language textbook published in China and provided for free by the Chinese Consulate in BC. Though language-based, it contains many useful language items for personal daily life and some for school life with some colorful visuals. It also contains clear demonstration of Chinese character writing. We decided it was handy to employ as one of the materials.

Our initial planning started with activities of describing and classifying on the topic of Personal Information (PI), which actually included clothing, school, and family though in the curriculum guide PI, school, and family are listed as different topics. Since all the three topics had been touched on in the previous year, putting them together for a general review was thought to be a good way to start a new year. After all, for these students, to communicate about their personal life often meant to include their school life and family life. We saw potential for more language involvement by putting them together into one topic.

Data show that the original plan (See Appendix A for the original plan) distributed 4 lessons to the activities of description and classification:
Lesson 1:
1. Using a big piece of paper for a chart and pictures of fictional people, teacher models how to fill out a classification chart (to be used for both describing and classifying) by interacting with each other in Chinese.
2. Students fill out their own chart by interacting with each other in Chinese.

Lesson 2:
1. Have the whole class work together in pairs to fill out the big classification chart on board.
2. As homework, students fill out a similar chart (previously designed by us) for family members.

Lesson 3:
1. Using homework chart, students tell about their family members.
2. Using the classification chart for the whole class, find out "how many" students are boys, girls, Canadians, at the age of 10 or 11, working after school, attending school to study.

Lesson 4:
1. Using another classification chart with extra information on clothing, teacher demonstrates how to play a guessing game: teacher gives a description in Chinese, students guess who is described.
2. Students play the game.

After a lesson on Pinyin and characters following the four lessons on classification and description, activities of sequencing and generalizing students' daily activities would be conducted.

According to this initial planning, it seemed at this point that we could manage to finish the first topic, i.e. Personal Information, within about 15 lessons, which means if we had 50 to 60 lessons in the whole year, 3 to 4 topics could be covered. Nevertheless, it took much longer than we expected to conduct any one of the tasks we designed. In reality, it took 17 lessons to engage in the activities of classifying and describing, 14
lessons of sequencing, and 3 lessons of evaluating and choosing. Activities of principle were conducted in the special group (in 4.5 lessons of 20 minutes) instead of in regular classes because of the limited class time. Some tasks related to the classifying activity were also conducted in the special group, which took 2.5 lessons of 20 minutes. Thus, the total number of lessons on the topic of Personal Information, including those conducted in the special group, was 41 instead of 15 as originally expected.

On the surface, the huge gap between the initial planning and the actual teaching is very surprising. But when the actual teaching was investigated at a deeper and more detailed level, the emerging picture turned out to be a very comprehensible curricula which was not dominated by a predesigned plan but gradually developed in the process of actual teaching.

4.1.2. Curriculum as Experienced

Table 4.1.2.a. summarizes the lessons actually conducted in relation with the KF in regular classes. For regular classes, in the months of October, November, and December of 1991, 16 lessons were in relation to the KF and all the 16 lessons were conducted around the KS of Description. In January and February of 1992, 13 lessons were conducted to relate to the Chinese New Year. The activities were organized around the KSs of Principles and Sequence. In the middle of January, 1 lesson was given for a test: students were asked to write a paragraph describing themselves, using what they had learned. From February to May, we came back to the topic of Personal Information and conducted 14 lessons around the KS of sequence. From the end of May to June 4, the last formal lesson of the year, 3 lessons were conducted around the activities of Evaluation and Choice on the topic of Personal Information. In addition to the lessons conducted in regular classes, I managed to conduct 8 lessons of 20 minutes in the special group to
cover what we could not accomplish in regular classes. Table 4.1.2.b. summarizes the lessons conducted in the special group. Among the 8 lessons conducted in May and June, on the topic of Personal Information, 3.5 lessons were on the activities of principles, 3.5 lessons on classification, and 1 lesson on evaluation and choice. Thus, for the unit of Personal Information, activities that were actually conducted involved all the six major KSs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th># of Lessons</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>KSs Involved</th>
<th>Note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10-12/1991</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>PI*</td>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2/1992</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>CNY*</td>
<td>P/S</td>
<td>Chinese New Year is around this period of time. The lessons were conducted to prepare the students for a Chinatown field trip. The focus was on both cultural learning and language involvement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1/1992</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>PI</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>students writing a description paragraph as a test.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-5/1992</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>PI</td>
<td>S</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-6/1992</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>PI</td>
<td>E/C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1.2.a. Lessons Actually Conducted in Relation with the KF in Regular Classes

* PI: Personal Information; CNY: Chinese New Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th># of Lessons</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>KSs Involved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5-6/1992</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>PI*</td>
<td>Principles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-6/1992</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>PI</td>
<td>Classification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>PI</td>
<td>Evaluation/Choice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1.2.b. Lessons Conducted in the Special Group

* PI: Personal Information
To highlight the major theme of this thesis, i.e. classroom language activities around the KF, the following presentation and discussion on the curricula as experienced will focus on the activities around the topic of Personal Information.

**Activities conducted around the KF on the topic of Personal Information**

Around the topic of Personal Information, activities for all the six major KSs were designed and conducted (See Table 4.1.2c for a summary of these activities). We started with the activities of description. The students were lead to engage in activities of describing themselves and their classmates by name, sex, nationality, age, grade, clothing, the fact they did or did not work, etc. They were also invited to describe their family members in a similar way. Based on the information that the students provided by means of describing themselves and their classmates, the students were asked to classify their classmates into different groups, such as those who were girls, those who were boys, those who attended school to study, those who worked after school. So this classification was actually based on the information provided by the previous description activity.

For the KSs of Principles and Sequence, the students were first invited to sequence their daily activities which was actually an account of their daily routine. Based on the information provided by the activity of sequencing, the students were asked to choose three basic major daily events and explain the reasons they engage in them regularly. The activities of Principles and Sequence gave the students a chance to get familiar further with their own and their classmates' daily life. This familiarity prepared the students for the next and last step, that is to compare and evaluate the daily life of their own and the one in China. For the last step, the daily life of Lili, a Chinese elementary school student, was introduced to the students. Then the students were asked to compare and contrast their own daily life and the one of a student in the target culture.
Based on this comparison and contrast, the students were invited to show their personal preference for daily life styles. At this point the whole topic was completed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Principles</th>
<th>Evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CLASSIFYING people into those who attend school and those who don't; those who work and those who don't. (O/W)</td>
<td>EXPLAINING the REASONS you engage in the three major daily activities. (O/W)</td>
<td>EVALUATING your daily life and the one of a Chinese elementary school student by COMPARING and CONTRASTING the two kinds of daily life. (O)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DESCRIBING yourself and your classmates by name, age, sex, grade, nationality, etc.. (O/W)</td>
<td>SEQUENCING your daily activities. (O/W)</td>
<td>Showing your PERSONAL PREFERENCE for the kind of daily life. (O)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DESCRIBING yourself and/or your family. (O/W)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1.2.c. Activities Conducted around the KF on the Topic of Personal Information.

These activities were designed and conducted around the KF. From the perspective of content learning, the students had a chance to learn about their classmates, to obtain general information about their class, to share information on their daily activities, to look into the reasons behind their major daily events, to learn about student
life in the target culture, and to share their personal preferences. From the perspective of
type of language development, the activities around various KSs provided the students with
opportunities to use the language associated with different KSs for real communication
purposes. (For specific analysis on student use of the target language, especially in terms
of form-function relations, see Chapter 5.) The use of particular items of the target
language was not for the sake of using them but out of the need to be able to successfully
engage in socially and culturally meaningful activities. In addition, since the activities of
different KSs require different thinking skills, such as classifying, observing, interpreting,
sequencing, comparing, contrasting, evaluating, etc., by engaging in these activities, the
students were involved not only socioculturally and linguistically, but also cognitively.

Though multi-functional, looking simple and straightforward as summarized in
Table 4.1.2c, these activities were not conducted with the expected ease in the actual
teaching. Quite a number of steps had to be taken in order to facilitate the students' engagement. Students were actually involved in a series of tasks before an activity of any
KS could be completed.

**Activities of Description and Classification**

Activities of Description conducted in regular classes involved 6 major tasks as
shown in Table 4.1.2d:
Task 1
Find out personal information of some students in class by filling out a chart of classification and description (Chart 1) through interacting with each other.

Task 2
Find out personal information of all the students in class by filling out a big C/D chart (Chart 1b) for the whole class.

Task 3
Introduce family members (Chart 2).

Task 4
Guessing game: Guess who is described according to the available information on clothing (Chart 3).

Task 5
Guessing game: Guess who is described according to all the available personal information.

Task 6
Describe yourself in a written paragraph.

Table 4.1.2.d. Tasks Involved in the Activity of Description.

These 6 tasks were spread out into 17 lessons (See Table 4.1.2.dd for a summary of the relevant part in the 17 lessons) and one task might be started without another one being finished. Here, it is important to keep in mind the fact that the time for each lesson was not solely spent on the activities around the KSs. Very often when other business (such as taking attendance, checking homework, dealing with characters, practicing calligraphy, etc.) was done, there were only 20 minutes left. In addition, since the students met only twice a week for Chinese and had difficulty finding a person to practice with outside the Chinese class, it always took some time for the students to warm up before they could engage in language activities. Thus, for any task, the progress was slow.
As shown by Table 4.1.2.dd, Task 2 took the longest time (as long as 12 lessons) to be accomplished. To fill out the big chart (Chart 1b) for the whole class, which was used as one of the key visuals, the students had to come to the front in pairs and to ask each other for information to be put on the chart. Very often the time available allowed only two pairs to do the job. As for Task 4, the students first of all had to learn the vocabulary of clothes which inevitably involved colors. Then they used new vocabulary
to describe classmates. It took the students 5 lessons to get ready for the guessing game. Task 5 involved several steps. First the students were asked to write an anonymous paragraph describing themselves. Then, the paragraphs were collected and distributed to different students. Every student was supposed to read to the class the paragraph he or she got. Based on what was read, the audience guessed who had written the paragraph. This task, which the students enjoyed very much, took 3 lessons to complete.

It is true that it took a painfully long time to engage in the designed activities of classification and description. But when these activities were examined as actually being conducted in the actual teaching situation, the time it took is no longer surprising.

The activity revolving around Classification was conducted by me in the special group in April and May of 1992 when Ms. C and I realized that we would not have time for it in regular classes. It took 3.5 lessons of 20 minutes each and involved 3 tasks as shown in Table 4.1.2.e:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Content of the Tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task 1</td>
<td>Discuss the criteria used to classify people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task 2</td>
<td>According to the information provided by the big classification chart for the whole class (Chart 1b) which had been completed before Christmas, classify classmates by their birth dates, using a birthday classification chart (Chart 5a) for help.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task 3</td>
<td>Classify classmates into girls, boys, those who work, those who don't work, etc., using a provided classification chart (Chart 5b).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1.2.e. Tasks Involved in the Activity of Classification

Task 1 occupied 1 lesson; so did Task 2. Task 3, which had two parts, was accomplished in 2 lessons. First, the students were invited to orally classify their classmates by using Chart 5b as reference. Then, they were asked to turn the chart into a written paragraph.
All the 3 tasks were designed to engage the students in the activity of Classification. Though initially challenged, all the students managed to complete the tasks successfully with the help of the teacher. Data analysis on student discourse shows that (See Chapter 5 for detailed analysis) by engaging in the activity of classification, the use of language associated with the KS of classification was involved.

**Activities of Principles and Sequence**

For regular classes, only the activity of Principles was conducted. The students were invited to sequence their daily events in the form of journal writing. This activity covered 14 lessons and involved 6 tasks as shown in Table 4.1.2.f:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Content of the Tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task 1</td>
<td>Establish the concepts of time in Chinese: early morning, morning, noon, afternoon, evening, and night.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task 2</td>
<td>Students make decision on the vocabulary items they will need for daily events, using a daily event timetable in English (Chart 6).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task 3</td>
<td>Students sequence their daily events in Chinese, using a daily event timetable in Chinese (Chart 7).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task 4</td>
<td>Based on chart 7, students work on a sequencing chart (Chart 8) to prepare for a journal writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task 5</td>
<td>Students write a journal of a typical day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task 6</td>
<td>Journal reading.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1.2.f. Tasks Involved in the Activity of Sequence

As for the activities of Classification and Description, the 6 tasks were spread out into 14 lessons and the overlapping of tasks throughout the lessons was usual. Table 4.1.2.f summarizes the content of the relevant part of the lessons on Sequence.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson</th>
<th>Content of Lessons</th>
<th>Related Tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>*Chinese concepts of time discussed; vocabulary for these concepts introduced: early morning, morning, noon, afternoon, evening, and night.</td>
<td>T1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>*The whole class, with the teacher as the leader, worked on a daily event timetable (Chart 6) in English; *Based on the chart, decision made on the most useful language items to be used at the moment for daily events.</td>
<td>T2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L3</td>
<td>*Vocabulary of daily events and time words reviewed with pictures.</td>
<td>T3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L4</td>
<td>*Students talked about their daily events using time words for both periods of time and points of time.</td>
<td>T3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L5</td>
<td>*More language items in relation with daily events introduced out of students' need; *Time words reviewed in talking about daily events.</td>
<td>T3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L6</td>
<td>*Language items in relation with daily events reviewed with picture cards; sequencing words introduced.</td>
<td>T3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L7</td>
<td>*Students sequenced (i.e., putting in order) a series of cards of daily events (no time for oral interaction).</td>
<td>T3, T4, T5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L8</td>
<td>*Sequencing game: students physically and orally sequenced cards of daily events.</td>
<td>T3, T4, T5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L9</td>
<td>*Students individually worked on daily event timetables in Chinese (Chart 7); *Based on Chart 7, students completed a sequencing chart (Chart 8); *Journal based on Chart 8 started.</td>
<td>T3, T4, T5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L10</td>
<td>*Journal writing continued: draft.</td>
<td>T5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L11</td>
<td>*Students worked on the final draft of the journal.</td>
<td>T5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L12</td>
<td>*Journal finished.</td>
<td>T5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L13</td>
<td>*Selected journals read by students to the whole class; *Audience orally translated those journals into English (for comprehension check).</td>
<td>T6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L14</td>
<td>*The same as L13.</td>
<td>T6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1.2.ff. The Content of the Relevant Part of the Lessons on Sequence
Task 1 was a relatively easy one. It took only one lesson to have the task accomplished. Through a class discussion, the students realized that in Chinese, the difference between early morning and morning is more important than in English. The students also discussed in English how to define each unit of a day, i.e., from when to when in terms of time (e.g. from 6:30 a.m. to 8:00 a.m.) should be counted as a certain unit (e.g. early morning). It was the vocabulary of the units of a day that took most of the time. Pictures were used to help the students associate the sounds with the concepts. There was also much repetition of the new words from both the teacher and the students. As in most second or foreign language classes, listening, saying after the teacher, repeating, etc. went through all the lessons. Still, the next time the students met again, quite a number of language items covered in the previous lesson had been forgotten by the students. Thus, reviewing in various forms was an on-going process throughout the unit.

Task 3 is the one that took the longest time, 7 out of 14 lessons in all. To fill out a daily event timetable in students' first language is a very easy task. But to do it in Chinese is a completely different story. First, the students had to have all the vocabulary they needed for daily events. Then, different kinds of time words had to be learned. Since the students were also to be asked to sequence their daily events, sequencing words had to be dealt with as well. Thus, Task 3 was in fact linguistically very demanding. Table 4.1.2.ff shows that introducing and reviewing new language items in various ways occupied 6 lessons before the students finally were ready to work on their daily event timetable (Chart 7) and the sequencing chart (Chart 8). Very often the new items were introduced by the teacher through the use of various visuals. When classes were taught by Ms. C, translation was often involved. The students were encouraged to take notes.
with translation of the new language items. Reviewing was conducted in several ways: to translate from L1 to L2 and vice versa; to have the students talk about their daily events in Chinese; and to play a sequencing game, i.e. student A orally sequencing a series of daily events and student B, by listening, physically sequencing a set of cards of a series of daily events. By the time when the students were asked to work on their own daily event timetables, most of the students could handle the task with ease.

Task 5, which was journal writing, took the second longest time: 6 lessons. The actual writing occupied 4 lessons in which several drafts were produced with the help of the two teachers in class. But before that, students were engaging in Task 3 and 4 to get prepared. In fact, this journal writing was the high point. All other tasks served to help get this task successfully accomplished. The student text analysis in Chapter 5 reveals the linguistic result of the activity of sequence which was made up of these tasks.

The activity of principles was conducted by me in the special group. It took 3.5 lessons of 20 minutes each to complete and involved two tasks as shown in Table 4.1.2.g:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Content of the Tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task 1</td>
<td>Choose three major daily events from their daily event timetables.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task 2</td>
<td>Explain reasons they regularly engage in these three major events.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1.2.g. Tasks Involved in the Activity of Principles

Table 4.1.2.gg summarizes the content of the 3.5 lessons on Principles conducted in the special group. Since there was no other business to be handled and discipline was never a problem for these 5 students, all the 20 minutes in each lesson was completely devoted to the pre-designed tasks. Task 1 was easy for the students and it took them only 5 minutes, with the help of their daily event timetable to decide which daily events they would like to talk or write about. Though Task 2 was relatively more difficult because of
the language demand, the students were enthusiastic about the task. No language items were initiated by the teacher. All of those used in student discourse were asked for by the students when they felt the need. Since this was an activity of principles, linguistic items associated with the KS of principles were naturally elicited (See Section 4.2. for details).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson</th>
<th>Content of Lessons</th>
<th>Tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>*Three major daily events chosen from the completed daily event timetable;</td>
<td>T1, T2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>*Task 2 assigned;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>*Students asking for needed language items while trying to fill out a chart of principles for Task 2 (Chart 9).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>*Students transforming Chart 9 into a paragraph of principles, i.e. a paragraph about the reasons they regularly engage in the three major daily events.</td>
<td>T2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L3</td>
<td>*Students reading their paragraphs to each other; *Questions asked and answered in Chinese about what was read.</td>
<td>T2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L4</td>
<td>*Students correcting each other's paragraph on Principles with the help of the teacher.</td>
<td>T2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1.2.gg. The Content of the Lessons on Principles.

Activity of Evaluation and Choice

The activity of Evaluation and Choice was conducted in both the regular classes and the special group. For the regular classes, 3 lessons were involved. In the special group, one lesson of 20 minutes was used to cover what was not undertaken in the regular classes because of time. Thus, the total number of lessons on Evaluation and Choice was 4. During these 4 lessons, students engaged in tasks which made up the activity of Evaluation and Choice:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Content of the Tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task 1</td>
<td>Read a provided text in Chinese to learn about a Chinese elementary school student's daily life in China; use a sequencing chart about the text (Chart 11) to help comprehend and analyze the text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task 2</td>
<td>Based on Chart 11, compare and contrast different kinds of student daily life in China and Canada, using two comparison charts (Chart 12, Chart 13) to help.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task 3</td>
<td>Based on the above evaluation show personal preference for a kind of life, using a decision making chart (Chart 14) to help.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1.2.h. Tasks Involved in the Activities of Evaluation and Choice

It was through the lessons conducted in both the regular classes and the special group that the 3 tasks were accomplished. Table 4.1.2.hh summarizes the content of the 4 lessons conducted in relation with the activity of Evaluation and Choice that was made up of these tasks.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Content of Lessons</th>
<th>Related Tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>regular classes</td>
<td>*Students reading the text <em>Wode Richang Shenghuo</em> (My Daily Life); *Teacher demonstrating how to work on Chart 11 for better understanding; *Students working on Chart 11 in pairs.</td>
<td>T1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>regular classes</td>
<td>*Students completing Chart 11 in pairs; Teacher going through Chart 11 with the class to make sure all the students understand the text; *Based on Chart 11, students working in pairs on Chart 12 and 13 to compare and contrast; *Teacher filling out the large size Chart 12 and 13 with the whole class by means of having the students provide information in Chinese; *Teacher explaining how to use the decision making chart (Chart 14) to make rational decision on personal preference;</td>
<td>T2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L3</td>
<td>regular classes</td>
<td>*Students working on Chart 14; *Students presenting their personal preference by reading a passage based on the chart completed by themselves.</td>
<td>T3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L4</td>
<td>special group</td>
<td>*Teacher demonstrating how to use Chart 14 to tell about personal preference without depending on other written materials such as the passage they used in regular classes; *Students trying to tell about their personal preference (a decision made on the basis of evaluation) for the kind of student daily life, using Chart 14 for help.</td>
<td>T3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1.2.hh. The Content of the Lessons on Evaluation and Choice.

Task 1 was designed for cultural learning, intending to give the students some idea about Chinese elementary students' daily life. Chart 11 was used as a visual aid to
facilitate better understanding and better analysis of the content message conveyed in the provided text. When Chart 11 was completed, the students obtained a very clear idea about Lili’s daily life at a detailed level (See Section 4.2. for detailed analysis). This knowledge about a Chinese elementary school student's daily life became the starting point of the following comparing and contrasting tasks.

Task 2 which was to compare and contrast was the basis for Task 3 which was to make decision on personal preference. Without comparing and contrasting, i.e., evaluating, no rational decision can be made. On the surface, the task of making decision was easy. But to make a decision based on reasons, the students had to be cognitively involved. Not only that, the students were also invited to talk about their decision with reasons provided. Thus, the language involved went beyond that usually used in action situations at the practical level. The linguistic items associated with the KS of evaluation, i.e., a KS usually involved in background information at the theoretical level, had to be used. This finding is presented at a detailed level in Chapter 5.

As in the activities of other KSs, the designed charts were used as visual aids to facilitate either the learning (or understanding) of content or students' language production. Section 4.2. in the following will focus on the discussion of the use of visuals. The designed visuals for all the activities in the unit of Personal Information helped the students manage to produce longer discourse, either in written or oral form, which would have been very difficult otherwise.

4.1.3. Discussion

Several points stand out of the data analysis on the initial planning and the curriculum as experienced. The first one is concerned with the huge gap between the
initial plan and the actual teaching. There are several reasons for the existence of this gap. First, the initial plan only outlined some activities in relation with the KF. It was a plan based on what had been done before and what we believed should be done next instead of being based on the present situation of the classes and the students. In the actual teaching, what was existing at the moment became the dominant element directing the curriculum. Factors including the students' ability to understand the tasks, linguistic demand on the students, discipline problems induced by group work, the limited time for the students to meet for Chinese class, lack of opportunity to practice the language outside the class, and the requirement of assigning no homework, all stepped in the way of carrying out the initial plan. Thus, to meet the students' need, the teachers had to alter the plan. The analysis in Section 4.1.2 shows that this alternation of the initial plan was not undertaken without a legitimate reason. In fact, the initial plan was employed as a guideline to start the teaching and it was in the real teaching where the teachers and the students interacted that a live curriculum as experienced was gradually developed. Without an initial plan, there would not have been a starting point. Without interacting with the students in the actual teaching, the teachers could not have obtained the information as a basis to develop a curriculum as it was being experienced. In this case, the initial planning served to guide the initial classroom instruction. Information obtained through classroom instruction in return served to help develop the curriculum which was to be used to guide following instruction. This was a process that recycled without ending.

The second theme that has emerged is concerned with the distribution of time to activities of different KSs. Obviously, time was a very important element upon which the teachers decided when to start and when to stop a certain activity. While all the activities of the three KSs in action situations at the practical level (i.e., Description, Sequence, and Choice) were conducted in regular classes, no time was available for the activities of
Classification and Principles. It seems that priority was likely to be given, as in most of language programs, to the activities in action situations. But to have students engage in various cognitive skills and to bring about a broader range of form-function relations in language use, it is important to engage the students in activities of the KSs at the theoretical level. Lessons conducted in the special group show that it is possible to do that. Nevertheless, we cannot expect that the students should automatically engage in the activities of giving reasons for actions. It is a skill that has to be taught and learned. Lessons have to be intentionally planned to make it happen.

The last point I would like to address is concerned with the use of many teaching techniques for language learning. Though the lessons were conducted on the basis of activities organized around the KF, many language teaching techniques similar to those found in other foreign language classrooms, such as pattern drills, translation, question and answer, repeating after the teacher, etc., were involved. Those techniques were used to help facilitate the use of the target language involved in the designed activities. After all, this is a cultural and language learning program. Language has always been one of the aims.

4.2. Graphic Organizers in Relation to Content Learning and the Student Use of the Target Language.

To help the students successfully engage in the language activities around the KF, many visual aids were employed. Graphics in the form of charts were designed for both content learning and language production. All together, 15 charts were designed and used in the unit of Personal Information (See Appendix B for samples of the charts completed by the students). In addition, flash cards and pictures (See Appendix C) were
also used as visual aids to help understanding and language practice. In this report, I employ the term "graphics" to refer to the designed charts for the activities around the KSs, the term "visuals" to flash cards and pictures, and the term "visual aids" to cover both of them. The focus is on the graphics as both content and language organizers.

4.2.1. Graphics for Activities of Classification and Description

For the activities of Classification and Description, 6 charts, i.e. Chart 1, 2, 3, 4, 5a, 5b, were designed. Charts 1, 2, 3 are classification charts directly used for description and indirectly used for classification. Chart 4 is actually a language organizer for colors. When colors in Chinese were introduced to the students, a big similar color chart was put on the board to be used for reference. Chart 5a and 5b are classification charts. But they were developed and completed on the basis of Chart 1.
Table One: Classify and describe your classmates.

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Chart 1
Table Two: Classify and describe your family members.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>family member</th>
<th>nan</th>
<th>nu</th>
<th>sui</th>
<th>shengri yue hao</th>
<th>guo</th>
<th>gongzuo</th>
<th>shangxue</th>
<th>nianji</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

Chart 2
Table Three: Mingzi: __________________
Describe your classmates Laoshi: __________________
by what they wear Nianji: ________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>mingzi</th>
<th>shangyi</th>
<th>kuzi</th>
<th>qunzi</th>
<th>lianyiqun</th>
<th>xie</th>
<th>wazi</th>
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</table>

Guessing game: Ta shi shei?

Chart 3
### COLORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Color</th>
<th>Chinese Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>red</td>
<td>hong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blue</td>
<td>lan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>black</td>
<td>hei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>green</td>
<td>lu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yellow</td>
<td>huang</td>
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<tr>
<td>white</td>
<td>bai</td>
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<tr>
<td>brown</td>
<td>zong</td>
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<tr>
<td>orange</td>
<td>cheng</td>
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<tr>
<td>pink</td>
<td>fen</td>
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<tr>
<td>grey</td>
<td>hui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>purple</td>
<td>zi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>colorful</td>
<td>hua</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 4
Table Four:

Classify your classmates according to the month they were born.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>mingzi:</th>
<th>nianji:</th>
<th>laoshi:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. Women ban you ______ ge ren.
   ban ______

2. ______ ge ren de shengri zai ______ yue.
   de zai ______

3. ______ ge ren de shengri zai ______ yue.
   de zai ______

4. ______ ge ren de shengri zai ______ yue.
   de zai ______

5. ______ ge ren de shengri zai ______ yue.
   de zai ______

6. ______ ge ren de shengri zai ______ yue.
   de zai ______

7. ______ ge ren de shengri zai ______ yue.
   de zai ______

8. ______ ge ren de shengri zai ______ yue.
   de zai ______

9. ______ ge ren de shengri zai ______ yue.
   de zai ______

10. ______ ge ren de shengri zai ______ yue.
    de zai ______

11. ______ ge ren de shengri zai ______ yue.
    de zai ______

12. ______ ge ren de shengri zai ______ yue.
    de zai ______

13. ______ ge ren de shengri zai ______ yue.
    de zai ______

Chart 5a
Graphic One:
Classify your classmates.

mingzi: __________
nianji: __________
laoshi: __________

Chart 5b
Chart 1 was used to find out personal information about the students in the class. To complete the chart, the students had to linguistically interact with each other. When the students just started working on the task, it often took a long time because of the language demand. The following example is typical of how the students interacted with each other in pairs when trying to fill out the chart:

Example 1 (tape, Oct. 29, 1991):

I was working with two boys.
Sa:  *Ni jiao shenmo mingzi?  [What is your name?]*
Sb:  *Wo jiao ____.*  [I am called ____.*]
Sa:  *Shi, shi, Ni shi nanhai ma?  [Are, are, are you a boy?]*
Sb:  *Wo--, Wo--,  [I, I, ]*
Sa:  Don't go *bu*, because if you go *bu*
T:  Don't tell him. Don't tell him.
Ab:  *Wo--, ok, I know now. Wo nanhai.*  [I boy.]*
Sa:  *Wo bu*  [I no]
Sb:  [confidently]  *Wo shi nanhai.*  [I am a boy.]*
Sa:  Yes. OK. Uh--,
Sb:  *Wo bu shi nuhan.*  [I am not a girl.]*
Sa:  [looking at the chart] That's hard. Uh--, *Ni jiao, Ni jiao, shi*  [You are called, you are called, you are]
T:  *Ni jisui?*  [How old are you?]*
Sa:  *Ni jisui?*  [How old are you?]*
Sb:  *Wo shi, wo shi, Wo shisui.*  [I ten, I ten, I am ten.]*
Sa:  *Nide shengri ji yue ji hao?*  [What is your birthday?]*
Sb:  *Wo--, wo--, wo jiu, wo, ok, wo jiu--*  [I, I, I nine, I, ok, I nine]*
Sa:  *Wode shengri*  [My birthday]*
Sb:  *Wo jiu*  [I nine]*
T:  Wait, listen. *Wode shengri* (pointing to the date for birthday in the chart)
Sa:  My birthday is
Sb:  I see. *Wo--, san--, shiba.*  (confidently)  *Wo sanshiba.*  [I thirty eight.]*
T:  What does that mean?
Sb: I am in March 18th.
T: San yue shiba hao. [March 18th.] You have to say the month and the hao. Otherwise, I can't
Sb: San-- [third]
T: yue [month]
Sb: San yue shi ba. [March 18]
T: hao.
Sb: hao.
T: Right. Hao means date. You have to say that in Chinese.
Sa: So it is March.
T: San yue shiba hao. [March 18.]
Sb: San yue shiba hao. [March 18.]
(Students taking notes for how to say it; teacher teaching how to write characters for the numbers; students repeating after the teacher for pronunciation.)
Sb: Wo guo Jianada [I country Canada], oh, that's Sb's question.
T: (to Sa) Ask him the question.
Sa: Ni shi na guo ren? [Which country are you from?]
Sb: Wo guo Jianada ren. Oh, bu shi, Jianada bushi [I country Canadian. Oh, am not, Canada is not]
T: Wo shi [I am]
Sb: (confidently) Wo shi Jianada ren. [I am Canadian.]
Sa: Ni gongzuo ma? [Do you work?]
Sb: Wo shi bu gongzuo. [I am not work.]
T: Wo bu gongzuo without shi. [I don't work without "am".]
Sb: Oh. Wo bu gongzuo. [I don't work.]
Sa: Um--, Ni shangxue ma? [Do you attend school?]
Sb: Wo shi-- [I am]
T: No, without shi. Shangxue [attend school] is a verb.
Sb: Oh. Wo shangxue. [I attend school.]
T: Right. Next.
Sa: Ni shang wu--wu nian--ji ma? [Are you in grade five, five?]
T: Ni shang wu nianji ma? [Are you in grade five?]
Sb: Wo shang wu nianji. [I am in grade five.]
Sa: Ni shang liu, liu nianji ma? [Are you in grade six?]
Sb: Wo--, bu (not sure, looking to the teacher)
Yes, right.

Wo bu liu nianji. [I not grade six.]

Wo bu shang [I am not in]

Wo bu shang liu nianji. [I am not in grade six.]

Nide laoshi shi shei? [Who is your teacher?]

Wo--laoshi [I teacher] (looking to the teacher)

Mrs ___. (Looking to the teacher)

Teacher ____

Oh. __laoshi. [Teacher ____]

Ok. You say it to me.

The above interaction took 6 minutes. It only gave Sa the time to fill out one row in the chart. Originally, the teacher was to give the students 5 minutes to have 4 rows completed. But because of the language demand, it actually took much longer time for the task to be finished and a lot of help from the teacher was necessary. Nevertheless, part of language development is a matter of practice. Four weeks later when the students were asked to engage in a similar task, they did a much better job in terms of both fluency and accuracy. A comparison between Example 1 and Example 2 shows that after several lessons of practice, the students could do the job with much ease.

Example 2 (tape, Nov. 25, 1991)

One student was asked to be the recorder to fill out one row in Chart 1b. Student Sc was asked to answer all the questions from different students (S):

S: Ni jiao shenme mingzi [What is your name]?

Sc: Wo jiao ____ [I am called____].

S: Ni shi nuren ma [Are you a woman]?

Sc: Wo shi nuren [I am a woman]?

S: Ni shi nanhai ma [Are you a boy]?

Sc: Wo bushi nanhai [I am not a boy].

S: Ni ji sui [How old are you]?

T: (correcting tones)
Sc:  *Wo shiyi sui* [I am eleven years old].
S:  *Ni shengri ji yue ji hao* [When is you [sic] birthday]?
Sc:  *Wode shengri wu yue yi hao* [My birthday is May 1].
S:  *Ni shi na guo ren* [Which country are you from]?
Sc:  What did you say?
T:  Listen to the question. *Ni shi na guo ren*?
Sc:  *Wo shi Jianada ren* [I am Canadian].
S:  *Ni gongzuo ma* [Do you work]?
T:  (correcting tones)
Sc:  *Wo gongzuo* [I work].
S:  *Ni shangxue ma* [Do you attend school]?
Sc:  *Wo shangxue* [I attend school].
T:  The next one, you can ask it in two ways. You can use *Ji*, so that she can
give you a number. And you can ask her directly if she is in grade 5.
Then you can ask if she is in Grade 6. So, let's see what happens first.
S:  *Ni shang wu nianji ma* [Are you in grade five]?
Sc:  *Wo shang liu nianji* [I am in grade six].
T:  OK. She asked you if you are in grade 5 and you directly said you are in
grade 6. So, we don't need another one for 6. Last one.
S:  *Nide laoshi shi shei* [Who is your teacher]?
T:  (correcting tones)
Sc:  *Wo shi laoshi ___ laoshi* [I am teacher ___ teacher].
T:  You have to say *shi* in this sentence. *Wode laoshi shi ___* [My teacher is].
Sc:  *Wo de laoshi shi ___ laoshi* [My teacher is teacher ___].
T:  *Feichang hao* [Very good].

The above interaction covers the same content as the one in Example 1 but took 2
minutes, i.e., 4 minutes less. Though it was not perfect as evidenced by the teacher's
interruption for tones, it went on much more smoothly. The chart served on the one hand
as a guide for the students to concentrate on the content message they were to
communicate about and on the other hand as a basis for a classification chart to be
developed later on.

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Chart 2 was used for a guessing game. A big completed chart 2 was put on the board. One student was invited at a time to give clues using the chart. The student was supposed to provide clues by means of producing a cluster of sentences based on the information on the chart. But the title of the family member should be kept secret for the audience to guess. Example 3 shows how a student orally provided clues using the chart.

Example 3. (Tape, Oct. 31, 1991)

Ta shi nanhai. [He is a boy.]
Ta shi, ta bushi nuhai. [He is, he is not a girl.]
Ta shi, si sui. [He is, ten years old.]
Tade shengri liu yue qi hao. [His birthday is June 7.]
Ta shi Jianada ren. [He is a Canadian.]
Ta bu gongzuo. [He does not work.]
Ta shangxue. [He attends school.]
Ta shishei? [Who is he?]

In this task, every clue giver had a chance to use the target language as discourse, i.e., an oral text made up of coherently related sentences produced in a specific context. To be able to engage in the guessing game, the audience had to understand what was said by the clue giver and what was written on the chart so as to match the provided clues to the right family member on the chart. This is a task that was both linguistically and cognitively demanding and the students liked it.

Chart 3 was also used for a guessing game. The class was divided into groups which took turns in providing a clue giver. Each group first had to locate a person in the class. Then group members worked together to take notes on Chart 3 about that person's clothing. To make sure every one got involved, the student who was to orally give clues was randomly chosen by the teacher. When a student was chosen as a clue giver, he or
she had to use complete sentences to describe the clothes worn by the person being described. A typical description produced by clue givers is as shown in Example 4.

Example 4: (Tape Nov. 28, 1991)

*Ta chuan bai shangyi.* [He is in white top.]
*Ta chuan hei kuzi.* [He is in black pants.]
*Ta chuan hei xie.* [He is in black shoes.]
*Ta chuan bai wazi.* [He is in white socks.]
*Ta shi shei?* [Who is he?]

Listening attentively, other students had to use the information provided by the clue giver to locate the described person. This game provided the students with the opportunity to use the language associated with clothing description. The chart helped organize not only the content information but also the organization of the orally produced discourse.

Charts 5a and 5b were designed and used for activities of Classification. The activity was conducted in the special group. Based on Chart 1b, which is the completed Classification and Description chart for the whole class, the students had to complete Chart 5a and 5b first. First we discussed who should be counted as the people making up the class. The students decided to include the two teachers as part of the class. Though the teachers came to school everyday, they did not necessarily *shangxue* (attend school to study). Following the discussion, the students were invited to talk about the charts, using classification language. After demonstrating how to do it, I asked the students to do the same. They made a few mistakes such as omitting measure words. But they did a good job in terms of producing a cluster of sentences logically connected for a topic. This was evidenced by the following example:
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<th>Name</th>
<th>H</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>m</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>sh</th>
<th>m</th>
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<th>m</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>f</th>
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<td>Ryan</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>+</td>
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<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Heather</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>+</td>
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<td>Veronica</td>
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<td>Jeff</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leanne</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Geoff</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>+</td>
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<td>Erich</td>
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<td>Owl</td>
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<td>Cindy</td>
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<td>Aced</td>
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<td>Christine</td>
<td>X</td>
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<td>Diana</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Breanne</td>
<td>X</td>
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<td>Jason</td>
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<td>Paul</td>
<td>X</td>
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<td>Shary</td>
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<td>Jason</td>
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<tr>
<td>Megan</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>+</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example 5: (Tape: May 21, 1992)

Women ban you ershisan ge ren.
Shangxue, shangxue ershier ge ren.
Ershier ge ren shangxue.
Yi bu shang, yi ge bu shangxue.
Shangxue de ren san ge, you san ge gongzuo.
Shangxue de ren you ershi bu gongzuo.
Gongzuo de ren, gongzuo de ren ling nanhai.
Gongzuo de ren you san nuhai.
Bu gongzuo de ren you liu nanhai, liu ge nanhai.
Bu gongzuo, bu gongzuo de, de men, de ren you shisi nu hai.

[Our class has 23 people. Attending school, attending school, 22 people. 22 people attend school. One does not attend, one does not attend school. Attending school people, 3, 3 work. Attending school people, 20 do not work. Working people, there is 0 boy. Working people, there are three girls. Non working people, there are six boys, six boys. Non working, non working, men, people, there are 14 girls.]

The above oral text was produced in 2 minutes with the help of Chart 5b. The students felt the task challenging, which was shown by their facial expression such as giving a gasp. But after they made it, they felt proud, "I made it! I can't believe it!" Written work was assigned after this oral work. The students also did a good job (See Chapter 5 for details) with the help of the graphic organizer, i.e., Chart 5b.

4.2.2. Graphics for Activities of Principles and Sequence

For the activities of Principles and Sequence, 5 graphics (See Chart 6, 7, 8, 9, 10) were designed and used.
Daily Life Timetable

早上

上午 8:45-10:15
10:15-10:30
10:30-12:00

中午 12:00-1:00

下午 1:00-3:00

晚上

Chart 7
mingzi: _________________

Shangwu wo xian ___________________,

ranhou _________________________,

zuihou _________________________.

Xiawu wo xian ___________________,

______________ hou _______________,

ranhou _________________________.

Wanshang wo __________ qian __________,

______________ hou _______________,

ranhou _________________________,

zuihou _________________________

Chart 8
List in Chinese three things you do every day and give the reasons for doing them: What will happen if you don't do them?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>what you do</th>
<th>reasons for doing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chart 10

[Handwritten notes in Chinese]

155

June 15, 1994
Chart 6 was in English. It was designed to help students understand the concept of sequencing and have the students decide what language items were to be used in order to engage in such an activity in Chinese. This chart was completed in English by the whole class. Based on the completed Chart 6, a list of vocabulary was compiled by the teachers (See Figure 4.2.1) and distributed to the students.

Chart 7 was a sequencing chart similar to Chart 6 but in Chinese. The students were asked to fill it out after a few lessons on time words and sequencing words. Based on completed Chart 7, Chart 8 was completed by the students. Then the students started working on a journal of a typical day. Text analysis on students' journal in Chapter 5 shows that these graphic organizers effectively facilitated the students' production of longer discourse with a variety of language devices associated with the KS of sequence.

Chart 9 was designed for the activity of Principles which was conducted in the special group. The students were first asked to fill out the chart. Then, they were invited to write about the chart. This is a chart that helped students organize their thoughts and their language. To communicate about the chart, language associated with the KS of Principles was probable. The following provides an example to show how language of Principles was elicited:

Example 6: (Tape: April 2, 1992)

Wo meitian shuijiao. [I sleep everyday.]
Yinwei wo ruguo, ruguo wo bu shuijiao, wo hui-- kun. [Because, if, if I, I do not sleep, I will--be sleepy.]
Wo mei, meitian chifan. [I every, everyday eat.]
Yinwei ruguo wo bu chifan, wo hui e. [because if I do not eat, I will be hungry.]
Wo meitian shuijiao, no, shuaya. [I everyday sleep, no, brush my teeth.]
Yinwei ruguo wo bu shuaya, wo huibu--jiang, jiankang. [because if I do not brush my teeth, I will not--be health, healthy.]
DAILY ACTIVITIES:
Vocabulary Chart

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Meaning</th>
<th>Mingzi</th>
<th>Nianji</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>wake up</td>
<td>qichuang</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get dressed</td>
<td>chuanyi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brush teeth</td>
<td>shuaya</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>take a shower</td>
<td>xizao</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wash hands</td>
<td>xishou</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wash face</td>
<td>xilian</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get ready for school</td>
<td>zhubei shangxue</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class begins</td>
<td>kaishi shangke</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>school work (class)</td>
<td>shangke</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recess</td>
<td>kejian xiuixi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>play</td>
<td>wan/war</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>play ball</td>
<td>warqiu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do homework</td>
<td>zuo jiating gongke</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after-class activities</td>
<td>kewai huodong</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>watch TV</td>
<td>kan dianshi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do house work</td>
<td>zuo jiawu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>read</td>
<td>dushu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get ready for bed</td>
<td>zhubei shuijiao</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sleep</td>
<td>shuijiao</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have breakfast</td>
<td>chi zaofan/zaocan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have lunch</td>
<td>chi wufan/wucan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have supper</td>
<td>chi wanfan/wancan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.2.1. Vocabulary for Daily Events
After this oral practice, the students were asked to turn the chart into a written paragraph. Students' written products about the chart are analyzed in Chapter 5.

While Charts 6, 7, 8, and 9 are in the form of worksheets, Chart 10 (See Chart 10) was used by the teacher as visual aid when sequencing words such as xian, qian, ranhou, and zuihou, were introduced to prepare the students for Chart 8. Chart 10 is actually a flow chart which sequences a person's daily events. In the actual teaching, the chart was used slightly differently in different groups taught by different teachers. When it was used in Group 2, five sequence words were put on the board as in the following:

\[
\begin{align*}
xian & \quad \text{first} \\
nanhou & \quad \text{then} \\
\_\_\_ qian & \quad \text{before}\_\_\_ \\
\_\_\_ hou & \quad \text{after}\_\_\_ \\
zuihou & \quad \text{lastly}
\end{align*}
\]

After going through the above vocabulary list, the teacher read to the student a sequence text that goes with Chart 10 while pointing to the chart. Then students' comprehension was checked through students' translation before the students were asked to work on Chart 7 and 8.

In Group 3, there was no list of the five sequence words on the board. The teacher mostly depended on the chart. To make sure that the students understood the Chinese language regarding the 6 daily events on the chart, the teacher first asked the students to tell in Chinese what each picture in the chart was about. Then, pointing to the chart, circling the arrow when a sequence word was said, the teacher gave an oral text of sequence (as the text that goes with the chart) about the chart. As in Group 2, the students had a problem understanding ___qian because of the difference existing in the
structures of the two languages. But instead of going for translation, the teacher drew the students' attention to the picture. By listening to the teacher repeat the same sentence and concentrating on the chart (which is a graphic representation of Sequence) at the same time, most of the students gradually figured out the meaning of ___ qian. Students' comprehension was evidenced by the fact that they could tell correctly which event came before which one in the chart when being asked. The understanding of ___ qian did not come from the word itself. It came from the context presented by the chart which is the sequence of a person's daily events. The discourse situated in the context gave the clue for the understanding of that particular language item.

4.2.3. Graphics for Activities of Evaluation and Choice

For activities of Evaluation and Choice, 4 charts (See Chart 11, 12, 13, 14) were designed. They were used to help content learning and language involvement.
Complete the following table after reading *Lili de Richang Shenghuo*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>shijian (time)</th>
<th>huodong (activity)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7:00 - 7:45</td>
<td>qu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8:00</td>
<td>shangke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:00 - 2:00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:00 - 4:00</td>
<td>kewai huodong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6:00 - 7:00</td>
<td>hui jia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7:00 - 9:00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:00</td>
<td>shuaya, xizao</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 11
Tell where you would like to be a student, in China or in Canada by comparing nide richang shenghuo with Lili de richang shenghuo.

1. Duoshao ge xiaoshi? (How many hours?)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>shangke</th>
<th>zuo gongke</th>
<th>wanr</th>
<th>kan dainshi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ni</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lili</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 12

2. Meitian xuexi duoshao xiaoshi? Wanr duoshao xiaoshi?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>xuexi</th>
<th>wanr</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ni</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lili</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 13
3. Compare and make decision:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>country</th>
<th>characteristics: time spent in xuexi and wanr</th>
<th>compare: xuexi duo/shao? wanr duo/shao?</th>
<th>choice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zhongguo</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Wo yuanyi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Before the students were embarked on the charts, a written text about a Chinese elementary school students (see Chart 15: The Text) was provided. Then the student were asked to fill out Chart 11. An example of a completed Chart 11 is shown in Appendix B. Chart 11 is actually a form of graphic representation of the Text. From the perspective of content learning, the chart helped the students better understand the content message conveyed in the Text. From the perspective of language production, the Chart helped the students retell the Text without having to depend on a good memory. Since the chart makes the content well organized, the task of talking about Lili's daily life became less demanding. The following example shows what a student orally produced with the help of the completed Chart 11.

Example 7: (Tape: May 28, 1992)


[Early in the morning at seven forty five, Lili gets up, uh--, then puts on her clothes, then brushes her teeth, washes her face (not clear). At seven forty five, she goes to school. In the morning at eight, at eight Lili begins to have class. From eight to, to twelve she has classes. At noon from twelve to two, two, two she eats lunch, then rests. In the afternoon at two, from two to four, she, uh--, Lili has class. After, from four to five, five after class, does, does homework. Five, from five (not clear). In the evening from six to seven, she, uh--, Lili eats supper. Then from seven to nine she (not clear) does homework. At night nine to ten, Lili brushes her teeth, then takes a bath. At last at ten she goes to sleep.]
Please read the following passage and complete the worksheet attached.

我 de rìcháng shēnghuó

我 jiào Lìlì. 我 zài 中国上小学. 我上小学五 niánjī.

Měitiān 早上我 xiǎn qǐchuáng, 演hòu chuānyī. Shuāyá, xǐliàn hòu chī zhǎofàn. 7:45 qù 上学. 我们 8:00 kāishǐ shàngkè.

上午 8:00 dào 12:00 yǒu 四 jié kē.

中午 12:00 dào 2:00, 我们 chī wǔfàn, xiūxī.

下午 2:00 dào 4:00 shàngkè. 4:00 dào 5:00 kěwèi huódòng.

Ránhòu huíjiā.

晚上 6:00 dào 7:00 chī wǎnfàn. Wǎnfàn hòu zuò jiātǐng ɡōnɡkè.

9:00 zhǔnbèi shuǐjiào. Shuǐjiào qián, 我 shuāyá, xǐzǎo. Zuìhòu 10:00 shuǐjiào.

我 pínɡchánɡ bù kàn diànsī. Zhōumò kàn diànsī.

Měitiān: everyday
jie: measure word for ke
huíjiā: go home
pínɡchánɡ: usual days (i.e. weekdays)
zhōumò: weekend

Chart 15
The Text
A boy produced this long speech in just 1 minute. Though not perfect, the passage conveyed the content message very clearly and all the sentences were coherently organized. The language associated with the KS of sequence was heavily involved (See Chapter 5 for detailed analysis). When the boy finished, he had a proud smile on his face.

Chart 12, 13, and 14 were designed to help the students engage in the task of making decisions with reasons. Both Chart 12 and 13 are comparison charts. When the charts were completed, the difference between two different kinds of student life in different countries (Canada and China) became very obvious. These two charts gave the students a base to rank or evaluate in Chart 14. Based on their evaluation, the students made their decision with reasons provided. For detailed analysis on the elicited language product from this activity, see Chapter 5.

4.2.4. Discussion

Using a large number of visual aids is one outstanding feature in the process of teaching the unit of Personal Information. While pictures and flash cards (See Appendix C) helped the students relate sounds in an unfamiliar language to the concepts they had learned in their first language, the graphics helped students understand new concepts or content message conveyed by a text and helped organize their thoughts and language when interacting in the target language. These graphics were organizers for both content and language.

From the perspective of content or cultural learning, these graphics played a role in lowering the linguistic demand on the students when understanding was the focus. For
instance, Chart 2 (See Chart 2) is made up of two parts: a table on the top and a classification chart on the bottom. The chart at the bottom shows very clearly that there is a big difference when people address their grandparents from different sides in Chinese. From this chart, even without any instruction from the teacher, the students could easily see the existence of this difference in terms of Chinese language. (Of course if the students would like to understand why there exists such a difference, they had to turn to the experts (in this case, the teachers) for help. In fact, the teacher, being required by the students, did give a short lecture on Chinese culture regarding this difference: the word *wai*, which means "outside", comes from the idea that once a woman is married to a man, she automatically becomes a member of the man's family (which includes the man's parents) and is thus no longer considered as from inside of her original family.) If what is at the bottom of the chart were a string of Chinese words conveying the same message, it would be hard to imagine that the students could see as easily as they did the way that Chinese people classify and address their family members.

Another example to show the power of graphics to help understanding for content learning comes from the use of Chart 11 (See Chart 11). Though in the Text for Lili's daily life (See Chart 15), there were only five new vocabulary items for the students and the meaning of all of them was provided at the bottom of the Text, most of the students still had difficulty comprehending how Lili's life was so different from theirs after they read the text. It was after they filled out Chart 11 that they realized what a difference existed between the students in China and Canada.

From the perspective of language development, these graphics helped the students use the target language beyond the level of words, phrases, and even sentences. Very often, what was produced both orally and in written form was a complete discourse out of a specific context, as evidenced by the Examples provided above. With the help of the
graphics, some of the texts they produced, considering the students' proficiency level in Chinese, were quite long as shown by Example 7. These charts helped the students organize the content they communicated about and thus lowered the demand of the task on the students. To communicate in a foreign language is not an easy job for a beginner. Both the form of the language and the message to be communicated about in the language have to be handled simultaneously. The graphics that were used in the unit helped organize the content and thus made the tasks of using the target language to communicate less demanding. As a result, producing longer discourses became possible for the students.

The usefulness of visual aids has been recognized for quite a long time in second or foreign language programs. What has been revealed by the above examination is that the power of visual aids can go beyond helping students understand the meaning of a vocabulary item or a particular concept. It can help situate a particular language item in a specific context so the understanding of that particular language item becomes the understanding of part of a discourse.

Furthermore, these charts are graphic representations of various KSs around which the activities were organized and conducted. They represent the way people organize their knowledge. If we say that the activities organized around the KF provided the students with opportunities to use the language associated with various KSs, then the graphics helped the students create the opportunities for actual use of the target language associated with various KSs.

4.3. Language Use Elicited vs. That Imposed
One of the differences existing between the program that I investigated for this study and the one I investigated for the previous study (Huang 1991) is that there was no imposed limitation on the use of language items for the designed activities in the present program.

In the previously studied program, one of the requirements set up for the teachers designing activities was to use only the language items listed in the unit concerned and the units that had been taught in the curriculum guide. This means that the language the students were to use came not out of the need to engage in language activities but from a vocabulary list in the curriculum guide. Two disadvantages exist for such a plan. First, human languages are a tool for human beings to use to engage in meaningful, purposeful human activities. By designing activities according to a list of language items, activities become the means and language takes the position of being the purpose. This is in basic disagreement with the purpose of language. Second, the language that students need for successful activity engagement does not come from an imposed list of language items. To engage in activities of different KSs requires specific language associated with these KSs. If the students are limited to the use of the imposed language items, activities of certain KSs might possibly not be conducted. This is exactly what happened in the program I previously studied. Language activities of Principles were not included in the observed teaching unit simply because there were no language items associated with the KS of Principles that were provided in the curriculum guide. If we believe that a broader range of form-function relations is beneficial to students' language development, then activities of various KSs, which are the source of opportunities for language use involving different form-function relations, should not be limited by a list of language items.
In the program that was presently studied, no language items were imposed. All the language the students used came out of the need to successfully engage in designed activities. Actually, many new language items were asked for by the students. For instance, when we started the activity of sequence, it was the students who gave us the idea of what language items they needed in order to engage in the activity of sequencing their daily events. Without students having told the teachers what they did everyday, the teachers would not have been able to compile a list (See Figure 4.2.1.) that the students really needed. The list is a long one and it is obvious that the students could not learn all of them at once. What happened is that they chose from the list whatever they needed and used whatever they had to for the sequencing activities. Since what they chose were the ones they needed to use for tasks again and again, they learned them quickly.

The activity of Principles gave the students another opportunity to ask for necessary target language items. For this activity, the students were invited to explain why or give the reasons they engaged in certain daily events everyday. The following items were asked for by the students when they were working on the activity:

\[\begin{align*}
\text{bixu} & \quad \text{must} \\
\text{yinwei} & \quad \text{because} \\
\text{zang} & \quad \text{unclean, dirty} \\
\text{e} & \quad \text{hungry} \\
\text{jiankang} & \quad \text{healthy}
\end{align*}\]

*Bixu* is a word that people often use for setting up rules. *Yinwei* is a word that explicitly indicates a cause-effect relationship. *Zang, e,* and *jiankang* are the words indicating the results of certain behavior. All of them are the language associated with the KS of Principles. The students asked for them because they were engaging in the activity of Principles and they needed these language items to be successful in the activity.
Not all the language that the students used was requested by the students. But they were not imposed on them either. Language used as shown by the examples in Section 4.2 was elicited by the designed activities. It was the activities that required those language items and it was the activities again that provided the students with the opportunities for the use of these language items. Thus, the language used and learned was elicited instead of being imposed.

One point worth noticing is that although language associated with certain KSs was elicited, the students did not automatically used all the linguistic devices available. When the students in Group 3 were asked to start writing their journal of a typical day using their completed sequence charts as reference, most of the students used many time words for periods of time and points of time. But few used sequence words that had just been introduced. Noticing this, when the students in Group 2 were asked to start working on the same task, the teacher emphasized that sequence words were also good language devices for the journal and at least 4 sequence words should be used in their journal. This resulted in a big difference (See Chapter 5 for specific text analysis). It seems that with a new language item unfamiliar to the students, the students tend to go the easy way. They use whatever they feel most comfortable with. Encouragement from teachers and being conscious of the available devices are very important for the students to try the new language item. Activities of KSs provide the opportunities for the use of language associated with the KSs. To materialize the opportunities into actual use, students need encouragement and the consciousness of the available linguistic devices.

4.4. Student Discourse--Language Product Situated in Context

The term discourse has been mainly defined in three ways: as language above the sentence (Hymes, 1974; Van Dijk, 1985; Grimes, 1975, etc.), as language use (Fasold,
1990), and as utterances as social interaction (Schiffrin 1994). In this discussion, Scheffrin's definition of discourse, the third one, is adopted for its capability to include the other two (See Section 3.1.4 of the thesis). Thus, discourse is viewed as being "above other units of language and arises as a collection of inherently contextualized units of language use" (Schiffrin 1994:39). Following this definition of discourse, student discourse refers to student use of language as a collection of inherently contextualized units of language.

As revealed by the actual practice of discourse analysis, discourse is a concept closely related to the concept of context (Schiffrin 1994). Knowledge, i.e., what speakers (or writers) and hearers (or readers) can be assumed to know, situation, i.e., social circumstances, and text defined as linguistic context have all been viewed as context. Data analysis of the present study shows that these three (i.e., knowledge, situation, and text) worked together to create a specific context from which student discourse was produced. But, it is the activities the students engaged in that provided the opportunities for the three to get into the picture and play a role.

First, the conducted activities organized around the KF activated the knowledge that the students had already had and generated the knowledge that was new to the students. In these activities, talk was "used to construct knowledge. This is a social, historical process, in the sense that the talk generates its own context and continuity, so that the knowledge that is created carries with it echoes of the conversations in which it was generated" (Mercer 1995:84). In the activity of Classification, the students were asked to classify their classmates according to certain criteria (i.e., to classify them into those who attended school to study and who did not; who worked after school and who did not; who were boys and who were girls). Students already had the knowledge that people could be classified into different groups by certain standards. The activity of
classifying people provided the opportunity to utilize, or activate, this knowledge. What the students did not know was some specific information about their classmates, such as if they worked or not after school. To successfully engage in this classification activity, the students had to gain this information. By interacting with each other (as shown in Example 1, and 2), this new knowledge was obtained, or generated. This new knowledge about their classmates was generated by the requirement of this particular classification activity. Without this activity, the students would not have had the need to gain this new knowledge. The two kinds of knowledge, i.e., the activated and generated ones, then worked together to form part of the basis for the production of students' classification text (See Example 5 in Section 4.2 and Text 5.2.1 in Chapter 5).

An examination of the activities of Evaluation and Choice provides another example showing how existing knowledge could be activated and new knowledge generated by activities. To make rational decisions on personal preference for different kinds of school life, students had to compare and contrast two different kinds of life in China and Canada. The knowledge about school life in Canada was the existing knowledge which had to be utilized in comparing and contrasting. However, school life in China was something that was beyond students' existing knowledge; it had to be gained. The task of completing a sequencing chart (Chart 11 based on the Text of a Chinese student's daily life) as part of the activity of Evaluation and Choice provided the students with the opportunity to gain this new knowledge. From there, the two kinds of knowledge formed a base for the production of a text of Evaluation and Choice (See Texts 5.2.5.a, b, c in Chapter 5). Actually, all the texts of all the six KSs that the students produced do reflect knowledge, either the activated kind or the generated kind, that they utilized when engaging in the activities of various KSs. These two kinds of knowledge formed part of the base, or context, from which student discourse was produced.
But knowledge activated and generated by activities forms only part of a context. People do not interact, or communicate, simply because they have certain knowledge. There has to be a situation (or social circumstance) in which the need for communication exists. The study shows that the conducted activities did create such a kind of situation. To engage in the activity of describing classmates, the students had to find out about their classmates. Getting to know each other, playing guessing games, describing or introducing themselves to others, are the social circumstances that the activity created. Under these circumstances, knowledge about selves and others was either activated or generated. Then the knowledge and the situation together formed the context for the students' language product which is description texts (See Example 1, 2, 3, 4 in Section 4.2).

We see the same situation for all the activities. A sequence text (See Chapter 5 for students' journal on daily events as sequence texts) was produced partially on the basis of the knowledge that a student had about his or her daily events, and partially out of need in a social circumstance which is the student being asked by the teacher to sequence his or her daily events. The activity of Principles created a situation in which the students were required to rationalize their engagement in certain daily events. This social circumstance together with students' knowledge about these daily events provided the basis for the production of their Principles texts (See Example 6 in Section 4.2 and Texts 5.2.4.a, b, c in Chapter 5). The activities of Evaluation and Choice required the students to make rational decisions based on personal preference. Under this social circumstance, the students produced texts of Evaluation and Choice (See Texts 5.2.5.a, b, c in Chapter 5), using their knowledge about two different kinds of school life. In a word, the activities of various KSs created various situations in which communication became a need. Without such a need, it would be hard to imagine that these student texts could be produced.
In addition to knowledge and situation, text defined as linguistic context also plays a role in forming or creating a specific context. Here text refers to "any coherent, meaningful stretch of language, regardless of its length" (Christie & Rothery 1989:8). Based on the present study, that text forms a specific context for discourse can be illustrated from both oral discourse and written discourse. From the perspective of interactional sociolinguistics, language contextualizes and is contextualized (Schiffrin 1994:134). Discourse is not only situated in context such as knowledge, situations, or social circumstances, but may itself also be organized by what is said (See Goffman 1963). The interactions illustrated in Example 1 and 2 in Section 4.2. show this clearly. The dialogues were patterned in ways that reflect not only the knowledge the students had, the situation the students were in, but also what had been said. One utterance was made not only out of the knowledge and the situation, but also based on the previously produced utterances. The question *Ni shang ji nianji* [Which grade are you in?] was asked partially because what had just been said is *Wo shangxue* [I attend school to study]. In the dialogues, except the first utterances which were situated in situations (i.e., getting to know each other) and knowledge (i.e., the way to start a conversation in order to know each other), all other utterances were partially situated or contextualized in the previously produced utterances. This applies to written text as well (See Chapter 5 for detailed analysis). The evening events were sequenced in the journal partially because what had already been sequenced in the first few parts of the writing was the morning, noon, and afternoon events in order. Data on both oral and written student texts shows that text itself also contextualizes discourse. But again, it is the activities of various KSs that provided the opportunity for parts of such texts to be produced to contextualize the whole discourse. Without these activities, even the very first utterance of a text would not exist, to say nothing of contextualizing.
More relevant to the present study is the kind of discourse that was produced. Data shows that the discourse of different KSs was produced in specific contexts created by the activities of different KSs (See Section 4.2, and Chapter 5). The activities of Classification and Description actually activated and generated the knowledge relevant to the KSs of Classification and Description such as the concept of class, properties or characteristics of different people, etc., which is the knowledge that people often utilize when classifying and describing. They also created a social circumstance in which the students interacted with each other to get to know each other and to engage in guessing games. The texts contextualized by the knowledge of Classification and Description and the situation of classifying and describing were classification and description texts which further contextualized the following discourse. Thus, it can be argued that the activities of Classification and Description actually created a very specific context for discourse of Classification and Description to be produced. This argument holds for the activities of other KSs as well. Activities of Principles and Sequence contextualized student discourse of Principles and Sequence. And activities of Evaluation and Choice contextualized student discourse of Evaluation and Choice. In this way, the activities organized around the KF created contexts in which discourse of different KSs under the same content topic was produced by the students.

To sum up, the conduct of the designed classroom language activities around the KF provided opportunities for students' existing knowledge to be activated, new knowledge generated, and situations or social circumstances formed. The knowledge and situation worked together, contextualizing discourse. The existing discourse worked together with knowledge and situation to recontextualize further production of student discourse. Since the activities of different KSs contextualized the discourse of different KSs which involved specific linguistic features associated with different KSs (See
Chapter 5 for detailed analysis), they played a role in eliciting student discourse with a broader range of form-function relations under the same content topic.

4. 5. Students' Attitude towards the Activities

The data on students' attitude towards the activities came from two sources: classroom observation of students' participation and informal interview with the students. General response towards the activities was positive though there were students who were frustrated when feeling challenged by the language demand involved in the activities.

First, what has to be kept in mind is that the students in this Chinese program were not selected according to certain standards. They were ordinary 5th and 6th graders who happened to be in those two grades. Like the children in any other school, about one third of the students came from broken families and family problems might be bothering some students even when they were physically in school. Some students enjoyed school work more than other things and some other students had different priorities in their lives. In addition, there was the "no homework" policy, though research shows that the time spent on homework is in direct proportion to students' academic achievement in school (See McAdams 1994, Keith & Benson 1992, Rosenberg 1989, Chen & Stevenson 1989). Since the time the students met for Chinese was limited (only 40 minutes each time, twice a week) and there was no practice at home, the activities were often very challenging for the students in terms of language demand. While some students enjoyed the challenge, the students in difficult situations were more likely to get frustrated when facing challenge in classroom activities1. They needed more help and encouragement.

1. When the students in group 1 were engaging in the task of filling out Chart 7, a girl got so frustrated because she was not familiar with the vocabulary for daily events that she started to cry. When being asked, she said it was very difficult and she could not learn. But when help was offered, she started talking about her father who had just had a fight with her mother and left home again before she came to school.
In spite of the difficulties the students might encounter, most of the students were enthusiastic when engaging in the activities. Sometimes they were so enthusiastic in interacting with each other that the noise level reached the point that the teacher had to stop them right in the middle of an activity. They were noisy not because they were having discipline problems, but when every one of the more than 20 students in class was talking at the same time in order to participate, the noise level was likely to get out of control. To me, this scenario reveals the enthusiasm that the students had for the activities they were engaging in. Actually, for all the activities, most of the students were active and willing to participate though very often they were unable to do a perfect job when trying for the first time. They just kept trying at all the activities. The teacher never had problems finding a volunteer to start with. Whenever they accomplished one task with the help from the teacher or their classmates, the students were proud and felt encouraged.

What really gave the students a sense of accomplishment was the texts they could produce in Chinese:

Sj: (after giving an oral text on classifying classmates) I made it! I can't believe it!
(When being asked what helped) This (Pointing the chart of classification).

Sr: I think I learned a lot in this unit. I can write a long journal now... I like that time table (the sequencing chart) and other tables. It makes things easier.

Sc: I learned a lot in this unit. There are many new words that I learned. The table is good. I like it.

without having had breakfast early in the morning. This is just one example of the real life challenges that the students had to face when attending school for school work.
Ss: It (the sequencing chart) helped when I wrote the journal. I feel I am making progress.

It seems that the students enjoyed participating in the activities and the accomplishment they achieved by engaging in these activities. The graphics helped make the tasks easier for the students and the language product elicited by the activities and facilitated by the graphics gave the students a sense of accomplishment.

4.6. Summary

Data presentation and discussion in this chapter have focused on three of the research questions regarding initial planning and the actual conduct of classroom language activities around the KF, the relationship between the activities and the students' language product, and the students' attitudes towards the activities. First, initial planning was illustrated and an analytical description of the actual conduct of the activities around the KF was provided. In the presentation on the process of the activities, the actual conduct of the activities has been viewed as curriculum as experienced which was gradually developed on the basis of the initial planning and the information obtained in the actual teaching situation. The analysis shows that classroom language activities have to be intentionally planned in order to engage the students in the activities of various KSs under a certain content topic.

Second, the relationship between graphic organizers and students' language product was examined with the support of data presentation. The analysis shows that graphic organizers used as "a package carrying information", "a focus on the core of the content", "a display of essential information without dense language involved", and "an
explicit depiction of relationships" (Early et al 1986) helped the students understand content, organize content information, and produce longer discourse.

Third, student use of the target language was examined from the perspective of being elicited or being imposed. The analysis shows that most student use of the target language was elicited by the activities they engaged in. Furthermore, many of the language items were requested by the students out of the need for successful engagement in the activities. Thus, by engaging in the designed activities, the students used language not for the sake of using the language, but for carrying out purposeful human activities.

Fourth, the designed activities have been investigated from the perspective of context for discourse. The analysis shows the activities of different KSs created contexts for discourse of different KSs and thus made possible the realization of a broader range of form-function relations in student discourse.

Finally, students' attitudes have been discussed on the basis of the data gathered from classroom observation and informal interviews with the students. Data shows that the general attitude of the students towards the activities was positive. The findings presented and discussed in this chapter reveal how foreign language teaching can be organized around the KF at the level of both curriculum design and classroom implementation and in what way the KF organization provides benefits for young foreign language learners.
This chapter focuses on specific text analyses. Texts within certain discourse are analyzed lexicogrammatically with a view to form-function relations, particularly the formal realization of knowledge structures. The chapter will address the last two research questions raised earlier:

4). What systematic form-function relations appeared in the student discourse arising from the classroom language activities?
5). What are the appropriate ways to analyze student task discourse and how far do student tasks reflect knowledge structures in a Chinese as a foreign language teaching situation?

The analysis aims to examine 1) the systematism of form-function connections in the discourse data; 2) the formal or linguistic realizations of KSs in the interactions and written work of young foreign language learners; and 3) the appropriate ways to analyze student task discourse.

In this analysis, text refers to "any coherent, meaningful stretch of language, regardless of its length" (Christie & Rothery 1989:8). Any "passage (of language), spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole" (Halliday and Hasan 1976:1) is the concern of this chapter. In order to reveal the relationship between individual texts, or how different texts in different discourses on the same topic are related from the point of view of the KF, a general description of the texts produced within the KF will be provided first. Then, specific analysis of some individual texts will be presented to serve the purpose of the section.
5.1. General Description of the Texts Produced within the Knowledge Framework

Throughout the whole academic year, texts of different genres on different topics were produced by the students. But as described and analyzed earlier, the unit under the theme Personal Information is the most complete one from the view of the original intention of using the KF as an organizer. Since the KF is the main focus of the study, the analyses of the texts will focus on the texts produced around the theme of Personal Information.

For the Unit on Personal Information, texts were produced as activities within the discourses of different KSs were conducted. Table. 4.1.2 summarizes the activities actually conducted for the Unit on Personal Information. For different KSs with the KF, there are both oral and written texts produced by the students. But because of the time limitation, there are oral texts for all the six KSs and written texts for only four KSs. To summarize, the oral ones are:

1. classifying classmates into different groups;
2. identifying classmates;
3. identifying family members;
4. describing yourself;
5. describing your family;
6. explaining the reasons behind daily activities;
7. sequencing daily activities;
8. comparing and contrasting two kinds of school lives;
9. showing personal reference for the kind of school life.

The written ones are:

10. classifying classmates;
11. describing or introducing yourself or your family members.
12. explaining the reasons behind daily activities;
13. a journal of daily activities.

Among the above, texts 1, 2, 3, and 10 are within the discourse of classification. Texts 4, 5, and 11 are within the discourse of description. Texts 6 and 12 are within the discourse of principles. Texts 7 and 13 are within the discourse of sequence. Text 8 is within the discourse of evaluation. Text 9 is within the discourse of choice.

5.2. Analysis of Specific Texts Produced by the Students

In this section, the analysis will be along the lines of the KF. The specific approach adopted is labeled as the Knowledge Structure Analysis (KSA) which bases its analysis on the theory of the KF and draws upon the work of systemic-functional linguistics (See Halliday 1985, 1994, Martin 1992, 1985, etc.), and ethnographic research (Werner & Schoepfe 1987) (See Section 3.1.4 for details). Knowledge Structures represent a semantic relation with linguistic realizations that can be categorized in a constructive manner. For the text of each knowledge structure, semantic relations entailed will first be explored. Then language realizations of the KS will be examined. Samples of all the six KSs will be provided, but due to the limitation of space, the analysis of specific details will be partial, with the intention of illustrating the main points. Figure 3.1.4.d is repeated for the convenience of the reader.
One point that needs to be kept in mind is that all the texts analyzed in this chapter arose from the activities the students engaged in as described in Chapter 4. The interpretation of a certain text as the one of a certain KS should be related to the context in which it originated. Thus, while the focus in the following analyses is on the semantic relations represented by, and the linguistic realizations of, these semantic relations in the texts, Chapter 4 (which is the examination of the activities as contexts) has to be kept in mind as the background for the production of the following texts.

### 5.2.1. Classification

#### Text 5.2.1.

Wo ban you 23 ge ren, 21 ge ren shangxue, 2 ge ren bu shang xue. Shangxue de ren you 3 ge ren gongzuo, 20 ge ren bu gongzuo. Bu gongzuo de ren you 14 ge
Our class has 23 people, (there are) 21 people (who) attend school, 2 (who) do not attend school. (Among) those who attend school, (there) exists 3 people (who) work, twenty people (who) do not work. (Among) those who do not work, (there) exists 14 people (who) are girls, 6 people (who) are boys. (Among) those who work, (there) exists 3 people (who) are girls, 0 (who) are boys.

Text 5.2.1. was written by Student J as homework after a group of 5 students received 20 minutes of classroom instruction on how to orally classify their classmates into several groups according to the information previously obtained. The original text is a combination of Chinese characters and Hanyu Pinyin as shown in Appendix F. As explained earlier, writing in characters was not required as one of the objectives of this particular program. Though the students were encouraged to use characters when they wrote, they could use both characters and Pinyin. Thus, the main linguistic focus of the writing at this stage was the structure and the discourse organization of the text. The tones and spellings were not the first priority. For the sake of convenience, the whole text is transcribed into Pinyin. A graphic representation of Text 5.2.1. is given in Figure 5.2.1. followed by a text layout.
A text layout of Text 5.2.1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POSSESSOR</th>
<th>POSSESSION</th>
<th>POSSESSED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Woban [our class]</td>
<td>you [has]</td>
<td>23 ge ren [23 people]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>21 ge ren shangxue [21 people attend school]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 ge ren bu shangxue [2 people do not attend school]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shangxue de ren [attending school people]</td>
<td>you [has]</td>
<td>3 ge ren gongzuo [3 people (who) work]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20 ge ren bu gongzuo [20 people (who) do not work]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bu gongzuo de ren [non working people]</td>
<td>you [has]</td>
<td>14 ge ren shi nanhai [14 people (who) are boys]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6 ge ren shi nuhai [6 people (who) are girls]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gongzuo de ren [working people]</td>
<td>you [has]</td>
<td>3 ge ren shi nuhai [3 people (who) are girls]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0 ge ren shi nanhai [0 people (who) are boys]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the KF, classification and description are perceived as two related but different KSs. The text classifies the "people in our class" into several different groups. First, we will examine the KS of classification that is involved in the text.

In this analysis, Werner and Schoepfle's (1987) view of classification is adopted, which means that classification is discussed in terms of taxonomic and part/whole relations (See also Martin 1992:294). Taxonomic relation is understood as Martin's (1992:294-295) superordination relations (where something is a type of or kind of something else) while part/whole as Martin's (1992:294-295) composition relations (where something is a part of something else). Thus, D and E can be a kind of B (taxonomy); or D and E can be a part of B (part/whole). Lyons (1977:314) points out that the distinction between part-whole and taxonomic relations is clear in some cases but not in others: gold, for example, is both part of matter and a kind of matter. This lack of clear distinction applies to the present case, for the classification text can plausibly be analyzed as both a part-whole structure and a taxonomy structure.

Graphic 5.2.1. shows the role of the semantic relation of classification in the semantic structure. First, the text identifies 23 people as part of our class. (Some students considered the class to include not only people but also pet animals). The relation between nodes A and B (See Figure 5.2.1.) can be perceived as a part/whole, or composition relation (Martin 1992:295), i.e., "people are part of our class". Then the text further classifies the people of the class into several groups: those who attend school, those who do not (the teachers are perceived as members of the class by J). Then, those attending school are classified into working people and non-working people. Finally, the working people and the non-working people are classified into boys and girls. The text is a very short one. But it involves four layers of classification. The semantic relation
between the nodes at the first layer is part/whole (Werner & Schoepfle 1987: Vol.2:84-88) which can be characterized as:

(B) is a part of (A).

At layers 2, 3, and 4, the relation between the nodes is both part/whole and taxonomic (Cruse 1986:137, Werner & Schoepfle 1987: Vol.1, P.72). Thus, semantically, one can interpret the relations between these nodes as part-whole (Werner & Schoepfle 1987: Vol.2:84-88) which can be characterized as:

People (D) and (E) are parts of the set of people (B).
People (F) and (G) are parts of the set of people (D).
People (H) and (I) and people (J) and (K) are parts of the sets of people (F) and (G) respectively.

On the other hand, lexically, nodes B, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, and K are taxonomically related and this taxonomic relations can be characterized as:

People (D) and (E) are a kind of People (B).
People (F) and (G) are a kind of People (D).
People (H), (I) and People (J), (K) are a kind of People (F) and (G) respectively.

The semantic relations involved in a classification text may be manifested in a large number of linguistic forms. But for the texts under discussion, the linguistic realizations will be divided into four main categories: 1) reference; ii) transitivity; iii) conjunction; iv) lexis. In the following, linguistic realizations are discussed in more detail.

Reference: the use of generic reference. Generic reference is identified by both Martin (1992) and Christie (1989) as a linguistic feature that goes with classification. "Generic reference is selected when the whole of some experiential class of participants is at stake rather than a specific manifestation of that class" (Martin 1992:103). "[the] term 'generic'
used here is the adjective of the noun 'genus', ... The term 'genus' refers to a class of phenomena, be they animals or plants. We build a great deal of our knowledge, ... by identifying living things as having characteristics in common, so that we can group them as a genus" (Christie 1989:20).

In the text, generic reference is used to help build classification:

- Woban you 23 ge ren [people].
- 6 ge ren shi nanhai [male children].
- 0 ge ren shi nuhai [female children].

In the text, ren, nanhai and nuhai are generic references to a set (such as our class) or sub-set (such as people) (Lyons 1977:158, 447). Similar to English, in Mandarin Chinese, specific references are very often signaled by the determiners such as zhe (the or this), na (the or that), zheixie (these), and naxie (those). These determiners are added to the initial position of the concerned nouns for specific references. For generic references or the items that are general, a measure word ge or nothing is added to the initial position of the concerned nouns. Thus, in the text, ren, nanhai and nuhai are perceived as generic references in contrast with the specific references zheixie ren (these people), zheixie nanhai (these male children), or zheixie nuhai (these female children). This argument is in accordance with both Lyons' (1977) and Huddleston's (1984) analysis of generic reference which reveals the link between being generic or not and the form and meaning of the sentence. Huddleston points out that "the interpretation as generic or not ... depends on the form and meaning of the sentence, not just of the NP itself" (Huddleston 1984:255). Lyons states that it is important to realize that a generic proposition, i.e., a proposition which says something, not about this or that or about any particular individual, but about a class, is "tenseless" and "timeless" (Lyons 1977: Vol.1:194). Thus, it can be argued that the use of the tenseless and timeless material process in the text
helped interpret most of the references as generic and thus establish a generic proposition in the text.

Following the above argument, then *shangxue de ren* (attending school people), *bu gongzuo de ren* (non working people), and *gongzuo de ren* (working people) can also be interpreted as generic references because they are used "to assert a generic proposition" (Lyons 1977: Vol. 1: 194) with the help of the use of the tenseless and timeless transitivity processes following them.

In addition to generic reference in nominal groups, generic reference to time in material processes is also used:

\[
\text{Woban you 23 ge ren, 21 ge ren shangxue, 2 ge ren bu shangxue. Shangxue de ren you 3 ge ren gongzuo, 20 ge ren bu gongzuo.}\]
\[
\text{[Our class has 23 people. 21 people attend school...]} \]

In the text, it can be argued that the material process is used timelessly as generic reference to time.

One characteristic worth noting is the relation between material processes and nominal groups functioning as generic references as shown by the bolded part in the following:

\[
\text{Wo ban you 23 ge ren, 21 ge ren shangxue, 2 ge ren bu shangxue. Shangxue de ren you 3 ge ren gongzuo, 20 ge ren bu gongzuo. Bu gongzuo de ren you 14 ge ren shi nuihai, 6 ge ren shi naihai. Gongzuo de ren you 3 ge ren shi nuihai, 0 ge ren shi naihai.}\]
\[
\text{[... 21 people attend school, 2 people do not attend school. Among those who attend school...]} \]
The above shows how, for a major part of the text, the material process at the end of one sentence (underlined part in the above) is nominalized into the theme of the following sentence which is a generic reference.

Transitivity: relational process. Christie (1989) states that the "use of transitivity processes, relational ones in particular, ... help build ... classification" (1989:29). Relational process are identified by Halliday (1985) as "those of being" (Halliday 1985:112, 1994:119). "The central meaning of clauses of this type is that something is" (Halliday 1985:112, 1994:119). Between the two modes (i.e., attributive and identifying) for "those of being", identifying mode for two of the three ways of being (i.e., intensive, circumstantial, and possessive) can be particularly identified as linguistic features that realize classification:

(1) Intensive: \`x is a\' which can realize the taxonomic relation;

(2) Possessive: \`x has a\' which can realize the part-whole relation;

The evidence of the text supports this. First, you (has) is used in the text to help establish the part-whole relation. Then, shi (is) is used several times to help establish the taxonomic relation:

Woban you 23 ge ren, 21 ge ren shangxue, 2 ge ren bu shangxue. Shangxue de ren you 3 ge ren gongzuo, 20 ge ren bu gongzuo. Bu gongzuo de ren you 14 ge ren shi (be) nuhai, 6 ge ren shi nanhai. Gongzuo de ren you 3 ge ren shi nuhai, 0 ge ren shi nanhai.

Both you and shi are used in their sense of class membership, what one might expect in the activity of classification. Thus, it can be argued that with these relational clauses (i.e.,
the "you" and "shi" clauses), the grammar works to construct the classification relations which are part-whole and taxonomic ones in the text.

**Conjunction: the lack of it in the text.** Though in many ESL student texts, additive conjunctions are found to be another linguistic device to help realize the KS of classification, no use of any conjunctions showed up in Text 5.2.1. There may be two explanations for the lack of conjunctions in the text: 1) the text is a short passage with no need for the use of conjunctions; 2) the student did not have the device at this stage of learning.

**Lexis: classification.** Another means of encoding classification is through vocabulary or word choice, using lexical items that express classification relation. In the text, lexical realization is obvious:

```
Woban you 23 ge ren, 21 ge ren shangxue, 2 ge ren bu shangxue. Shangxue de ren you 3 ge ren gongzuo, 20 ge ren bu gongzuo. Bu gongzuo de ren you 14 ge ren shi (be) nuhai, 6 ge ren shi nanhai. Gongzuo de ren you 3 ge ren shi nuhai, 0 ge ren shi nanhai.
```

Between *woban* and *ren*, there exists a "composition relation" (Martin 1992:295) which reflects classification based on the relation of parts to a whole (the *you* [has a] relation). In other words, semantically, *woban* and *ren* are part-whole related through the lexical meanings possessed by these two lexical items, i.e., *ren* is a part of *woban*:

```
Woban ← ren [our class ← people]
```

The second type of classification relation that is lexically realized is reflected through the use of *ren* and *nanhai/nuhai*. Between *ren* and *nanhai/nuhai*, a "superordination relation" "based on subclassification" (the *shi* [is a] relation) (Martin...
1992:294-295) is reflected. Using Werner and Schoepfle's term, *ren* and *nanhai* or *nuhai* are taxonomically related through the lexical meanings possessed by these lexical items, i.e., *Nanhai* or *nuhai* is a kind of *ren*:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{ren} \\
\text{nanhai} [\text{people}]
\end{array}
\begin{array}{c}
\text{boys} \\
\text{nuhai} [\text{girls}]
\end{array}
\]

**Discussion: the use of nominal groups.** In the text, there is a frequent use of nominal groups which helped realize classification relations:

\[
\text{Wo ban you 23 ge ren, 21 ge ren shangxue, 2 ge ren bu shang xue. Shangxue de ren you 3 ge ren gongzuo, 20 ge ren bu gongzuo. Bu gongzuo de ren you 14 ge ren shi nuhai, 6 ge ren shi nanhai. Gongzuo de ren you 3 ge ren shi nuhai, 0 ge ren shi naihai.}
\]

[Our class has 23 people, 21 people...]

In Halliday's (1985) discussion of the logical structure of the "nominal group", modification is described or analyzed in terms of taxonomy (i.e., subcategorization). The nominal group is considered as a major linguistic feature that realize the semantic relation of "subcategorization: `a is a subset of x'. This has usually been referred to in the grammar of the nominal group as MODIFICATION" (Halliday 1985:170, 1994:191). In Werner and Schoepfle's analysis of folk classification, modification is perceived as an important aspect of the MT (Modification and Taxonomy) schema used to analyze taxonomic relations (Werner & Schoepfle 1987:Vol.1:106-110). Chinese is similar to English in terms of the relation between modification and nominal groups involved in taxonomy. But, the way that a nominal group is formed in Chinese is not always the same as in English.

At this point, it is worthwhile discussing at a more detailed level the use of nominal groups in Chinese taxonomies. As the reader will note, the nominal groups in
the translation and the graphic analysis of the text sound linguistically quite awkward to native speakers of English. This translation has something to do with characteristics of the Chinese language. For elaborated taxonomies (or classification), the Chinese language operates on a principle which is the expansion of the noun into a nominal group by premodification. For complex nominalization, there is the post modification in English. But in Chinese, there is no post modification. All modifiers proceed the head nouns (Halliday 1993:129). This text is a good example of using nominalization to taxonomize or classify people on a principle of the Chinese language, i.e., to premodify all the head nouns. Though nanhai and nuhai can be translated as boys and girls which are classifying nouns, if analyzed at a morphological level, the more straightforward translation should be male children and female children. Here, the adjectives nan [male] and nu [female] "have a classifying rather than a descriptive function" (Martin 1992:104) since nanhai and nuhai are used as generic nominal groups in the text. Thus, at all the three layers of taxonomic relations, the nominal groups are made up of classifiers followed by head nouns as illustrated in the following with the nominal groups bolded and head nouns underlined.

Wo ban you 23 ge ren, 21 ge ren shangxue, 2 ge ren bu shang xue. Shangxue de ren you 3 ge ren gongzuo, 20 ge ren bu gongzuo. Bu gongzuo de ren you 14 ge ren shi nuhai, 6 ge ren shi nanhai. Gongzuo de ren you 3 ge ren shi nuhai, 0 ge ren shi naihai.

Clearly the KS of classification in this text is at least partially realized through the heavy use of a kind of nominal, i.e., the expansion of the noun into a nominal group by premodification. The bolded parts can be perceived as "a constellation of elements each having a distinct function with respect to the whole" (Halliday 1985:1782) which is ren [people].
To summarize, for the text under analysis, the KS of classification is realized through generic reference, relational processes, lexical relations of classification, and modification in the nominal groups.

5.2.2. Description

This section focuses on the texts of description which were produced by the students as the written part of a test. The students were asked, for the test, to describe himself/herself and/or his/her family members on a piece of paper. They were allowed to use both Pinyin and characters. Before the test was given, the students had in various ways engaged in activities of describing a person or their family members. They had completed an information chart for classmates and a chart for family members. They had asked and answered questions about personal information. They had engaged in games of guessing who was being described. For these activities, the students had been allowed to use all sorts of materials or references available (See Chapter 4 for detailed description). For the test, the students were not allowed to use any references such as notebooks, handouts, or graphics. So it was a closed book test. The teacher believed this closed book test might be able to give her a better idea of how well the students could use Chinese to describe a person independently of reference aids.

All together, 69 out of 70 texts were collected as data (One student got into the program too late to participate as a subject.). All the texts were basically written in Pinyin, a majority with some characters used. Text 5.2.2.a, Text 5.2.2.b, Text 5.2.2.c, and Text 5.2.2.d are the four examples chosen to be analyzed for their representativeness. The original texts (which are shown in Appendix F) have been transcribed into Pinyin for the sake of the readers' convenience.
Text 5.2.2.a.


Note that language errors in student texts will be indicated thus: [sic].

Text 5.2.2.b.

Wo jiao Wei Kai Li.

---

1 's is in its possessive sense.
2 's is in its possessive sense.
3 's is in its possessive sense.
Wo de shengri shi yi yue ershier hao.
Wo shi yi sui.
Wo shangxue.
Wo shang wu nianji.
Wo you zong hair.
Wo you zong eyes.
Wo you meimei.
Wo you mama.
Wo you baba.
Wo you cat.
Wo mei you dog.
Wo shi nuhai.

[I am called Wei Kai Li.
My birthday is November twenty second.
I am eleven years old.
I attend school.
I attend grade five.
I have brown hair.
I have brown eyes.
I have a younger sister.
I have a mom.
I have a dad.
I have a cat.
I do not have a dog.
I am a girl.]

Text 5.2.2.c.

Wo shi He Li Ma. Wo shi nu ren. Wo bo shi nan ren. Wo shi sui. Wo jiao
wu yua er shi qi hao. Wo shi jianada ren. Wo bu gongzuo. Wo shangshua.
Wo bu wo number: yi er si san. Wo liu qi ba jiao shi.
Wo mama, bab, gege, di di, jia jia.

[I am He Li Ma. I am a woman. I am not a man. I am ten years old. I am
called May twenty seventh. I am Canadian. I do not work. I attend school.]

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I do not number [sic]: one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten.

My mom, dad, older brother, younger brother, older sister.

Text 5.2.2.d.

Wo shi nan hai.
Wo shi Ou Kai Wen.
Wo shi sui.
On yi yue sanshi hao wo shi going to zhongguo town. Wo shi Jianadaren.

[I am a boy.
I am Ou Kai Wen.
I am ten years old.
On January thirtieth I am going to Chinatown. I am Canadian.]

A proficient Chinese reader, when reading these texts, will have no difficulty recognizing and interpreting the above four pieces of writing, regardless of their length or linguistic complexity, as examples of a similar kind of texts which play a very similar function, i.e., to describe a person and/or his/her family members. Using the terms of the KF, I refer to all these texts as texts of description since the main purpose of all these texts is to describe a person. Around the issue of form-function connections, the question that needs to be asked is how this KS of description is formally or linguistically realized through a text. To answer the question, the four texts will be analyzed in the following with a focus on the linguistic realization of the KS of description.

Within the Framework of KSs, these texts are within the discourse of description. They introduce a person or several persons by describing their age, sex, nationality, what they do, what grade they are in, what they wear, what they have, and how they look. All the four texts deal with particular persons and focus on the characteristics of a particular person. Figure 5.2.2.a., b., c., and d. are the visual representations of the texts. The
central semantic relation in the semantic representation of the description text is the relation of attribution: person X has the attribute, characteristic or property A. According to Mohan et al. (ms):

"scholars have understood the attribution relation both narrowly and broadly. In Halliday (1985, 1994), there is a narrow interpretation: clear cases of attribution are provided by attributive clauses e.g. "I am a boy", "I am Canadian". By contrast, Lyons (1977:481-2) discusses a broader interpretation used in many standard logical treatments of predication, that "it is the function of propositions to ascribe properties to entities", so that "Jim works" ascribes the property of working to Jim. But as Lyons points out, "it is straining the term "property " considerably to say that the activity in which some entity happens to be engaged ... should count as one of its properties". Nevertheless, it is important to note that in extended descriptions the attribution relation appears to operate quite broadly and make available an attribution reading for a wide range of clause types, so that "Jim works' or "Jim attends school" can be interpreted as describing or characterizing Jim."

This will be discussed further below.
Wo

[1]
jiao Lei Ai Pei [am called Lei Ai Pei]

shiyi sui [11 years old] → Wo de shengri [my birthday]

shiyi sui [11 years old]

bu shi nanhai [am not a boy]

gongzu [work]

shangxue [attend school]

shang XXX Elementary xue [attend xxx Elementary School]

shang liu nianji [am in grade six]

bu shang qi nianji [am not in grade seven]

bu shang si nianji [am not in grade four] → Wode laoshi [my teacher]

bu shi laoshi [am not a teacher]

chuan baixie [am in white shoes]

chuan bai wazi [am in white socks]

chuan lan kuzi [am in blue pants]

bu chuan lu kuzi [am not in green pants]

chuan lu and bai shangyi [am in green and white shirt]

bu chuan zi shangyi [am not in purple shirt]

you mama [have mom]

you baba [have dad]

you didi [have younger brother]

bu you meimei [don't have younger sister]

bu you gege [don't have older brother]

ai fumu [love (my) parents]

ai didi [love (my) younger brother]

gongzu [work]

Wo baba [my dad]

shijianada ren [is a Canadian]

chuan baixie, wazi and fen kuzi [is in white shoes, socks, and pink pants]

chuan bai shangyi [is in white top]

Wo didi [my y. brth]

bu gongzu [doesn't work]

shijianada ren [is a Canadian]

bu gongzu [doesn't work]

shijianada ren [is a Canadian]
jiao Wei Kai Li [am called W. K. L.]  
shi yi sui [am eleven years old]  
shang xue [attend school]  
shang wu nian ji [am in grade five]  
you zong hair [have brown hair]  
you zong eyes [have brown eyes]  
you meimei [have younger sisters]  

Wo  
[1]  
you mama [have a mother]  
you baba [have a father]  
you cat [have a cat]  
mei you dog [don't have a dog]  
shi nuhai [am a girl]  

Wode shengri [My birthday]  
shi yi yue ershier hao [Nov. 22]  

Figure 5.2.2.b. Graphic Analysis of Text 5.2.2.b

shi He Li Ma [am He Li Ma]  
shi nuren [am a woman]  
bu shi nan ren [am not a man]  
shi sui [am ten years old]  

Wo  
[1]  
? jiao wu yua er shi qi hoa [am called May 27 [sic]]  
shi jia nada ren [am a Canadian]  
bu gong zuo [don't work]  
shang xue [attend school]  
? bu wo nomber [no I nomber[sic]]  

Figure 5.2.2.c. Graphic Analysis of Text 5.2.2.c
Reference: the use of specific reference. In the texts, the KS of Description makes heavy use of Specific References as subjects/topics, or topical themes as labeled by Christie (1989:18). We will look at Text 5.2.2.a first.

In Text 5.2.2.a, as shown by Figure 5.2.2.a, six subjects/topics\(^4\) (Li & Thompson 1981:83-103), or topical themes (Christie 1989:18), are involved and all the six of them are specific references (Martin 1992:102) in close relation to Wo (I):

\[\begin{align*}
\text{Wo} & \quad \text{[I]} \\
\text{Wo de shengri} & \quad \text{[My birthday]} \\
\text{Wo de laoshi} & \quad \text{[My teacher]} \\
\text{Wo Mama} & \quad \text{[My Mother]} \\
\text{Wo Baba} & \quad \text{[My Father]} \\
\text{Wo Didi} & \quad \text{[My younger brother]} \\
\end{align*}\]

There are generic references such as

- nanhai [boy]
- nuhai [girl]
- Jianadaren [Canadian]
- funu [parents]

\(^4\) According to Li and Thompson (1981), Mandarin is a language the description of which must include the element "topic". "Basically, the topic of a sentence is what the sentence is about. It always comes first in the sentence, and it always refers to something about which the speaker assumes the person listening to the utterance has some knowledge" (Li & Thompson 1981:15).
etc.

used in the text, but they are not topics or subjects. In the following, the text is presented again with subjects/topics bolded and generic references underlined.


It is obvious that the generic references in the text are not what the text is about. Instead, the topics, which are what each sentence is about, are all specific references. Thus, the whole text is about *Wo* and those in relation with *Wo*. The use of these specific references as topics or topical themes partially helped establish the KS of description because when it comes to description, as revealed as the KF, it is often something specific that is the focus or the topic.

**Transitivity: relational process.** Relational processes of transitivity were important in this text. In the text, three types of relational process, mainly in attributive mode, (Halliday 1985:112, 1994:191, Eggins 1994:256) were used to describe characteristics, circumstances, and possession:

e.g. Characteristics described through intensive relational process:

*Wo jiao* Lei Ai Pei. [I am called Lei Ai Pei.]

*Wo shiyi* sui. [I am eleven years old.]
Wo shi nuhai. [I am a girl.]
Wo bushi nanhai. [I am not a boy.]
Wo Mama shi Jianada ren. [My mother is a Canadian.]

Circumstances described through circumstantial relational process:
Wo chuan lan kuzi5. [I am in blue pants.]
Wo bu chuan lu kuzi. [I am not in green pants.]
Wo shang liu nianji6. [I am in grade six.]

Possession described through possessive relational process:
Wo you mama. [I have a mother.]

The use of these relational processes helped construct "a world of relationships among entities--a world in which things can be without doing" (Halliday and Martin 1993:27-28).

Other types of transitivity also appeared in the text:

e.g. Material process used to describe habitat or behavior as attributes (Werner and Schoepfle 1987:Vol.2:81):

Wo gongzou.
Wo shangxue.

Mental process used to describe attitude:

Wo ai fumu.
Wo ai didi.

5 Chuan, which in Chinese means both "put on" and "be in", is interpreted here as "be in" according to the context.
6 Shang, which in Chinese possesses a number of meanings, is interpreted here as "be in" according to the context.
Though three different kinds of transitivity process were used, it seems that it is the relational process (and specific reference) at the very beginning of the text that set up the key of the whole discourse as Description. The use of *jiao* and *shi* first signals the descriptive semantic relation of the whole text and thus the following material and mental processes can be understood as being used for description.

**Conjunction: additive?** Conjunction is another powerful linguistic means to help realize a certain KS or semantic relation since "the Conjunction system sets up the choices we can make for building logical relationships between clauses" (Christie 1989:19). Nevertheless, only two conjunctions of one type (i.e., and) showed up in text 5.2.2.a and both of them are in English. Does this text need more conjunctions to help establish a more mature description discourse? The answer seems to be "Yes" if a description text of the same type by a native speaker is analyzed the same way. The following is a comparison between some of the sentences from Text 5.2.2.a and some of the sentences from the text (Text 5.2.2.aa in Appendix F) produced by a native speaker of Mandarin after he was asked to rewrite Text 5.2.2.a to turn it into what he thought to be a better one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From Text 5.2.2.a</th>
<th>From Text 5.2.2.aa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Wo gongzuo. Wo shangxue.</em></td>
<td><em>Wo you gongzuo bingqie zai shangxue.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[I work. I attend school]</td>
<td>[I work and attend school.]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Wo you mama. Wo you baba. Wo you didd.</em></td>
<td><em>Wode jiating li you baba, wo he wo didi.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[I have a mother. I have a father. I have a younger brother.]</td>
<td>[My family has a father, me, and my brother.]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Wo mama chuan baixie, wazi and qianfen kuzi.
[My mother is in white shoes, socks, and light pink pants.]

Wo mama ye ai chuan baixie he baiwazi.
[My mother also likes to be in white shoes and white socks.]

In both columns, there are conjunctions used and they are additive conjunctions. It is obvious that the sentences in column 5.2.2.aa are linguistically more sophisticated than those in column 5.2.2.a. What is noticeable is that for the same amount of message delivered, there are three instances of the use of a conjunction in column 5.2.2.aa while there is only one instance of the use of a conjunction in column 5.2.2.a. Further more, the conjunctions in column 5.2.2.aa are of two different types and the one in column 5.2.2.a is of course of only one type (and in English). From this comparison, it seems there exists the possibility for more use of additive conjunctions in a description discourse, but this linguistic means might be the one that our foreign language learner had not yet learned to use skillfully at the time Text 5.2.2.a was produced.

**Lexis: description.** The use of lexis also played a role in helping establish a description discourse. For text 5.2.2.a, \textit{wo} (I) is the topic. \textit{Wo} is the item that is described and lexical items which are appropriate to the description of persons may be expected. That is, we can expect lexical items which are appropriate attributes of persons, to express the point in terms of the attribution relation. Naturally, people would associate the lexical item \textit{wo} with other items indicating name, age, sex, nationality, occupation, etc.. When it comes to the description of a person, the item \textit{wo} is appropriately related to the items such as name, \textit{sui} (age), \textit{shengri} (birthday), \textit{nanhai/nuhai} (boys/girls), \textit{Jianadaren} (Canadian), \textit{gongzuo/shangxue} (work/attend school), etc. as shown in the following excerpt from Text 5.2.2.a:

One important reason that all the above sentences are interpreted as related is that the lexical meaning possessed by the underlined lexical items makes them appropriately related for the description of a person.

Discussion: variation among different texts in terms of linguistic complexity.

Though lacking the use of conjunctions, Text 5.2.2.a is actually one of the collected texts that is relatively more sophisticated than others for its use of more topics, more transitivity processes to describe more aspects. If Texts 5.2.2.a, b, c, and d are compared and contrasted, one can see that the differences exist in the variety of linguistic features used. Table 5.2.2.a is a comparison of the four texts in terms of the language realization of the KS of description.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TEXT</th>
<th>Text 5.2.1.a</th>
<th>Text 5.2.1.b</th>
<th>Text 5.2.1.c</th>
<th>Text 5.2.1.d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>References Used as Topical Theme</td>
<td>*Specific Wo, Wode shengri, Wo mama, Wode laoshi, Wo baba, Wo didi</td>
<td>*Specific Wo, Wode shengri</td>
<td>*Specific Wo</td>
<td>*Specific Wo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transitivity Processes Used</td>
<td>*Relational - For characteristics shi, jiao - For Possession you? bu you - For circumstance chuan, shang</td>
<td>*Relational - For characteristics shi, jiao - For possession you/meiyou - For circumstance shang</td>
<td>*Relational - For characteristics shi/bu shi, jiao</td>
<td>*Relational - For characteristics shi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Material - For behavior gongzuo, bu gongzuo, shangxue</td>
<td>*Material - For behavior shangxue</td>
<td>*Material - For behavior bu gongzuo, shangxue</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Mental - For Attitude ai</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction Used</td>
<td>*Additive and</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexis</td>
<td>personal attributes</td>
<td>personal attributes</td>
<td>personal attributes</td>
<td>personal attributes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>5 topical themes, 3 transitivity processes, 5 attributes described, 8 different verbs, 11 uses of verbs, 1 conjunction lexis</td>
<td>2 topical themes, 2 transitivity processes, 4 attributes described, 5 different verbs, 6 uses of verbs, 0 conjunction lexis</td>
<td>1 topical theme, 1 transitivity process, 1 attribute described, 1 verb, 1 use of verb</td>
<td>1 topical theme, 1 transitivity process</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2.2.a: Language Realization in the Texts of Description.
It is clear from Table 5.2.2.a (and a comparison of Figure 5.2.2.a, b, c, and d) that all the texts used specific references as subjects/topics or topical themes and the center or the topic of the texts is Wo. All the texts used Relational Process to help establish the attributive relation. Indeed, one of the characteristics of a Description text is the use of specific references and relational processes. That may explain why all the texts can be easily understood or interpreted as texts of description. But in terms of linguistic sophistication, there exist differences among the four texts: Text 5.2.2.a involved 5 different topical themes, 3 transitivity processes to describe 5 personal attributes, 8 types of verbs in 11 uses; Text 5.2.2.b involved 2 different topical themes, 2 transitivity processes to describe 4 personal attributes, 5 types of verbs in 6 uses; Text 5.2.2.c involved 1 topical theme, 2 transitivity processes to describe 2 personal attributes, 4 types of verbs in 5 uses; Text 5.2.2.d involved 1 topical theme, 1 transitivity process to describe 1 personal attribute, 1 type of verb in 1 use. Only Text 5.2.2.a used one additive conjunction (which is in English) though a native speaker of Mandarin would agree that the use of some additive conjunctions could have made the texts more linguistically sophisticated.

In fact, the four pieces of writing are quite representative of the writing of the whole group. Variation in terms of linguistic elaboration exists among different students. While all the collected 69 texts involved heavy use of specific reference as subjects/topics and the center or the topic of the texts is Wo, different texts vary in terms of the verbs used. Table 5.2.2.b illustrates the number of different types of verbs used in different texts.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>lexis</th>
<th>total of 69</th>
<th>% out of 69</th>
<th>lexis</th>
<th>total of 69</th>
<th>% out of 69</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DT59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>DT62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DT52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>DT58</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>DT37</td>
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<td>DT13</td>
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<tr>
<td>14.49%</td>
<td>(10)</td>
<td>14.48%</td>
<td>(30)</td>
<td>31.88%</td>
<td>(22)</td>
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<tr>
<td>verbs used</td>
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<td></td>
<td>verbs used</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Among the 69 collected texts, 10 different verb phrases showed up. They are:

- jiao (be called)
- shi (is)
- ___ ... sui (___ ... years old)
- shangxue (attend school)
- shang...nianji (attend ... grade)
- gongzuo/bu gongzuo (work/do not work)
- Wo you (I have)
- Wo jia you (My family has)
- chuan (wear)
- ai (love)

Seven texts used up to two different verb phrases; twenty-two texts used three to four different verb phrases; thirty texts used five to seven different verb phrases; ten texts used eight to ten different verb phrases. A majority of the collected texts (57.97%) used five or more different verb phrases.

When the ten different verb phrases are categorized into transitivity processes, rather than simply the relational process, we see three additional types of transitivity processes involved in a description text: they are Material, Existential, and Mental Processes. Table 5.2.2.c shows the variation existing in different texts in terms of transitivity processes. Out of a total of 69 texts, 68 (98.55%) texts used relational process; 50 (72.46%) used material process; 4 (5.80%) used existential process; and 5 (7.25%) used mental process. It is obvious that relational process is the one that is most likely to appear in the description texts produced by the students.
Table 5.2.2.c. Variation in Terms of Transitivity Processes in Different Texts of Description.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transitivity Process</th>
<th>Relational Process</th>
<th>Material Process</th>
<th>Existential Process</th>
<th>Mental Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td># of texts involved</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% out of a total of 69 texts</td>
<td>98.55%</td>
<td>72.46%</td>
<td>5.80%</td>
<td>7.25%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2.2.d. Number of Different Types of Transitivity Processes in Different Texts of Description.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th># of different types of processes used</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td># of texts involved</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% out of a total of 69 texts</td>
<td>29.00%</td>
<td>59.42%</td>
<td>10.14%</td>
<td>1.45%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2.2.d illustrates how different texts vary in terms of the number of transitivity processes in a particular text. A majority of the texts (59.42%) used 2 different types of transitivity processes and one of the processes among the two is mainly relational as indicated by Table 5.2.2.c. Only 1 text used as many as 4 different types of transitivity processes.

Several texts (See Appendix D) used additive conjunctions and all of them are in English:

1) *Wode Mandarin Laoshi shi Chen Laoshi & shi Wong Laoshi.* (DT30)
2) *Wo favorite color shi lan and hong.* (DT35)
3) *Wode have a mama and baba.* (DT48)
4) *Wo meimei de mangzi shi Vandhana and Vashna.* (DT53)
It seems that there existed the tendency to use additive conjunctions in a description text, but the students were not ready yet to use them in Mandarin which is a foreign language for them.

To summarize, for a text that expresses the KS of description, the linguistic means employed by the students are the heavy use of specific references, frequent use of relational processes, tentative use of additive conjunctions, and wide use of lexical items that are semantically appropriately related. Variation exists among different texts. While some texts employed a number of different linguistic means in an elaborated way to help realize a description discourse, some others used only a few in a very limited way. Linguistically elaborated or limited, all the texts expressed the KS of description.

5.2.3. Sequence

This section focuses on the texts of sequence which were produced by the students as a class assignment. The context behind these texts is that the students had been asked to orally sequence their daily events, i.e., to talk about their daily events in a sequential order. Based on their oral work, the students were asked to produce this writing. Let's look at the following texts first.

Text 5.2.3.a (See Appendix F for the original text)

Zaoshang, 7:45 wo xian qichang. Ranhou chuanyi. 8:00 wo xishou. Ranhou shuaya. 8:15 wo shangxue qian chi zaofan. Zuihou shangxuele. Shangwu, 8:45 wo xian shangke. Ranhou kejianxiuzi. 10:30, wo shangke hou chi wufan. Zhongwu, 12:05 wo xian chi wufan. Ranhou wan. 1:00 wo shangke hou zuo jiating gongke, ranhou wan. Xiawu, 4:00 dao 6:00 wo zuo gongfu. Ranhou chi wanfan.
Wanshang, 7:00 wo xian xizao, ranhou dushu. 8:30 wo kan dianshi. Yeli, 9:45 wo xunbei shuishao, zhuihou shuishao.

[Early in the morning, at 7:45, I first get up, then put on clothes. At 8:00, I wash hands, then brush teeth. At 8:15, before I go to school, I eat breakfast. At last, I go to school. In the morning, at 8:45, I first have class, then recess. At 10:30, after I have class, I eat lunch.

At noon, at 12:05, I first eat lunch, then play. At 1:00, after I have class, I do homework, then play. In the afternoon, from 4:00 dao 6:00, I do kongfu, then eat supper.

In the evening, at 7:00, I first take a bath, then read books. At 8:30, I watch TV. At night, I prepare to go to bed. At last I sleep.]

Text 5.2.3.b (See Appendix F for the original text)

Zaoshang 7:30 wo xian qichuang. Ran hou chuanyi, shuaya, comb hair, chi zaofan. Zuihu wo zhunbei shangxue.


[Early morning (at) seven thirty I first get up. Then (I) put on clothes, brush teeth, comb hair, eat breakfast. At last (I) prepare (to) go to school.

After starting class I finish class. I get prepare for recess. After recess I do have class. I eat lunch and play. After having class I watch TV. Then I do homework. After I eat supper I watch TV. At last I sleep.]

Text 5.2.3.c (See Appendix F for the original text)


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zuo jiawu, Hou wo dushu, ranhou wo chi wanfan. ranhouo zhunbei shuijiao he wo shuijiao.

[I get up, then I take a bath, Hou⁷ I get dressed, brush teeth, wash hands and wash face. Hou I eat breakfast. Then I get prepared for school. Then go to school. Hou I do have class. Then have recess. I play balls. then I eat lunch. then I do housework, Hou I read books, then I eat supper. then get ready for bed and I sleep.]

Text 5.2.3.d (See Appendix F for the original text)

Shang wu 8:00 qi chuang. 8:15 chi zaofan. 8:20 chanyi shaya, 8:45 kaishi shangke. 9:00 shangke. 10:00 shangke. 10:15-10:30 ke jian xuixi. Xia wu 10:30-12:00 shang ke. 12:00-1:00 chi wufan, wan qui, 1:00-3:00 shangke. 3:00-6:00 Zuo jia wu wan qiu. Wan shang 6:00-7:00 chi wanfan. 7:00-9:00 kan dian shi, xizao, xishoa, xilian.

[In the morning at 8:00 get up. At 8:15 eat breakfast. At 8:20 get dressed brush teeth, at 8:45 begin to have class. At 9:00 have class. At 10:00 have class. 10:15-10:30 have recess.
In the afternoon 10:30-12:00 have class. 12:00-1:00 eat lunch, play balls, 1:00-3:00 have class. 3:00-6:00 do housework play balls.
In the evening 6:00-7:00 eat supper. 7:00-9:00 watch TV, take a bath, wash hands, wash face.]

A proficient Chinese reader, when reading these texts, will have no difficulty recognizing and interpreting the above four pieces of writing, regardless of their length or linguistic complexity, as examples of a similar kind of texts which play a very similar function, i.e., to tell about one's daily activities in a sequential order. Using the term of the KF, I refer all these texts as texts of sequence. Around the form-function connection issue, the question that needs to be asked is how this KS of sequence is formally or

⁷ The Hou appears as an error made by the student in the original text which is difficult to be interpreted or translated into English.
linguistically realized through a text. I will start the analysis with Text 5.2.3.a which was produced by Student J (who was one of the top students in the program).

This text is chosen to be the first for its relative shortness and comprehensiveness (i.e., it includes all the time words and sequence words covered in the class). As the text of classification, the original one is a combination of Chinese characters and Hanyu Pinyin. It is shown in Figure 5.2.3.a. Again, for the convenience of the reader, I transcribed the whole text into Pinyin.

Obviously, this text is a discourse of sequence. The major semantic relation is time sequence: activity A is followed in time by activity B. Figure 5.2.3.a is a graphic representation of the text. It shows the sequence relationship the text entails.
Zaoshang - [Early morning]

7:45 qichuang [get up]
8:00 xishou [wash hands]
8:15 chi zaofan [eat breakfast]

Shangwu - [Morning]

8:45 shangke [have class]
10:30 shangke [have class]

Zhongwu - [Noon]

12:05 chi wufan [eat lunch]
1:30 shangke [have class]

Xiawu - [Afternoon]

4:00-6:00 zuo gongfu [do kongfu]

Wanshang - [Evening]

7:00 xizao [take a bath]
8:30 kan dianshi [watch TV]

Yeli - [Night]

9:45 zhunbei shuijiao [prepare to go to bed]

Figure 5.2.3.a. Graphic Analysis of Text 5.2.3.a.
Reference: specific reference. What is found from all the texts is the heavy use of specific reference (Martin 1992:102) Wo (I). All of the texts are accounts of first-person action. This finding is in accordance with Mohan's KF (1986) which perceives sequence as one of the KSs at the practical level that are more likely to be involved in a specific, action situation. Thus, specific reference is a typical linguistic feature that is associated with all the KSs at the practical level. Now let's turn to other linguistic features involved.

Transitivity: material process. Often a text of sequence presents a sequence of activities using verbs of MATERIAL PROCESS as shown by the underlined parts in the following (from Text 5.2.3.a):

Zaoshang wo xian qichuang, ranhou chuan yi. 8:00 wo xishou, ranhou shuaya. 8:15 wo shangxue qian chi zao fan, zuihou shangxuele. Shangwu, 8:45 wo xian shangke, ranhou kejianxiuxi. 10:30, wo shangke hou chi wufan. Zhongwu, 12:05 wo xian chi wufan, ranhou wan. 1:00 wo shangke hou zuo jiating gongke, ranhou wan. Xiawu, 4:00 dao 6:00 wo zuo gongfu, ranhou chi wanfan. Wanshang, 7:00 wo xian xizao, ranhou dushu. 8:30 wo kan dianshi. Yeli, 9:45 wo zhu bei shuijiao, zuihou shuijiao.

The use of the verbs of material process helps the text build up "a world of action in which physical and biological entities act, by themselves, or on other things" (Halliday and Martin 1993:27). In this text, the time sequence relation is expressed explicitly through the use of time position adjuncts among a series of material processes. But sometimes, such time sequence relations can be indicated implicitly. In English the two sentences:

(a) He got up.

(b) He opened the window.
are typically interpreted as (a) THEN (b). This works similarly in Mandarin Chinese.

Let's look at part of S' text (Text 5.2.3.b) again with a focus on the underlined parts.

(a) Hou kaishi shangke wo finish shangke. (b) Wo get zhunbei for kejian xiuxi. (c) Hou kejian xiuxi wo do shangke. (d) Wo chi wufan and wanr. (e) Hou shangke wo kan dianshi. (f) Ranhou wo zuo jiating gongke. Hou wo chi wanfan wo kan dian shi. Suishou/zuihou wo shuijiao.

[(a) After starting class I finish class. (b) I get prepared for recess. (c) After recess I do have class. (d) I eat lunch and play. (e) After having class I watch TV. (f) Then I do homework. After I eat supper I watch TV. At last I sleep.]

Though between sentences (a) and (b) and sentences (c) and (d), there is no temporal conjunction "ranhou [then]" used as between (e) and (f), still there is no problem in interpreting the text as (a) THEN (b), (c) THEN (d).

Conjunction: temporal conjunctions. The use of temporal conjunctions (Martin 1992:185) such as xian, ranhou, ...quins, ...huos, and zuihou is shown by the underlined parts in the following:

Zaoshang wo xian qichuang, ranhou chuan yi. 8:00 wo xi shou, ranhou shuaya. 8:15 wo shangxue qian chi zao fan, zuihou shangxuele. Shangwu, 8:45 wo xian shangke, ranhou kejianxiuxi. 10:30, wo shangke hou chi wufan. Zhongwu, 12:05 wo xian chi wufan, ranhou wan. 1:00 wo shangke hou zuo jiating gongke, ranhou wan. Xiawu, 4:00 dao 6:00 wo zuo gongfu, ranhou chi wanfan. Wanshang, 7:00 wo xian xizao, ranhou dushu. 8:30 wo kan dianshi. Yeli, 9:45 wo zhun bei shuijiao, zuihou shuijiao.

These sequence words play a very important part in the realization of the sequence relationship. And to use these words, a knowledge of Chinese grammar is involved. Unlike the set of related lexical items mentioned above which themselves (when used
together) entail a relationship of time ordering, these sequence words have to be used with other linguistic elements together to build up a structure which is sensible both linguistically and semantically.

For this group of students, the most confusing part is the use of ...qian (before...) and ...hou (after...) which are used in final position in the clause. The text shows the student had had a very good command of the use of these two sequence words. But this is not easy for everyone.

**Lexis: sequence.** For Text 5.2.3.a, the sequence relationship (semantics) is lexically realized through the use of time position adjuncts (See R. Quirk et al 1985:526-531) and time duration adjuncts (See R. Quirk et al 1985:533-536). We will look at the time duration adjuncts first. In the text, the linguistic realization of these time duration adjuncts is the use of a prepositional phrase with dao (to):

\[ Zhongwu, 12:05 wo xian chi wufan, ranhou wan. 1:00 wo shangke hou zuo jiating gongke, ranhou wan. Xiawu, 4:00 dao 6:00 wo zuo gongfu, ranhou chi wanfan. Wanshang, 7:00 wo xian xizao, ranhou dushu. 8:30 wo kan dianshi. Yeli, 9:45 wo zhun bei shuijiao, zhuihou shuijiao. \]

All of these time references form a series related in time sequence: 12:05, 1:00, 4:00, 6:00 and so on. These time references serve to locate the various daily activities in a time order. Unlike in English where "to" has to co-occur with "from", marking the beginning of the time span, in Chinese, dao (to) can be used with cong (from) absent. That is to say in Chinese, both the structures

1). cong...dao... (from...to...)
2). ...dao... (...to...)
for expressing time duration are correct. Actually, both forms had been introduced to the
students and used by the students orally before the written work was assigned. But from
the collected written texts, one finds the use of *dao* with *cong* always absent. This might
be because the second form involves less writing.

Now, we will look at the use of time position adjuncts in Student J's text. In this
text, two kinds of noun phrases are used for time position. One kind refers to a specific
point of time when the events take place, such as the underlined parts in the following:

> Zaoshang wo xian qichuang, ranhou chuan yi. 8:00 wo xi shou, ranhou
> shuaya. 8:15 wo shangxue qian chi zao fan, zuihou shangxuele. Shangwu, 8:45
> wo xian shangke, ranhou kejianxiuxi. 10:30, wo shangke hou chi wufan.
> Zhongwu, 12:05 wo xian chi wufan, ranhou wan. 1:00 wo shangke hou
> zuo jiating gongke, ranhou wan. Xiawu, 4:00 dao 6:00 wo zuo gongfu, ranhou
> chi wanfan. Wanshang, 7:00 wo xian xizao, ranhou dushu. 8:30 wo kan
dianshi. Yeli, 9:45 wo zhun bei shuijiao, zuihou shuijiao.

The other kind of noun phrases used for time position refers to a span of time
within which the events take place, such as *Zaoshang* (early morning), *Shangwu*
(morning), *Zhongwu* (noon), *Xiawu* (afternoon), *Wanshang* (evening), and *Yeli* (night):

> Zaoshang wo xian qi chuangel... Shangwu, 8:45 wo xian shangke,... Zhongwu,
> 12:05 wo xian chi wufan,... Xiawu, 4:00 dao 6:00 wo zuo gongfu,... Wanshang,
> 7:00 wo xian xizao,... Yeli, 9:45 wo zhun bei shuijiao,...

In the text, semantically, these six lexical items divide a complete day into six units in
time sequence. In other words, these six lexical items are sequentially related. Once
these words are used, it is not difficult to figure out which activity comes before or after.
These words form a series of related lexical items similar to the days of the week or the
months of a year where the relationship is one of time ordering: *zaoshang* comes before
shangwu, shangwu comes before zhongwu, zhongwu comes before xiawu, xiawu comes before wanshang, and wanshang comes before yeli. Thus, every activity undertaken in the zaoshang comes before those in the shangwu, and so on and so forth. This lexical analysis applies to the NPs denoting a specific point of time, too. It is obvious that one of the reasons that the sentences in the text are interpreted as related is that the lexical meaning possessed by the lexical items such as 7:00, 8:00, zaoshang, xiawu makes them sequentially related.

Discussion. However, the difference existing between the more sophisticated writers and the less sophisticated writers is the use of a variety of linguistic features to help realize a particular semantic relation. From the texts collected, one finds the existence of texts of sequence at various degrees of linguistic elaboration. While some texts used a variety of linguistic features to help realize the semantic relation—sequence— some other texts used very limited linguistic resources to help. If we compare Text 5.2.3.a, Text 5.2.3.b, Text 5.2.3.c, and Text 5.2.3.d, it is not difficult to see that the use of time position and duration adjuncts (which are essential to help realize the KS of sequence) in the four texts varies in terms of linguistic elaboration. Table 5.2.3.a is a summary of the language realization of concepts of time existing in the four pieces of writing.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>5.22.c</td>
<td>5.23.b</td>
<td>5.23.a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.23</td>
<td>5.22.a</td>
<td>5.23.4</td>
<td>5.22.a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.23.4: Language Realization in the Texts of Sentence
Text 5.2.3.a involves 3 types of language realization, i.e., Temporal Conjunctions, Noun Phrases for point and span of time, and Prepositional Phrases. For temporal conjunctions, 5 different items are used, i.e., xian, ranhou, ... hou, ... qian, and zuihou. For noun phrases of span of time, 6 different items are used, i.e., zaoshang, shangwu, zhongwu, xiawu, wanshang, and yeli. Text 5.2.3.b involves 2 types of language realization, i.e., Temporal Conjunction and Noun Phrases for point/span of time. For temporal conjunction, 4 different items are used. They are xian, ranhou, ... hou, and zuihou. For noun phrase for span of time, only one type is used, which is zaoshang. Text 5.2.3.c involves only one type of language realization, temporal conjunction. Neither noun phrases referring to a specific point of time nor those referring to a span of time are used. In terms of temporal conjunction, only two (i.e., ranhou and hou) were used and one of them (i.e., hou) is used incorrectly. For Text 5.2.3.d, though there is a heavy use of prepositional phrases and noun phrases referring to both a specific point and a span of time, not even one temporal conjunctions is used. From the perspective of linguistic complexity, Text 5.2.3.c and Text 5.2.3.d are much less elaborated than Text 5.2.3.a and Text 5.2.3.b because of their lack of use of a variety of linguistic features to help realize the semantic relations of sequence.

In fact, the four pieces of writing are quite representative of the writing of the whole group. Table 5.2.3.b, with a focus on the use of a particular linguistic feature to help realize the sequence relation, provides an overall picture of which linguistic features are more likely to be used by the students. Table 5.2.3.c, with a focus on the sophistication of texts, is a summary of the texts carrying linguistic elaboration (i.e. the number of linguistic features used denoting time concepts) at various degrees. Whether

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8 To focus on the KS of Sequence, other language problems of the text irrelevant to the focus are not discussed here.
the linguistic complexity at various degree reflects different developmental stages the students were at remains a question.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>time word Prep.</th>
<th>NP 1*</th>
<th>NP 2*</th>
<th>Temporal Conjunction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phrase</td>
<td>5 types</td>
<td>4 types</td>
<td>3 types</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of texts out of total of 65</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60+1(E)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>70.77%</td>
<td>92.31%</td>
<td>92.31%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2.3.b. Sequence Words Used in the Texts of Sequence
* NP 1: Noun Phrases referring to a specific point of time, e.g., 8:30.
* NP 2: Noun Phrases referring to a span of time, e.g., morning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Features</th>
<th># of Texts</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>perfect texts with a wide range of variety of sequence words (5 TC*, 3+ NP2*, +NP1, +PP)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>23.08%</td>
<td>86.15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>texts with variety with or without mistakes (3-5 TC, 1+ NP2, +/- NP1, +PP)</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>63.08%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>texts lacking variety with or without mistakes (1-2 TC, 1-3 NP2, +/- NP1, +PP)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12.31%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Texts using no temporal conjunctions</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.54%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2.3.c. Types of Texts Carrying Linguistic Sophistication at Various Degree
*TC: Temporal Conjunction
* NP 1: Noun Phrases referring to a specific point of time, e.g., 8:30.
* NP 2: Noun Phrases referring to a span of time, e.g., morning.
* PP: Prepositional Phrase for duration, i.e., ...dao.
As shown by Table 5.2.3.b, among the sixty-five students, forty-six students or 71% used prepositional phrases for time duration; sixty students or 92.31% used noun phrases for a span and a specific point of time; thirty-five students or 53.85% used five different types of temporal conjunctions; twelve students or 18.46% used four different types of temporal conjunctions; nine students or 13.85% used three different types of temporal conjunctions; six students or 9.23% used two different types of temporal conjunctions; two students or 3.08% used one type of temporal conjunction; one student or 1.54% used none.

Table 5.2.3.c. roughly divides the sixty-five texts of sequence collected into four types. It reveals a range of language realization among the collected texts. Type 1 texts are those nearly-perfect-ones (in terms of the use of sequence words) that used all the five different types of temporal conjunctions, three or more different types of noun phrases referring to span of time, and noun phrases referring to a point of time. Fifteen texts belong to this group and occupy 23.08% of the whole (See S29, S30, S55, S50, S53, S56 in Appendix E for more examples.). Type 2 texts are those carrying a variety of sequence words with or without mistakes relating to the use of sequence words. In these texts, students used three to five different types of temporal conjunctions, one or more different types of noun phrases referring to span of time, with or without noun phrases referring a specific point of time. Forty one texts belong to this group and occupy 63.08% of the whole (See S2, S8, S36, S37, S44, S46, S48, S52 in Appendix E for more examples.). Type 3 texts are those texts that lack a variety of sequence words with or without mistakes. In these texts, only one to two temporal conjunctions and one to three noun phrases referring to a span of time are used. Eight or 12.31% of the texts belong to this group (See S3, S22, S40, S42 in Appendix E for more examples). The last type is the one that carries no temporal conjunction (which is more difficult to use than the time position
adjunct in the form of noun phrases) at all. One (i.e., Text 5.2.3.d) or 1.54% is in this group.

The difference between texts exists not only in the form of linguistic complexity but also in the capability of using a certain linguistic feature correctly so as to be able to express a certain concept clearly. Table 5.2.3.d is a summary of errors made by the students in the texts for each kind of linguistic feature expressing concepts of time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>time words</th>
<th>NP for point of time</th>
<th>NP for span of time</th>
<th>Prep. Phrase for time duration</th>
<th>...hou</th>
<th>...qian</th>
<th>xian</th>
<th>ranhou</th>
<th>zuihou</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td># of texts using the words</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of texts using them incorrectly</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2.3.d. Errors Made in Relation to the Linguistic Features Expressing Concepts of Time.

From Table 5.2.3.c, it is clear that ...hou and ...qian are the most difficult ones for the students to use. About 45% of the students using these two made errors. We will look at Text 5.2.3.b to further investigate this.

Text 5.2.3.b was produced by Student S who was hard working and managed to get into the top 30% of the class. In comparison with Student J's writing (Text 5.2.3.a), hers lacks the linguistic complexity (i.e. the variety of linguistic features employed to realize sequence) entailed by J's. Though the text is obviously a text of sequence which introduces in a sequential order some of the daily events she engaged in, the readers can hardly tell at what time or in what period of the day all these events took place. In other words, in terms of time, it is far from being as clear and explicit as Text 5.2.3.a. The reason for the lack of explicitness is the lack of use of a variety of adjuncts of time.
expressing time sequence. While Text 5.2.3.a uses six lexical items or noun phrases expressing specific periods of time (zaoshang, shangwu, zhongwu, xiawu, wanshang, and yeli), nine lexical items for specific points of time (e.g., 8:00), and one prepositional phrase for time duration, Text 5.2.3.b used only one word for specific period of time, i.e., zaoshang, and one word that expresses specific point of time, i.e., 7:30.

Zaoshang 7:30 wo xian qichuang. Ran hou chuanyi, shuaya, comb hair, chi zaofan. Zuihou wo zhunbei shangxue.


The reason that Text 5.2.3.b lacks clarity is its incorrect use of a sequence word or temporal conjunction (bolded underlined parts):

Zaoshang 7:30 wo xian qichuang. Ranhou chuanyi, shuaya, comb hair, chi zaofan. Zuihou wo zhunbei shangxue.


While Text 5.2.3.a used five different types of sequence words (xian, ranhou, ...qian, ...hou, and zuihou) and used them correctly, Text 5.2.3.b used four types of sequence words (underlined part in the above) and one of them, which is hou, was not used correctly (bolded underlined part). But for the three correctly used types of sequence words, there were only one (i.e., xian) or two (i.e., ranhou, zuihou) instances of each contained in the text while for the incorrectly used one which is hou, there were four instances of it contained in the text. As stated earlier, hou is a sequence word that has to
be used with other linguistic elements together to build up a structure which is sensible both linguistically and semantically. But in the text, *hou* is not put in the right position to build up a grammatically sound structure and thus made the text difficult to comprehend from the point of Chinese language.

Noun phrases for span/point of time and the temporal conjunction *xian* are the second most difficult ones to use, but only 5% (See Table 5.2.3.c) of the students using them made errors.

Though with mistakes and at different levels of linguistic complexity, when being read, all the texts can be easily interpreted by a proficient Chinese reader as texts expressing time sequence. Table 5.2.3.e is a summary of both concepts of time expressed and language realization expressed by the texts. It reveals how different concepts of time are linguistically realized and provides a sketchy picture of which concepts of time are expressed by more texts.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Realization</th>
<th>Concepts of Time Expressed with Graphic Interpretation</th>
<th># of Texts Involved out of a Total of 65 Texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Temporal Conjunctions:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xian [first]</td>
<td></td>
<td>64 (98%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ranhou [then]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hou [after...]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qian [before...]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zuihou [at last]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time Sequence:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A Then B.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A (is followed in time by ) B</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lexis.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NP for Points of Time:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>san dian [three o'clock]</td>
<td>9 am 10 am 11 am</td>
<td>60 (92%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7:00 [seven o'clock]</td>
<td>Points of Time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Implying</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time Sequence:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Event A is at Time X.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NP for a Span of Time:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zaoshang [early morning]</td>
<td>morning afternoon evening</td>
<td>60 (92%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shangwu [morning]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zhongwu [noon]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xiawu [afternoon]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wanshang [evening]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yeli [night]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Span of Time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Implying</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time Sequence:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Event A occurs at some time in the period of time X.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Prepositional Phrase of Time:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP (of time) dao NP (of time)</td>
<td>8 am 10 am</td>
<td>46 (71%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[From NP To NP]</td>
<td>Time Sequence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PLUS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time Duration:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Event A occurs during Time X and Time Y.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2.3.e. Main Realizations of Time Sequence Used in Students' Texts
From Table 5.2.3.e, one can see that the students' texts expressed time sequence in four main ways: 1) Time Sequence realized through the use of temporal conjunctions; 2) Points of Time Implying Time Sequence realized through the use of lexis in noun phrases; 3) Spans of Time Implying Time Sequence realized through the use of lexis in noun phrases; and 4) Time Sequence Plus Time Duration realized through the use of lexis in prepositional phrases.

To summarize, while the semantic relations involved in sequence may be manifested in a large number of linguistic forms, the basic linguistic realizations that showed up in the collected texts of sequence are 1) the use of specific references; 2) the use of material processes; 3) the use of temporal conjunctions; 4) the use of lexical items that are related through time sequence.

Among the 65 texts collected, though the degree of involved linguistic complexity or sophistication varies for different texts (Ref. Table 5.2.3.b and Table 5.2.3.c), 98% of them involve the expression of time sequence through the use of temporal conjunctions, 92% involve the expression of time sequence plus point/span of time through the use of temporal conjunctions and noun phrases, 71% involve the expression of time sequence plus time duration through the use of temporal conjunctions and prepositional phrases. What is worth noticing in the analysis of the texts of sequence is that 86% of students (See Table 5.2.3.c) produced texts of sequence that carry a variety of linguistic features which quite successfully helped realize the particular semantic relation of sequence. 86% is an encouraging number which clearly indicates the possibility that discourses of sequence can bring with them linguistic features (form) attached to sequence relations (function).
5.2.4. Principles

This section focuses on the texts of principles which were produced by students working as a small group. As described in Chapter 4, a group of five students had to stay 20 minutes longer for extra Mandarin instruction after other students left for other classes because their homeroom teacher did not want them returning to their homeroom in the middle of his instruction. I used this twenty minutes for some additional activities that we would not have conducted because of time limitations.

After orally explaining the reasons they engage in the three major daily activities, the students were asked to produce a written text as homework. This section focuses on the analysis of the students' written texts of principles. First, we will look at some texts.

Text 5.2.4.a (See Appendix F for the original text)

Meitian Wo chi fan, zuo jiating gongke, xizao. yinwei wo hui ruguo wo bu chifan wo hui e, ruguo wo buzuo jiating gongke wo hui be in trouble, ruguo wo bu xi zao wo hui zang.

[Everyday I eat meal, do homework, take a bath. Because I then [sic] if I don't eat meal I then (will be) hungry, if I don't do homework, I then (will) be in trouble, if I don't take a bath, I then (will be) dirty.]
Text 5.2.4.b (See Appendix F for the original text)

Meitian wo shuaya, chifan he shuijiao yin wei ruguo wo bu shuaya, wo hui zang, wo bu chifan, wo hui e, he wo bu shuijiao, wo hui hen kun her hen lei.

[Everyday I brush teeth, eat meal and sleep because if I don't brush teeth, I then (will be) dirty, I don't eat meal, I then (will be) hungry, and I don't sleep, I then (will be) very sleepy and very tired.]

Text 5.2.4.c (See Appendix F for the original text)

Wo Bixiu chi zaofan. Ruguo wo bu xo chi zaofan wo e, He ma ma hui get mad. Ruguo wo don't chuanyi wo leng. Wo Bixiu xizao wo zang.

[I must eat breakfast. If I don't eat breakfast, I am hungry and mum then (will) get mad. If I don't wear clothes, I am cold. I must take a bath, I am dirty.]

The above texts are quite similar and it is not difficult for a proficient Chinese reader to recognize and interpret them as examples of the same kind of texts which play a very similar function, i.e., to explain the general principles behind certain behaviors. Using the terms of the KF, I refer to all these texts as texts of principles.

In these "principles" texts, the major semantic relation is the causal-conditional relation. In Halliday (1994:234) the causal-conditional relation includes cause:purpose (because intention Q so action P), and condition (if P then Q), as well as cause:reason (because P so result Q). Table 5.2.4a is a summary of the principle relations expressed by the three texts with graphic representation. It shows the variations existing among the three. Note that implicit parts are underlined in the table.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Principle relations expressed with graphic representation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ACTION  because  INTENTION  AVOID  Q  (Q1 &amp; Q2 &amp; Q3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CONDITION  RESULT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IF NOT P1, THEN Q1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IF NOT P2, THEN Q2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IF NOT P3, THEN Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text 5.2.4a</td>
<td>P  (P2 &amp; P2 &amp; P3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ACTION  because  INTENTION  AVOID  Q  (Q4 &amp; Q1 &amp; Q5a &amp; Q5b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CONDITION  RESULT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IF NOT P4, THEN Q4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IF NOT P1, THEN Q1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IF NOT P5, THEN Q5a &amp; Q5b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text 5.2.4b</td>
<td>P  (P4 &amp; P1 &amp; P5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ACTION  because  INTENTION  AVOID  Q  (Q6a &amp; Q6b &amp; Q7 &amp; Q3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CONDITION  RESULT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IF NOT P6, THEN Q6a &amp; Q6b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IF NOT P7, THEN Q7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IF NOT P3, THEN Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text 5.2.4c</td>
<td>P6  P3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:
P1=eat meal; P2=do homework; P3=take a bath; P4=brush teeth; P5=sleep; P6=eat breakfast; P7=wear clothes; Q1=I then (will be) hungry; Q2=I then (will be) in trouble; Q3=I then (will be) dirty; Q4=I then (will be) stink; Q5a=I then (will be) sleepy; Q5b=I then (will be) tired; Q6a=I am hungry; Q6b=mum then (will) get mad; Q7=I am cold.

Table 5.2.4.a. Graphic Representation of the Principles Texts.

**Reference: generic reference.** In terms of references, while Text 5.2.4.a and Text 5.2.4.b used generic reference *meitian* to express generalization or a generic rule and Text 5.2.4.c did not, Text 5.2.4.c did explain the reasons behind certain behaviors in a generic manner, i.e., the rules are explained in a context with neither time nor space limitation.
Transitivity: material and relational processes. All three texts used material processes. However, while material process is a transitivity process more typically expected in texts of principles, relational process seems to be indispensable when state of being is involved. For instance:

\[
\text{I put on my clothes because it is cold.}
\]

The analysis applies to the three texts. For instance:

\[
\text{[If I don't take a bath, I then (will be) dirty.]} \quad \text{Ruguo wo bu xizao, wo hui zang.}
\]

Conjunction: consequence. Text 5.2.4.a involves two kinds of causal-conditional relation, i.e., a cause-purpose relation and condition relations. The cause-purpose relation is the major frame of the whole text and is explicitly expressed with a consequential conjunction yinwei [because]:

\[
\text{[If I don't take a bath, I then (will be) dirty.]} \quad \text{Ruguo wo bu xizao, wo hui zang.}
\]
Everyday I eat, do homework, wash,

ACTION

because PURPOSE

Within the PURPOSE, the condition relation is explicitly expressed with a consequential conjunction *ruguo...hui* [if...then...] used:

Meitian Wo chifan, zuo jiating gongke, xizao. yinwei wo hui ruguo wo bu chifan wo hui e, ruguo wo buzuo jiating gongke wo hui be in trouble, ruguo wo bu xi zao wo hui zang.

The connection between the condition and the result is necessity based on biological laws and obligation based on legal rules as shown by the following illustration:

bu chifan  [don't eat]  ➞  e  [hungry]

bu xiazo  [don't take a bath]  ➞  zang  [dirty]

CONDITION (ruguo [if])  ➞  RESULT (hui[will])

bu zuo gongke  [don't do homework]  ➞  be in trouble

Necessity (Biological Laws)  
Obligation (Legal Rules)

It is this condition relation that contributes to the purpose, since the purpose is to avoid the results of being hungry, dirty, or in trouble. Thus the text, though short, involves two layers of principle relations expressed, i.e., a layer of condition-result relations covered
by the layer of a cause-purpose relation. Linguistically, both relations are explicitly realized by the use of consequential conjunctions. Semantically, two different consequential conjunctions (i.e., ruguo...hui..., yinwei...) are used to realize the two different causal-conditional relations.

**Lexis: cause-effect.** Lastly, all the texts used some lexical items which are causally related to express the causal-conditional relation. Semantically, (A) *chifan* [eat] and (B) *e* [hungry], (A) *xizao* [take a bath] and (B) *zang* [dirty], (A) *shuaya* [brush teeth] and (B) *zang* [dirty], (A) *shuijiao* [sleep] and (B) *kun/lei* [sleepy/tired], (A) *chuanyi* [wear clothes] and (B) *leng* [cold], are related. The lexical meaning possessed by the words under (A) and those under (B) makes them causally related. To put it in terms of English, this is to say that there is a lexical causal-conditional relation between being hungry and eating, between being dirty and washing, between being tired and sleeping. In addition, the use of the lexical item *bixu* [must] in Text 5.2.4.c. explicitly denotes obligation and necessity.

**Discussion.** Text 5.2.4b is very similar to Text 5.2.4a in that it involves two layers of causal-conditional relations. Again it is the condition relation that contributes to the purpose. However, while the cause-purpose relation, as in Text 5.2.4a, is explicitly signaled by a consequential conjunction *yinwei* [because]:

*Meitian wo shuaya, chifan he shuijiao yin wei ruguo wo bu shuaya, wo hui zang, wo bu chifan, wo hui e, he wo bu shuijiao, wo hui hen kun her hen lei.*

the condition relation which contributes to the purpose is not always expressed explicitly as shown in the following underlined part:
Meitian wo shuaya, chifan he shuijiao yin wei ruguo wo bu shuaya, wo hui zang, wo bu chifan, wo hui e, he wo bu shuijiao, wo hui hen kun he hen lei.

Though without a consequential conjunction, any proficient Chinese reader will have no difficulty interpreting the underlined part as:

Ruguo wo bu chifan, wo hui e, ruguo wo bu shuijiao, wo hui hen kun he henlei.

Here, it is worthwhile mentioning Mandarin Chinese linking constructions since the concept "consequential conjunction" is closely related to linking constructions. In Mandarin, there are essentially two kinds of linking construction: forward linking and backward linking (Li & Thompson 1981:631-645). Ruguo [if] is a linking element for forward linking. It is different from English in that quite often, forward linking need not be overtly marked, but can occur simply by virtue of the speaker's or writer's intention that clause 1 and clause 2 be related. In such cases, the particular relationship between the two clauses is not signaled explicitly and must be inferred by the hearer or speaker from his/her knowledge of the situation and of what has been said to that point. Coming back to Text 5.2.4b, there seem to exist two reasons for the text to be understood as a text of principles. The first one is linguistic. In the text, before the linking without a linking element (i.e., the linking between C₁ and C₂, and the linking between C₃ and C₄), there is a linking (the underlined) with a linking element ruguo (bolded) expressing condition:

Meitian wo shuaya, chifan he shuijiao yin wei ruguo wo bu shuaya, wo hui zang, (C₁) wo bu chifan, (C₂) wo hui e, (C₃) he wo bu shuijiao, (C₄) wo hui hen kun her hen lei.

This linking element in some way determines the relation between the following clauses as one of condition. In other words, the linguistic context of the whole discourse seems in some way to help contextualize and realize the principles relation in the last four
clauses. In other contexts, C₁ and C₃ could stand by themselves to mean "I don't eat" and "I don't sleep" instead of "If I don't eat" and "If I don't sleep". The second reason for the text to be understood as a text of principles seems to be related to the way people interpret a sentence. Chifan and e are the two concepts that are understood to be consequential related. Thus, when interpreting the sentence made up of C₁ and C₂, people can easily interpret the relation between the two as a consequential one according to their knowledge gained through experience. That is to say the relationship between C₁ and C₂ or between C₃ and C₄ is not signaled by any overt element, but rather it is inferred by the reader from the knowledge s/he has of the world, the content of the two clauses in the sentence and what has been read up to that point. To summarize, it can be argued that the semantic relation of principles in Text 5.2.4.b is realized through the use of a combination of linguistic resources, i.e., consequential conjunctions, the context of the whole discourse, and the knowledge of the world people have.

Table 5.2.4.a shows the difference in the ways of expressing the principles relations between the first two texts and the third one. Text 5.2.4.c mentions two actions P6 and P3, and does not explicitly link these actions to the conditions.

In spite of the differences, all three texts expressed principle relations and all of them can be easily interpreted as texts of principles. In terms of language realization, they share a lot of similarities as shown by Table 5.2.4.b. First, either a particular generic reference was used to express generalization of everyday events or general principles behind certain behavior are explained in a generic manner. Second, all the texts involved heavy use of material process to denote a causal-conditional relation between actions and purposes. Third, all of them used consequential conjunctions such as yinwei, ruguo...hui.... These consequential conjunctions helped establish a causal-effect or condition-result relation between two or more events or states of beings. Lastly, all the
texts used some lexical items which are causally related to express the causal-conditional relation.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Language realization of the KS of Principles in the texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Text 5.2.4a** | **Generic Reference:**  
  *meitian* [everyday]  
 **Material Process:**  
  *chī/bù chīfàn* [eat/don't eat meal]  
  *zuò/bù zuò jiànggōng*ke [do/don't do homework]  
  *xī/bù xīzāo* [do/don't take a bath]  
 **Relational Process:**  
  *e* [hungry]  
  *zāng* [dirty]  
 **Consequential Conjunction:**  
  For cause-effect:  
  *yīnwēi* [because]  
  For condition-result:  
  *rúguō...hùi...* [if...then...]  
 **Lexis:**  
  *chīfàn* -- *e* [eat meal -- hungry]  
  *xīzāo* -- *zāng* [take a bath -- dirty]  
  *zuōgōng* -- [do homework -- in trouble] |
| **Text 5.2.4b** | **Generic Reference:**  
  *meitian* [everyday]  
 **Material Process:**  
  *shuā/bù shuā*ya [brush/don't brush teeth]  
  *chī/bù chīfàn* [eat/don't eat meal]  
  *shuǐ/bù shuǐjiào* [sleep/don't sleep]  
 **Relational Process:**  
  *zāng* [dirty]  
  *e* [hungry]  
  *kūn* [sleepy]  
  *lèi* [tired]  
 **Consequential Conjunction:**  
  For cause-effect:  
  *yīnwēi* [because]  
  For condition-result:  
  *rúguō...hùi...* [if...then...]  
 **Lexis:**  
  *shuāya* -- *zāng* [brush teeth -- dirty]  
  *chīfàn* -- *e* [eat meal -- hungry]  
  *shuǐjiào* -- *kūn/lei* [sleep -- sleepy/tired] |
| **Text 5.2.4c** | **Material Process:**  
  *bù chī zāofān* [don't eat breakfast]  
  *bīxiū chī zāofān* [must eat breakfast]  
  *bīxiū xīzāo* [must take a shower]  
 **Relational Process:**  
  *e* [hungry]  
  *lēng* [cold]  
  *zāng* [dirty]  
 **Consequential Conjunction:**  
  For condition-result:  
  *rúguō...hùi...* [if...then...]  
 **Lexis:**  
  *chīzāofān* -- *e* [eat breakfast -- hungry]  
  *chuānyī* -- *lēng* [wear clothes -- cold]  
  *xīzāo* -- *zāng* [take a bath -- dirty] |

Table 5.2.4.b. Language Realization in the Principles Texts.
At this point, it is appropriate to compare the analysis of texts of principles to the analysis of texts of sequence. In terms of language realization, it is obvious that the ways in which both the KSs are realized share something in common, i.e., the frequent use of material processes. The reason seems to be that material processes are directly related to events or activities and the KSs of both principles and sequence are events or activity focused. What really distinguishes the two from each other is the use of conjunctions. While the KS of principles is linguistically realized through the use of consequential conjunctions (Ref. to Table 5.2.4b), the KS of sequence is linguistically realized through the use of temporal conjunctions (Ref. to Table 5.2.3.a).

5.2.5. Choice and Evaluation

Text 5.2.5.a

Wo yuanyi zai jianada, yinwei wo xihuan warn he xuexi. Zai Zhongguo, xuexi duo, warn shao; zai Jianada, warn duo, xuexi shao. Suoyi wo xihuan zai jianada.

[I am willing to be in Canada, because I like to play and study. In China, there is a lot of studying, little playing; in Canada, there is a lot of playing, little studying. So I like to be in Canada.]
Wo yuanyi zai Jianada. Yinwei zai Zhongguo xuexi duo, warn shao, zai Jianada warn duo, xuexi shao, Suoyi wo yuanyi zai Jianada.

[I am willing to be in Canada. Because in China there is a lot of studying, a little playing, in Canada, there is a lot of playing, a little studying, so I am willing to be in Canada.]

Text 5.2.5.a and Text 5.2.5.b were orally produced by two students after a group of five students (the special group) received 20 minutes of classroom instruction on how to make choices based on evaluation. Both the students used graphics (Chart 12, 13, 14) they had previously worked on to help organize their speech. The above texts are the transcription of the students' second attempt to orally produce a "coherent, meaningful stretch of language" (Please see Chapter 4 for the context and process in which the texts were produced.) In effect, the texts are responses to the question: "Where would you like to be a student--China or Canada?"

It is not difficult to recognize and interpret the above two texts as examples of a similar kind of text which express very similar semantic relations, i.e., to show personal preference for a kind of school life based on the evaluation of alternative choices. Using the terms of the KF, I refer to these texts as being within the discourse of Evaluation and Choice. Though the KF sees evaluation and choice as two related but separate KSs, the texts produced by the students involve the two KSs. While Choice is making a decision about alternatives, Evaluation "deals with evaluations of objects/cases on the basis of criteria/reasons by reference to standards/outcomes in regard to potential benefits" (Mohan 1986:85). For the students, being in Canada or being in China are two alternative choices and both of them chose Canada as their preference. But this decision was not made arbitrarily. It was made on the basis of comparing and contrasting (which
are typical processes of evaluation) the alternative choices. Each choice has its own features (such as "a lot of study", "little playing", etc.). These features are judged against the students' standards in regard to potential benefits such as the time for playing and studying.

Obviously, in these texts, there is a choice which was set up by the requirement of the activity the students were engaging in: showing personal preference for a kind of school life. Though the students' texts are monologues, they can be viewed as responses to a question:

Where would you like to be a student?

The question (which was set up by the activity of Evaluation and Choice) and each monologue can be considered as parts of a dialogue: a question and an answer. The semantic structure expressed by the texts which is

\[ X \text{ or } Y \]

can be graphically represented as in the following (Figure 5.2.5.a for Text 5.2.5.a. and Figure 5.2.5.b. for Text 5.2.5.b):
Figure 5.2.5.a. Graphic Representation of the Semantic Relation Expressed by Text 5.2.5.a

Figure 5.2.5.b. Graphic Representation of the Semantic Relation Expressed by Text 5.2.5.b

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The question played a role similar to that labeled by Halliday as command/demand (Halliday 1985:69, 1994:69) and the first clause in the monologue can be viewed as the response: "In Canada"—one of the alternatives the students had. Following the alternatives (B) is the evaluation of the outcomes of the two available alternatives (C). In the evaluation, while Text 5.2.5.a. has explicit attitudinal comments (those with a V), Text 5.2.5.b. has only comparison contrast. The final decision in both texts, which is to be in Canada, seems to be made on the basis that a lot of playing was preferred, though this is clearer in the case of Text 5.2.5.a.

Several linguistic devices were employed to help realize the semantic relation of evaluation and choice. We will first look at how the KS of choice is linguistically realized. Text 5.2.5.a will be used for the analysis because it covers more linguistic devices than Text 5.2.5.b.

**Reference: specific reference.** What is found in terms of reference is the use of specific reference (see the following underlined parts) Wo [I]:

*Wo yuanyi zai jianada, yinwei wo xihuan warn he xuexi. Zai Zhongguo, xuexi duo, warn shao; zai Jianada, warn duo, xuexi shao. Suoyi wo xihuan zai jianada.*

Specific reference is the main reference encoding Choice since the chooser was considering particular cases of alternative options. The chooser is animate and capable of being involved in the decision-making process. Her involvement in choosing an alternative is intentional or deliberate, not accidental.

**Transitivity: mental process.** The second linguistic feature related to the KS of Choice in the text is the use of transitivity as mental process (underlined parts) *xihuan* [like]
which helps construe "a world of semiotic activity in which typically conscious entities negotiate meaning" (Halliday & Martin 1993:27-28):

\[ \text{Wo yuanyi zai jianada, yinwei wo xihuan warn he xuxi. Zai Zhongguo, xuxi duo, warn shao; zai Jianada, warn duo, xuxi shao. Suoyi wo xihuan zai jianada.} \]

Mental process transitivity is a common language realization to express Choice. Verbs that reflect thinking, feeling and perceiving are often used to establish Choice as the macro-organization of the text because they are inherent in the process of choosing.

**Conjunction: the lack of use of it.** Though alternative conjunctions may be another linguistic feature that goes with texts of choice, no such conjunction is found in the text.

**Lexis: opposition and choice.** The lexis which realizes "choice" requires some introductory explanation. A question like: "Would you choose to live in Canada or China?" provides several examples. In this sentence, "Choose" is clearly an explicit expression of the notion of choice. "Canada" and "China" realize choice in a more implicit way: they are the opposed alternatives to be chosen. The text we are analyzing uses the lexis of choice in similar ways. A linguistic feature that helped the text realize Choice is the use of specific lexis that inherently and explicitly (underlined in the following) or implicitly (bolded) conveys the meaning of Choice:

\[ \text{Wo yuanyi zai jianada, yinwei wo xihuan warn he xuxi. Zai Zhongguo, xuxi duo, warn shao; zai Jianada, warn duo, xuxi shao. Suoyi wo xihuan zai jianada.} \]

Yuanyi [be willing] is a lexical item that Chinese people often use when inclination is expressed. This lexical item plays a very important role in establishing the choice
relation in the whole text. It is equivalent to saying: "I choose to be in Canada", and is an explicit lexical expression of choice. The text is interpreted as a text of choice largely because of the lexical meaning of the word yuanyi.

*Jianada* [Canada] is used as a lexical item that has the alternative *Zhongguo* [China]. In the text, *Jianada* [Canada] and *Zhongguo* [China] can be viewed as terms of opposition which have an "alternative" relationship. The positive choice for *Jianada* implies a negative choice for *Zhongguo*.

Now I would like to turn to the linguistic realization of the KS of evaluation in the text.

**Reference: generic reference.** Generic references have been used to express timeless truth for the speaker:

> Wo yuanyi zai jianada, yinwei wo xihuan warn he xuexi. Zai Zhongguo, xuexi duo, warn shao; zai Jianada, warn duo, xuexi shao. Suoyi wo xihuan zai jianada.

**Transitivity: mental process.** Mental process transitivity is also used to help establish evaluation:

> Wo yuanyi zai jianada, yinwei wo xihuan warn he xuexi.

Here, personal likes and dislikes become part of the evaluation based on which a choice is made.
Conjunction: consequential conjunctions. We do not find comparative conjunctions in the texts. Canada and China are contrasted, but no comparative conjunctions are used. However, we do find the use of consequential conjunctions such as

\[\text{yinwei} \quad \text{[because]}\]
\[\text{suoyi} \quad \text{[so]}\]

Wo yuanyi zai jianada, yinwei wo xihuan warn he xuexi. Zai Zhongguo, xuexi duo, warn shao; zai Jianada, warn duo, xuexi shao. Suoyi wo xihuan zai jianada.

Consequential conjunctions are very likely to appear in a text of evaluation because evaluation very often involves comparison and contrast of the outcomes of alternative choices. When it comes to outcomes which imply consequence, consequential conjunctions naturally come into the picture.

Lexis: evaluation. Evaluative lexis is another linguistic device to help realize evaluation and the text shows this:

Wo yuanyi zai jianada, yinwei wo xihuan warn he xuexi. Zai Zhongguo, xuexi duo, warn shao; zai Jianada, warn duo, xuexi shao. Suoyi wo xihuan zai jianada.

Duo [a lot] and shao [little] are lexical items that convey evaluative meanings. Both expressions describe a quantity relative to a standard of evaluation. In the text, they are used for comparison and contrast of the outcomes of alternative choices:
in Canada:
in China:

a lot of playing
little studying

a lot of studying
little playing

Very often, to compare and contrast is a common device used to realize the KS of evaluation.

To summarize, the KS of Choice in the student discourse is linguistically realized through the use of specific reference, transitivity as mental process, and choice lexis. The KS of Evaluation is linguistically realized through the use of generic references, transitivity as mental process, consequential conjunctions, evaluative lexis, and comparison and contrast of alternative choices.

5.3. Summary and Discussion

This chapter has focused on specific text analyses. KS Analysis, which is based on the theory of the KF, systemic-functional linguistics, and ethnographic research, has been employed as an approach (See Section 3.1.4 for the explanation of the approach) to analyze student task discourse. This approach seems to be an appropriate way to examine student discourse where form-function connection is an issue.

Student texts (both oral and written texts) collected as part of the data provide a general picture of the language product as discourse produced by the students by engaging in the classroom language activities organized around the KF. All the texts are around the same content topic: Personal Information. Nevertheless, the texts produced expressed a variety of functions including Describing, Classifying, Sequencing, Reasoning, making Choice, and Evaluating through Comparing and Contrasting. These are actually also the functions of activities involving different KSs. In the texts, the functions or KSs are formally or linguistically realized in a variety of ways depending on
the specific function or KS encoded in a specific text. Figure 3.1.4.d (See Chapter 3) is a summary of the form-function relations revealed by the finding of the data analysis.

As suggested by Figure 3.1.4.d (Chapter 3), the analysis of student discourse shows that the classroom language activities organized around the KF did bring with it a broad range of form-function connections. The analyzed student texts expressed the KSs involved not only in action situations at the practical level but also in background information at the theoretical level. A variety of linguistic devices were employed by the students to help establish and realize different KSs expressed by the texts. These linguistic devices include reference, conjunction, transitivity, and lexis. These four devices showed up in the texts of most of the KSs though the linguistic sophistication of the texts varied.

Another finding from the analyses is concerned with the systematic nature of form-function connections in student discourse. Figure 3.1.4.d. shows that the form and function connections are very systematic around the KSs. For the six major KSs, or the six boxes, there exists both vertical and horizontal consistency. When the upper boxes are compared with the lower boxes, the first distinction comes from reference. In principle, the upper boxes of the KF (i.e., Classification, Principles, and Evaluation) represent generic referents and actions and thus, the student texts of all the three KSs for background information at general theoretical level employed generic reference as a main linguistic device to help realize this genericness. In contrast, the lower boxes of the KF (i.e., Description, Sequence, and Choice) represent specific referents and actions, and thus the texts of all the three KSs for action situations at a specific practical level employed specific reference as the main linguistic device to help realize this specificity. This specific-generic distinction often gives a clue to the difference in terms of KS between an upper box and a relevant lower box.
Another clear distinction between the upper and lower boxes (and between the boxes at the same levels) stems from the use of lexis. Lexis is an important linguistic device that the students used to help realize the KSs involved in their texts. For different KSs, different kinds of lexis were used. Taxonomic, part/whole lexis was used for Classification, personal attribute lexis for Description, cause-effect lexis for Principles, sequential lexis for Sequence, evaluative lexis for Evaluation, and oppositional and choice lexis for Choice. In general, the lexical items used by the students in the texts can be classified into two groups which function in two different ways to help construct a specific semantic relation. One group of lexis possesses direct meanings for certain semantic relations (e.g., you [have] in Text 5.2.2. which expresses the direct part-whole meaning in the text; ranhou [and then] in Text 5.2.3.a. which directly expresses the sequence meaning in the text) and is often used for directly expressing a certain semantic relation. Another group of lexis possesses indirect meanings for certain semantic relations (e.g. ren [people] and nanhai [boy] in Text 5.2.2; zaoshang [morning], zhongwu [noon], and xiawu [afternoon] in Text 5.2.3.a.).

From the perspective of linguistic or formal realization of different KSs, it seems that transitivity is the major factor that makes the upper and lower boxes related to each other. For the pair of Classification and Description, transitivity as relational process was used in the texts of both the KSs to help construct the Classification and Description relations. For the pair of Principles and Sequence, transitivity as material process was used in the texts of both the KSs to help realize the cause-effect and sequential relations. For the pair of Evaluation and Choice, transitivity as mental process was used in the texts of both the KSs to help establish the Evaluation and Choice relations. Thus, it can be argued that while the KSs in the lower boxes depend on those in the upper boxes for background information in terms of cognitive involvement in the engagement of a certain
activity, the use of transitivity shows the relatedness of the upper boxes and lower boxes in terms of language use.

From the data I gathered, it is difficult to be conclusive about the use of conjunctions because no use of conjunctions showed up in the texts of Classification and Choice. But there appears to be a tendency that different kinds of conjunctions are used for texts of different KSs except for Classification and Description for which the same kind of conjunctions may be used.

The third finding of the analysis is that linguistic variations exist in student discourse of the same KS. With the same semantic relation, student discourse varied in linguistic realizations, i.e., a semantic relation was not always linguistically realized in the same way. There is the existence of texts of the same KS at various degrees of linguistic elaboration.

In sum, with various degrees of linguistic elaboration, students' texts produced as a result of engaging in the classroom language activities organized around the KF have successfully expressed a variety of semantic relations within a single content topic. Every semantic relation is linguistically or formally realized in a variety of ways. The range of form-function relations in the students' texts is broad and fairly systematic. Finally, these form-function relations are, of course, realized in Mandarin. This indicates the value of the present analytical approach for application across languages.
Chapter 6
Conclusions and Recommendations

6.1. Conclusions of the Study

As stated in Chapter 1, the study was directed by five specific research questions to investigate how intentional teacher planning can result in discourse which shows a wide range and more systematic use of form-function relations. To my knowledge, it is the first attempt to address the issue of systematic form-function connections in classroom discourse by investigating intentional teacher planning in a Chinese as a foreign language and culture teaching situation and conducting KS analysis of student discourse in Chinese. The use of Mohan's (1986) KF has been the investigation focus in terms of its role in elementary Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language curriculum development, classroom instruction, and students' Chinese learning. First, I have attempted to provide an analytical description of the whole process of designing and conducting classroom language activities around the KF. The description of the process in Chapter 4, on the one hand, helps answer the question of how teaching was intentionally planned around the KF, and on the other hand, serves as the background from which student discourse was produced. Second, I have undertaken a discourse analysis of student texts in Chapter 5 in order to investigate the form-function relations and the formal realization of KSs in student language production so as to reveal how students benefited from the activities they had engaged in.

To examine the research questions, I used a variety of kinds of data: an examination of teachers' lesson plans, an analytical description of the actual conduct of activities in classrooms, an analysis of student texts, and an attitude study undertaken
through classroom observation and informal interviews with the students. Each of these kinds of data contributes to the understanding of the whole scene, different aspects of which are reflected from different perspectives.

The study was by no means one of high generalizability: the data were collected from only one elementary Chinese as a foreign language program in B.C. and the analysis of the data was mainly based on one teaching unit. But the results of the study do provide indications or implications which throw light on the possibilities of systematic form-function relations in the classroom, the integration of language and content learning, and on further directions for intentional planning. In the following, the five specific questions which directed the study will be discussed separately with the conclusion of the study at the end.

1). How is teaching planned around the KF and how are the plans implemented in the classroom?

A content based approach was adopted in the elementary Chinese as a foreign language program that was investigated. As revealed in Chapter 4, in this program teaching was planned on the basis of relevant thematic topics instead of linguistic units. Once a topic was chosen, it was broken down into six types of knowledge or knowledge structures and a series of language activities around the KSs was designed. Thus, the KF was used as an organizational framework of classroom activities.

For the unit under study, activities were designed for the KSs involved in both action situations and theoretical background. To engage in activities in describing, sequencing, and choosing situations, the students had also to be involved with the KSs of classification, principles, and evaluation which provide the relevant background.
information of the activities. Mohan points out, "language learning in action situations is ... more than learning to speak appropriately. It includes talking about and learning about reasons for acting" (Mohan 1986:55). In other words, to learn a language through activities, two aspects are involved. One is to learn to use the target language to act, such as to describe, to sequence, and to make choices. The KSs involved in this action aspect are description, sequence, and choice. The other aspect is to develop a theoretical understanding of the actions to be taken and the ability to talk about this understanding. The KSs involved in this theoretical aspect are classification, principles, and evaluation. Very often, second or foreign language teaching stops at the action level and hence limits the range of form-function relations in students' target language development. The study shows that intentional planning of teaching around the KF can help overcome this problem. Classroom language activities may have to be intentionally organized to cover all the KSs so as to provide the students with opportunities for the use of language associated with a variety of KSs.

Let us take the activities of sequence and principles as an example. In the case of sequence, the students were invited to sequence their daily events in the form of a journal. This activity provided the students with the opportunities for the use of the language of sequence which is the language used in action situations. But teaching did not stop at sequence. The students were further required to talk about the reasons behind their daily events. By thinking and talking about reasons, the students were led to engage in a higher level cognitive activity, i.e., principles. What is worth mentioning is that talking about reasons behind daily events did not occur automatically following the activity of sequencing daily events. Without intentional planning to make it happen, the students might have not engaged in a principles activity at all. Without engaging in principles activity, the students could not have gained the opportunity to use the language associated with principles. Classroom activities probably have to be intentionally organized to cover
a variety of KSs in order to provide the students with opportunities for the use of language associated with a variety of KSs.

Though teaching has to be planned, the actual conduct of the designed activities might not strictly follow the time frame as desired, depending on the real situation of the classes and the students. The initial plan seems to serve as a guideline to start with. In the program under study, it was in the real teaching situation where the teacher and the students interacted with each other that a live curriculum was gradually developed on the basis of the initial planning.

The use of graphic organizers is another important aspect of the implementation of the plan. For the activities of every KS, there were graphic organizers designed to go with it. These graphic organizers first served as worksheets which the students had to complete by using the target language. They also helped students understand the message content better. Then, the completed worksheets were used as visual aids to help the students organize ideas or content and language to produce longer discourse. These graphic organizers that go with different KSs played a very important role in helping the students produce the discourse of different KSs.

In sum, a content topic is the starting point of a teaching plan. Around the chosen topic, activities have to be intentionally planned to cover a variety of KSs in order to provide opportunities for a wider range of form-function connections in student discourse. The plan has to adapt to the actual situations of classes and students, and graphic organizers that accompany the KSs are a key to the successful implementation of the plan.
2. What is the relationship between the students' involvement in the activities organized around the KF and the students' use of the target language?

The result of the study further supports the view that "activity mediates linguistic and sociocultural knowledge and knowledge and activity impact one another" (Ochs 1988:15). It is in the engagement of the activities that the students used their existing sociocultural knowledge and gained new knowledge in order to reach certain social or cultural goals. It is also in the engagement of the activities that the target language was used by the students. The content of the activities influenced what knowledge and language would be utilized. At the same time, the knowledge and language skills that the students had and gained played a role in directing the actual conduct of the activities. But it is activity that is the key for generating specific contexts in which knowledge and language can play a role.

As revealed by section 4.4, the activities the students engaged in provided the opportunities for knowledge (i.e., what speakers and hearers can be assumed to know), situation (i.e., social circumstances), and text (i.e., linguistic context) to go together to form contexts in which the students gained new knowledge and used the target language. First, the activities organized around the KF activated the knowledge that the students already had and generated the knowledge that was new to the students. The knowledge was of different kinds depending on the KSs involved in the activities. Second, they created certain social situations associated with different KSs in which a need for communication existed. Third, they provided the opportunity for texts of different KSs to be produced to contextualize further discourse production.

In sum, the conduct of the designed classroom language activities around the KF provided opportunities for students' existing knowledge to be activated, new knowledge
generated, and situations or social circumstances formed. The knowledge and situation worked together, contextualizing discourse. Existing discourse worked together with knowledge and situation to recontextualize further production of student discourse. Since activities of different KSs contextualized discourse of different KSs which involved specific linguistic features associated with different KSs, they played a role in eliciting student discourse with a broader range of form-function relations under the same content topic.

3). What is the students' attitudes towards the activities organized around the KF?

The data on students' attitude towards the activities gathered from two sources (i.e., classroom observation on students' participation and informal interviews with the students) seem to suggest that the students enjoyed participating in the activities and the accomplishment they achieved by engaging in these activities. The graphics helped make the tasks easier for the students and the language product elicited by the activities and facilitated by the graphics gave the students a sense of accomplishment.

4). What systematic form-function relations appeared in the student discourse arising from the classroom language activities?

One of the findings reported in Chapter 5 shows that the classroom language activities organized around the KF did bring with them a broad range of form-function connections. All the texts produced by the students are around the same content topic: Personal Information. Nevertheless, the texts produced expressed a variety of functions including Describing, Classifying, Sequencing, Reasoning, making Choices, and Evaluating through Comparing and Contrasting. These are actually also the discourses involving different KSs. In student discourses, the functions or KSs are formally or
linguistically realized in a variety of ways depending on the specific KS encoded in a specific text.

The second finding reported in Chapter 5 shows that the form and function connections brought by the activities organized around the KF are very systematic around the KSs. For the six major KSs, there exists both vertical and horizontal consistency (see Table 5.2.6.a.). Vertically, transitivity processes usually show the connection between a KS at the theoretical level and the relevant one at the practical level. Horizontally, the specific-generic distinction in reference often gives a clue to the connection between the KSs at the same theoretical or practical level.

In sum, students' texts produced as a result of engaging in the classroom language activities organized around the KF have successfully expressed a variety of functions or semantic relations under a single content topic. Every function or semantic relation is linguistically or formally realized in a variety of ways. The range of form-function relations in the students' texts is broad and fairly systematic.

5). What are the appropriate ways to analyze student task discourse and how far do student tasks reflect knowledge structures in a Chinese as a foreign language teaching situation?

Knowledge Structure Analysis (KSA) was adopted as an approach to student discourse analysis in the study. The approach is based on the theory of the KF and draws upon the work of systemic-functional linguistics (see Halliday 1985, 1994, Martin 1992, 1985, Eggins 1994, etc.), and ethnographic research (see Section 3.1.4 for details). The result of text analysis provides evidence that KSA is a feasible way to analyze student task discourse in terms of systematic form-function relations because Knowledge
Structures incorporate semantic relations with linguistic realizations that can be categorized in a constructive manner. KSA applies to Mandarin Chinese as well as English.

One of the findings of student discourse analysis shows that classroom language activities organized around the KF can bring the students opportunities to engage in tasks involving a variety of KSs in a Chinese as foreign language teaching situation. Analysis of student tasks, i.e., those in the form of oral interaction and written texts, suggests that student tasks can reflect all the KSs if only the students are given the chance to engage in activities of involving the KSs.

Conclusions

Though it is a fact that conditions were less than ideal for the conduct of classroom language activities organized around the KF in this particular elementary Chinese as a foreign language teaching program\(^1\), the data obtained in various ways on the unit of Personal Information show that intentional teacher planning around the KF which links language and content can lead to the development of student discourse which shows systematic form-function connections. The KF seems to be a feasible way of analyzing content or topics in foreign language classrooms. Moreover, interesting or relevant topics can lead to systematic use of specific features of language by foreign language students in the ways indicated by the KF analysis of the topic. A content topic is the starting point of a teaching plan. Around the chosen topic, activities have to be intentionally planned to cover a variety of KSs in order to provide opportunities for a wider range of form-function connections in student discourse. The plan has to be

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\(^1\) For instance, some of the designed activities had to be conducted in the small special group instead of regular classes because of time pressures. See Chapter 4 for detailed description.
adapted to the actual situations of classes and students and graphic organizers that go with the KSs are a key to the successful implementation of the plan.

The analysis of linguistic realizations has revealed obvious form-function connections in student discourse. The texts produced by the students as a result of engaging in the classroom language activities organized around the KF have successfully expressed a variety of semantic relations on a single content topic. Every semantic relation is linguistically or formally realized in a variety of ways. The range of form-function relations in the students' texts, produced as a result of engaging in the designed activities of various KSs on the same topic, is broad and fairly systematic.

With a focus on form-function connections in discourse, the study goes beyond sentence or syntax level and looks at the discourse development of foreign language students. It indicates the possibility of facilitating and analyzing students' language development at the discourse level with a focus on form-function connections in a content-based foreign language program.

Though the research study was undertaken to examine an elementary Chinese as a foreign language teaching program, the result of the study does throw light on the possibilities of systematic form-function relations in the classroom, the integration of language and content learning, and on further directions for intentional planning in any other second or foreign language teaching programs.

6.2. Recommendations for Further Research
This study of form-function connections in an elementary Chinese as a foreign language teaching situation has indicated the feasibility and effects of using Mohan's KF in teaching a foreign language to young beginners. It describes how foreign language teaching and cultural learning can be intentionally organized around the KSs at the level of both curriculum design and classroom implementation. By analyzing the data in the KSA approach, the study has revealed the systematic nature of the form-function relations in the student discourse. It also shows how KSs are formally or linguistically realized in the interactions and written work of young foreign language learners.

This study is the first attempt to use the KF to investigate the form-function connection issue in a foreign language teaching situation. While having produced some encouraging results, it has also raised some important questions for future investigation.

As revealed in Chapter 4, though activities had been designed for all the major KSs, it was almost always the activities of the KSs at higher cognitive level (i.e., classifying, principles, and evaluation) that tended to be left out when teachers felt pressured by time limitations. If to engage in activities involving various KSs is important to bringing about a wider range of form-function connections, it is worthwhile studying what makes activities of higher level KSs a lower priority in the reality of teaching even though they are significantly important for students' language and cognitive development. The results might indicate solutions to the equal treatment of activities of all the KSs.

KF analysis is complementary to genre analysis, as was mentioned earlier. It would be valuable to research how a KF approach and a genre approach could mutually support each other in the classroom.
This study has illustrated the integration of language and content learning and particularly the learning of language and the learning of culture. For example, in the unit on Personal Information, students learned something about the daily activities of students in China. KSs were a central organizer for cultural learning just as they were a central organizer for language learning, though the major emphasis of the thesis is on the language aspect. Future research could examine the learning of culture more systematically.

While the study sheds light on the possibilities of systematic form-function relations in the classroom, the integration of language and content learning, and on further directions for intentional planning, the findings are mainly based on an investigation of a Chinese as a foreign language teaching situation. Teachers or researchers who have access to students learning other languages as additional ones can conduct similar studies to investigate the impact of the KF on students' language and cultural learning in other situations.

Finally, while KSA was used in the study as an approach to student discourse analysis in order to investigate the form-function connection issue, the approach shows the potential for being used as a tool for assessing students' language development at the discourse level. An investigation of utilizing the KSA approach for systematic assessment of students' language development at the discourse level will surely be a great contribution to the discussion of form-function connection issues in both language acquisition theory and language teaching practice.
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APPENDICES

Appendix A
Original Plan

Appendix B
A Sample of the Completed Charts

Appendix C
Samples of Flash Cards and Pictures as Visual Aids

Appendix D
Samples of Description Texts by the Students

Appendix E
Samples of Sequence Texts by the Students

Appendix F
Original Texts by the Students

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Lesson 1

**Topic:** Reviewing Personal Info, and School + Family

**Function:** Describing and Classifying

**Key Visual:** Chat 1, Color Chart

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>身份证</th>
<th>名字</th>
<th>年级</th>
<th>班级</th>
<th>学号</th>
<th>邮箱</th>
<th>公司</th>
<th>邮编</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Teacher models "how to" fill out the chart and shows what language it can generate.
   a. Using a picture of a fictional bag and a drawn chart on the board or large chart paper, fill out the info boxes together.

b. Teacher models the sentences + students repeat.
   - Tā jiào ______
   - Tā shì ______
   - Tā suì ______
   - Tā de shēngrì ______ yuè ______ hào
   - Tā shì ______ rén
   - Tā bù gōngzuò
   - Tā shǐ zhùnxué
   - Tā shàng ______ niánjì
Teacher: Lǎoshī shì — Lǎoshī.

c. Teacher models entire passage and helps students to give the same.

d. Repeat for a fictional girl.

e. Teacher hands out a copy of the chart and students fill out only information about him/herself.
f. Teachers asks a student using questions given to give his info.
g. Using questions on side of chart, students ask another student and fills in another line of chart.

1. Nǐ jiào shénme míngzi?
2. Nǐ shì nàr lái de ma?
3. Nǐ shì nǎr hái de ma?
4. Nǐ jì suǒ?
5. Nǐ shì nàr guì rén?
6. Nǐ qǐ zì wù ma?
7. Nǐ shì yì yuè ma?
8. Nǐ shì nǎr huì néng xià?
9. Nǐ shì yì yuè néng xià?
10. Nǐ de shì zēng jié yuè pǐ zì?
11. Nǐ de shì zēng jié yuè pǐ zì?

f. If time permits, students continue to ask & fill out chart.

3. Homework

Students practice asking and answering using chart.

Practice: In students write Mandarin as a first language.
Lesson 2

1. Using a [large chart] for the class, the teacher asks for a volunteer to be the "recorder." Several students may take turns or pairs of students may work together (one to record and one to check/listen for answers). The teacher invites 2 students at a time to come to the front to introduce their partner using **Ta _____________.**

2. The teacher invites 2 students at a time to come to the front to introduce their charts to **ask/answer** using Ni ___________ and W8 ___________.

3. Homework: Students fill out a similar chart for members of their family.

---

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Lesson 3

1. Teacher teaches/reviews
   duōshǎo?  jǐ?
   Zhèi  ge  bān  yǒu  duōshǎo  ge  rén?
   Nǐ  jià  yǒu  duōshǎo  ge  rén?
   Wǒ  jià  yǒu  duōshǎo  ge  rén.

2. Students tell about their family members, using homework chart.

3. Using class chart, find out "how many"
   Duōshǎo  ge  rén  shì  rén  bái?
   nǚ  hái?
   Jiānádà  rén?
   shí  suì?
   shí  yì  suì?
   gēngzuò?
   Shāngxué?

4. Homework: Practice charts into daily.
Lesson 4

1. Using Chart 3 and Color Chart, play a guessing game. Teacher gives description, students guess.

Chart 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>nú</th>
<th>nán</th>
<th>wū</th>
<th>sūi</th>
<th>yù</th>
<th>fèi</th>
<th>guò</th>
<th>gēng</th>
<th>zú</th>
<th>zhèng</th>
<th>wù</th>
<th>kù</th>
<th>yì</th>
<th>sè</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kù</td>
<td>yì</td>
<td>sè</td>
<td>kù</td>
<td>yù</td>
<td>fèi</td>
<td>guò</td>
<td>gēng</td>
<td>zú</td>
<td>zhèng</td>
<td>wù</td>
<td>kù</td>
<td>yì</td>
<td>sè</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example:
- Ta shì nán hái.
- Ta shì jīnándà rén.
- Ta chū shàng xué.

2. Students give description. Students answer:

- Ta shì shéi?
- Ta chūn lán xié?

3. Homework. Practice charted info.

Color Chart:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>hóng</th>
<th>lán</th>
<th>hēi</th>
<th>lǜ</th>
<th>huáng</th>
<th>bái</th>
<th>zōng</th>
<th>jī</th>
<th>shì</th>
<th>píng</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>red</td>
<td>blue</td>
<td>black</td>
<td>green</td>
<td>yellow</td>
<td>white</td>
<td>brown</td>
<td>jī</td>
<td>shì</td>
<td>pink</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Appendix B
A Sample of the Completed Charts

Table One: Classify and describe your classmates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Billy</td>
<td>j</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>¥</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>Gurney</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeff</td>
<td>j</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>¥</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>¥</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>Gurney</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joel</td>
<td>¥</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>¥</td>
<td>¥</td>
<td>¥</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>Gurney</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mega</td>
<td>¥</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>¥</td>
<td>¥</td>
<td>¥</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>Gurney</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ziek</td>
<td>¥</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 1
Table Two: Classify and describe your family members.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family member</th>
<th>nán</th>
<th>nǚ</th>
<th>suì</th>
<th>shèngrì</th>
<th>yuè</th>
<th>hào</th>
<th>guò</th>
<th>gòngzuò</th>
<th>shàngxué</th>
<th>niánjì</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dìdì</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>男</td>
<td>丙</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>⑤</td>
<td>①</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mèimǔ</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>女</td>
<td>乙</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>⑥</td>
<td>①</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>māmā</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>女</td>
<td>甲</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>⑦</td>
<td>①</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bābà</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>男</td>
<td>戊</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>⑧</td>
<td>①</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 2
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>mǐngzi</th>
<th>shàngyī</th>
<th>kùzi</th>
<th>qúnzi</th>
<th>lányīqún</th>
<th>xié</th>
<th>wàzi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>shēn</td>
<td>qī</td>
<td>hēi</td>
<td>quān</td>
<td></td>
<td>hēi</td>
<td>quān</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bái</td>
<td>lán</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Guessing game: Tā shì shéi?

Chart 3
Table Four:  
Classify your classmates according to the month they were born.

<p>| | | | | | | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>一月</td>
<td>二月</td>
<td>三月</td>
<td>四月</td>
<td>五月</td>
<td>六月</td>
<td>七月</td>
<td>八月</td>
<td>九月</td>
<td>十月</td>
<td>十一月</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>人</em></td>
<td>0人</td>
<td>一人</td>
<td>二人</td>
<td>三人</td>
<td>四人</td>
<td>五人</td>
<td>六人</td>
<td>七人</td>
<td>八人</td>
<td>九人</td>
<td>十人</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Wǒmen bān yǒu ________ ge rén.  
   我们班有 ________ 个人。

2. ________ ge rén de shēngrì zài ________ yuè.  
   ________ 个人的生日在 ________ 月。

3. ________ ge rén de shēngrì zài ________ yuè.  
   ________ 个人的生日在 ________ 月。

4. ________ ge rén de shēngrì zài ________ yuè.  
   ________ 个人的生日在 ________ 月。

5. ________ ge rén de shēngrì zài ________ yuè.  
   ________ 个人的生日在 ________ 月。

6. ________ ge rén de shēngrì zài ________ yuè.  
   ________ 个人的生日在 ________ 月。

7. ________ ge rén de shēngrì zài ________ yuè.  
   ________ 个人的生日在 ________ 月。

8. ________ ge rén de shēngrì zài ________ yuè.  
   ________ 个人的生日在 ________ 月。

9. ________ ge rén de shēngrì zài ________ yuè.  
   ________ 个人的生日在 ________ 月。

10. ________ ge rén de shēngrì zài ________ yuè.  
    ________ 个人的生日在 ________ 月。

11. ________ ge rén de shēngrì zài ________ yuè.  
    ________ 个人的生日在 ________ 月。

12. ________ ge rén de shēngrì zài ________ yuè.  
    ________ 个人的生日在 ________ 月。

13. ________ ge rén de shēngrì zài ________ yuè.  
    ________ 个人的生日在 ________ 月。
Graphic One:
Classify your classmates.

míngzi:       六
niánjí:       六
lǎoshī:       五

Chart 5b
Daily Activities:

**Early Morning:**
- 7:30-8:45: Get up, get dressed, make bed, wash, eat, practice Korean, get ready for school

**Morning:**
- 8:45-10:15: go to school
- 10:15-10:30: play at recess
- 10:30-12:00: work in school

**Noon:**
- 12:00-1:00: eat & play at lunch

**Afternoon:**
- 1:00-3:00: work in school
- 3:00-6:00: play road hockey & eat

**Evening:**
- 6:00-9:00: go to library

**Night:**
- 9:00-12:00: go to bed

Chart 6
Daily Life Timetable

早上
6:45-10:15  chuan yi, shuoyi, chi zaofan
10:15-10:30  zhumbei shangxue, qu shangxue
10:30-12:00  kaisi, shangke, shangke
12:00-1:00  kexian xiuji, wanda
1:00-3:00  shangke

中午 12:00-1:00  chi wanda wucaan

下午 1:00-3:00  shangke

kewai, huodong (wanda)

晚上
chi wanda wucaan

zhמבei: shuijiao

Chart 7

293
List in Chinese three things you do every day and give the reasons for doing them: What will happen if you don’t do them?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>what you do</th>
<th>reasons of doing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>shùijìào</td>
<td>我不 shùijìào 我 hui kǔn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>chīfàn</td>
<td>我不 chīfàn 我 hui è</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>shūjìà</td>
<td>我不 shūjìà 我 hui 不 jiànkāng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shijian (time)</td>
<td>huodong (activity)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>早上</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7:00 - 7:45</td>
<td>qi chu xue shi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7:45</td>
<td>qu shang xiao</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>上午</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8:00</td>
<td>class begins</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8:00 - 12:00</td>
<td>shang ke</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>中午</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:00 - 2:00</td>
<td>chi wu fan, xiu xi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>下午</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:00 - 4:00</td>
<td>shang ke</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4:00 - 5:00</td>
<td>ke hui huo dong</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5:00</td>
<td>hui jia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>晚上</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6:00 - 7:00</td>
<td>chi wen fan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7:00 - 9:00</td>
<td>zuo lao cong congke</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>夜里</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9:00 - 10:00</td>
<td>shui you, xiao</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:00</td>
<td>shui jiao</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 11
Tell where you would like to be a student, in China or in Canada, by comparing nide rícháng shēnghuó with Lili de rícháng shēnghuó.

1. Duōshǎo gè xǐōngshī? (How many hours?)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>shàngkè</th>
<th>zuò gōngkè</th>
<th>wánr</th>
<th>kān dàinshi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nǐ</td>
<td>4:45hr.</td>
<td>0.30hr.</td>
<td>3:00</td>
<td>2 hr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lǐ</td>
<td>1:6 hr.</td>
<td>2:00hr.</td>
<td>1 hr</td>
<td>1 ah</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 12

2. Měitiān xuéxí duōshǎo xǐōngshī? Wǎnr duōshǎo xǐōngshī?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>xuéxí</th>
<th>wánr</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nǐ</td>
<td>5:30 hr.</td>
<td>3 hr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lǐ</td>
<td>8:00 hr.</td>
<td>1 hr.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 13

3. Compare and make decision:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>country</th>
<th>characteristics: time spent in xuéxí and wánr</th>
<th>compare: xuéxí duō/shǎo? wánr duō/shǎo?</th>
<th>choice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zhōngguó</td>
<td>xuéxí 8 hr. wánr 1 hr.</td>
<td>xuéxí duō wánr shǎo</td>
<td>Wǒ yuánhài Jiàn dà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jiānádà</td>
<td>xuéxí 8hr. wánr 3 hr.</td>
<td>xuéxí shǎo wánr duō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Tell about your preference using graphic 3.

Chart 14
Appendix C
Samples of Flash Cards and Pictures as Visual Aids
Samples of Description Texts by the Students

We have two rabbits. We put them in a cage. We go to school on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays. On Tuesdays and Thursdays we stay at home. We have some books to read and some games to play.

我叫李露田，你是我姐夫吗？

我是唐娜的爸爸。我手伤，你看我手

你在哪里呢？我在家里，我怕你妈

爸爸，你在哪里呢？我请你吃饭吗？
Wo shi nánhiti

Wo shi fá jìándàrén
I am Diaó An Nà, wǒde shēngzì = yuè tè hào.


Wǒ shì xuěshēng. Wǒ hù qíng
duó. Wǒde láoshi shì

Matthew láoshi. Wǒ shèng = nián. Wǒ de shēng yì nián bāi. Wǒ de

pēngyǒu shì Guó bī An é Eric. Wǒ de shì yìge xuěshēng at fān

Chalmers. Wǒ de yìge yuèguó. In my family there shì mămă, bàba,

zùmǔ, shì wǒ de gōng mei yu

zuò. Wǒ de hùhòu shì diǎn, mìmì, gēgē or génzi. (2)

Wǒde mādiān láoshi shì Chén láoshi. Wǒ de Shí hén

hào xuěshēng. Wǒde fāngkuò shì fēi hào. Wǒ de

shì yìge xuěshēng. Wǒde fāngkuò shì fēi bāi. Wǒ de

sì. Wǒde mān shì yìge hào. Wǒde bàba de

shǐ yuè. Wǒde mā yuè. Wǒde shēngzì yuè tè hào.
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We; ni hào. Wo buzhān hǎi, wo
shèngqì, jīn yī wǒ shī nǎo. Wǒ shī suī
wǒ yǒu mā ma, wǒ yǒu bāba. Wǒ
yǒu jī nü, Wǒ mèi yǒu jìwù. Wǒ
mèi yǒu gēge. Wǒ shāng wǒ yǐ qīfú
wǒ shāng huì shì, lǜ nián. Wǒ
chūn zì hūzì. Wǒ chūn hū shàngyì
wǒ yǒu zōng yīn. Wǒ chūn hū
dāzì. Wǒ hú gāngzú. Wǒ shíyì
wǒde láoshī shì, Gùbārēn láoshī,
Wǒde Yījù, shāng yī wǒng
Wǒde bāba, gāngzú shì, kēde ma ma hu

gāngzú, kēde yījù shāngyī
wǒ dī shèngdàn, hū, yī yī yǐn
yī lì gè fān, wǒ méi yǒu nǎng
yī rén, wǒ méi yǒu. Yī fān, wǒ yī
bīng, wǒ yóu jī, jī, wǒ yǒu kē. Wo
bā dōng, Zēng, Xīn, Lǎ, Kǎi, Qīng, Chén, Kāi, Shi,
Zhōu, Ai, Shān, Hūng, Lǎoshī.
wǒ shì Hào Měi Gê. wǒ bu nánpái
wǒ shì nánhuá. wǒ de shèngyī ÷ yuè
= hào. wǒ tê súi. wǒ shì shèi Gê.
qùi de shèngyī
lăoshí. wǒ chūan zì yì shèngyì. wǒ chūan
bài lù xǐ. wǒ shànghuà. wǒ shì
jíăng ài sên. wǒ de shèngyī jí jüè de mìng zhì.
shì kōnh u. jí jüè. jüè tê sùi. máma ÷ tê. ÷
bàba ÷ tê. sùi. wǒ shì mádâsin
lăoshí xī shì chên. lăoshí and Huâoëg
lăoshí. ÷
Wǒ shì měihāi. ❇️
Wǒ Qǐ sìt. ❇️
Wǒ shì Kǎnǎdàrēn. ❇️
Wǒ shì shèjīnrē. ❇️
Wǒ am wearing a t-shirt. ❇️ Wǒ chūăn
Wǒ am wearing a pair! ❇️
Wǒ am wearing tan shoes ❇️
Wǒ lìkè the jacket. ❇️
Wǒ play nintendo. ❇️

Cāng fēng wǒ jīn yīn fēi ài. ❇️ Wǒ hào shí ❇️
Wo shi shi jie tiao.

Wo shi yin beizi.

Wo shi dai yi zhe.

Wo shi gege.

Wo shi bu shigou.

Wo de mami is Mother.

Lao shi shi laoshi.

Wo shi nain hui.

Wo bo zi ni hui.

Bu shi hai.

Wo de yue a man and ba bai yige.

Shi wo jia to yi. H wo shang ye.

Wo mashin is Canada.
Wo jiao Ye Na Mei Wo shi nu hui Wo bu shi nan hui Wo
+ suicade shengke yue =+ Hao Wo shi Jianada ren.
Wo bu gangzuo shang xue
Wo shang wu nianjia cade
+ taoshi shi Gurney taoshi Wo
gou mei mei Wo yu di di Wo
gou nana Wo you baba Wo
menyou gege Wo menyou jieje.
Wo chuan bai shangyu Wo
chuan hei kuizi Wo chuan ze
xiei Wo chuan bai wazi
たじょう で はん つん
たんけ きょうぎ がん ぐい で
たんけ はん つん はん た
たんけ しゅ め はん た
たんけ しゅ てる はん み
たんけ しゅ てる はん み
たんけ しゅ てる はん み
我姓吴，小名：一。我是 mingzi 翁。姓：王。我得老shipì 是 Mrs. Gurney 老shipì。
我우디 女 huí。
我姓 shì 叶。
我又 Jià oá 大 rén。
我姓 Jordan。
我姓 shēngcì = youè + tōu hào。
我姓 shì mèi méi。
我姓 shì jì jìe jìe。
我姓 shì dì dì。
我姓 gé gé。
我姓 bà bà。
我姓 bà shì qīng zǐ。
Wò shì Pù Kùi Tǐng. Wò shì Nǔ
Wòde lǎoshì shì Gùněyí lǎoshì. Wòde
shēngrì ti yǒu tī hào. Wò tū sǐ. Wò
wò bì Gòngzhù. Wò chuăn lǎo kǔzi. Wò chuăn lǎo
shāngyì. Wò yòu gēgē. Wò yòu
mèi mèi. Wò yòu máma. Wò yòu bàba.
Wǒ shì náihái, wǒ jiào Kāng Guī Dēi.

Wǒ shì sūi. Wǒde shēngyì wù yuè, shí yī hào.

Wǒ shì gēgē. Wǒ bù shì jǐè jǐè. Wǒ you èr diǎn yì hān, měiyǒu liàng nián.


Làoshì, Wǒ bù shì nǚhái.
我是一品应该

我是一品

我有一个妈妈

我有一个爸爸

我是一个家庭

我不喜欢大海

我不喜欢寂寞

我不喜欢寒冷

我不喜欢悲伤

我不喜欢老师

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我喜欢语言
Appendix E
Samples of Sequence Texts by the Students

ST 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>序号</th>
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<tr>
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</tbody>
</table>

*Sequence Texts by the Students*

1. 晚上 你好 你去上班 了吗？
   - 你好 你去上班 了吗？
   - 你好 你去上班 了吗？
2. 我 去 上班
   - 我 去 上班
   - 我 去 上班
3. 我 在 上班
   - 我 在 上班
   - 我 在 上班
4. 你好 听 动听 了吗？
   - 你好 听 动听 了吗？
   - 你好 听 动听 了吗？
5. 听 我 在 上班
   - 听 我 在 上班
   - 听 我 在 上班
April 27, 1992
早上 7:00 我 qǐchuáng. Ránhou xǐzǎo.
Ránhou chī zǎo fàn. Ránhou chūanyī.
7:30 Shanghai, wo xian zhi xiang. Ránhòu chuáng, Zúhòu shuāngyā.

12:00 Xiǎwǔ wèi xīn chī wūròu. Wángtài hùn wú.
Ránhòu shìngkè.
早上7:30 我 xiān qǐ chuáng. Bàn hòu yì shǒu hàn xǐ liăn. Zú hòu zhǔ bǎi shàng xué. 8:00 diăn chī zǎofàn. 8:45 diăn 我 kāi shì shàngkè. Ránhòu shàngkè. Shàng kě yí shàng kě. Xiū xi qí àn shàng kě. Zhōng wǔ 12:00 chī wǎ fàn, wǎn xià wǎ 10:00 - 3:00 diăn shàng kě. 3:00 - 6:00 diăn qíng 我 kàn diàn shì jié dí shí wǔ yī ránhòu 我 zuò jiào tíng gāng kǎ. Wǎn shāng 6:00 - 7:00 diăn 我 chī wǎ fàn. Yǐ ěr 7:00 - 9:00 diăn kàn diàn shì jié dí shí wǔ 9:00 我 shū yǐ diào.
11:30-20 Wǎngshān wǒ xiān shēngqūnjīng

ránhòu chǐ zuòfàn

Zuìhòu kāishi shāngkè

12:30-12:50xiǎowǔ wǒ xiān chī wūfàn

wǎngqǐ wǒ wăn

ránhòu kāishi shāngkè

13:30-13:50 wǎnhū, wǒ xiān chī wūfàn, qǐn zuò jǐntīng gōngkè

Zhuóhèi shuǐjiāo hòu kǎishǐ shānkè

ránhòu dūshū

Zuìhòu shuǐjiāo

317
早上 7:35 作息时间调整

 рано вставать, заниматься.

上午 8:00 至 中午 准备

 上午 8:45 开始 上课 女生

 上午 8:45 开始 上课

 10:15 女生 休息 翘课 女生

 10:30-12:00 女生 上课。

 12:00 女生 至 午餐, 女生 上课

 午餐。

 1:00 开始 上课, 女生 上课

 3:00 女生 午饭 后 作息.

 6:00 至 中午

 8:00 至 晚餐 后 保健

 9:00 至 夜宵 后 晚安.
7:00 早上 axiom 我 ichtung hǎnkòu
我 xīzǎo zúkòu zhǔn bèi
shànghuì
dángxuè.
8:45 上千 kāishǐ shăngkè.
10:15 开幕 xīnài.
10:30 shăngkè.
12:00 中 chī wǒ fàn hòu wān.
1:00 下午 dànghǎi.
3:00 开始 chōng dòng qǐ mián jǐ wǎn
rǎnkòu Kāndiān shī.
5:00 Kāndiān shǐ zhǔn bèi shuǐjiào.
9:00 shuǐjiào.
| 早上 7:00-7:30 | 我先泡完早餐后再煮早饭 |
| 3:20 |  |

| 早上 8:00-10:00 | 早饭快点吃 hasshengke 早饭 10:15  |
| chi shǎngcì 我们早上 |  |

| 3:20 |
|  |

| 早上 10:00-12:00 | zúihǎo 我吃早饭和鸡腿饼 |
| 3:20 |  |

| 早上 12:00-14:00 | shárì shǎngcì 早上 10:15  |
| chi wǎnfàn hǎn shuǐjiǔ |  |

<p>| 早上 14:00-16:00 |  |
| 3:20 |  |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
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</table>
| 7:30  | 睡醒
| 8:15  | 早餐，8:30 吃早饭
| 8:45  | 早班，8:45-10:15 上班，10:15 开班
| 11:00 | 午休，10:30-12:00 上班，12:00-12:10
| 12:10 | 吃午饭，12:10-1:00 午饭，11:00-12:00 上班
| 3:10  | 做中午饭，3:10-5:30 午餐
| 5:15  | 吃晚饭，6:15-9:00 晚饭
| 7:30  | 晚饭，7:30-7:30 吃晚饭

321
上五 t₁ = t to t₂ = -五 闕 現 定牌

上鉢. 率 后 kāishǐ shàngkè. 率 后

wǒ shàngkè.

t₁ = -五 to t₂ = + wǒ wán yínwèi it

shì kējiān xiūxī.

下五 t₁ = 00 to t₂ = 00 wǒ xiān chī wūfàn.

前 wǒ wán. At t₁ = 00 kāishǐ shàngkè.

率 后 wǒ shàngkè.

Wǎnshāng t₁ = -五 to t₂ = + wǒ zuò jiāntíng

gòngkè. 后 wǒ dūshù hé hàn diànshì.

祖后 wǒ shī wǎnfan.

后 wǎnfan t₁ = 00 - t₂ = 00 wǒ dūshù. 率 后

wǒ shuāyá. wǒ xíshāo hòu wǒ xǐliǎn.

祖后 shuǐlào..
Zǎo shàng xǐ tī dào 8:45 我 jiào le chū lǐ

zǎo fàn, Rán hòu 我 chuǎn yì, 我 shuì yě hǎo wànɡ. Zú hòu kāshì shànɡkè.


zhōnɡ wǔ, 我 xiàn chǐ wǔ rân hòu wànɡ．

xià wǔ, 我 shànɡkè hòu hàn diànshí, wǎn qán zú jià tīnɡ ɡōnɡkè.

zǎo shang, 我 chǐ wǎn fàn, Rán hòu 我 zhùn bèi shuǐ jiāo. Zú hòu 我 shuǐ jiāo.
早上 7:30 我洗脸 吃饭。然后

转车。吃早饭 后 准备。

上午 8:45-10:15 吃 早餐。

午饭 后 吃午饭。中午 12:00-1:00 做事。

下午 1:00-3:00 吃 早餐。3:00-3:30

做 事情。3:30-5:00 做

晚上 5:00-7:00 吃 晚饭。

然后 吃晚饭。读书 赶去 做

夜里 9:00-7:30 吃 晚饭。

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5T 34

Zōng Shāng 7:30 dào wǒ qǐchóng.

hē Rán rào xīshōu, hē Rán hòu xīlián.

Qún wò xǐ tí zǎo tān wǒ hē
cháoyì Rán hòu shāng. Zú hòu
wō hū zhūnbi shāngxué.

Shàng wù 8:45 dào kānsī
shāng kē Shāngkē ēn. 10:30
dào kējiàn xuǎn. 10:30 dào
shāng kē.

Zhōng wǔ 12:00 dào wǒ
yē chī wùfàn hē wán
100 dào Shāngkē. Xia wǒ
3:00 dào wǒ kàn diànhǐ
hē zòu jiàoshíng gōngkē.

Wàn Shāng 5:00 dào wǒ chī wǎn
dào. Wò bìxiū zhūbèi Shānjiāo. 8:05 dào
wǒ kàn diànhǐ. 9:15 dào qí 9:30
dào wǒ bìxiū (go to bed).
早上我 xǐan qǐ chuāng.
Ránhòu fēi chuānyì Xiān
hòu xǐ shǒu, Shānyá qián
chì zǎofàn, Zúihòu zhǔnbèi
Shàng xué.
8:45-10:15 上午 Kǎishí Shāngkè
10:15-10:30 Ránhòu, Kējiàn Xuéxí.
12:00-1:00 早午我 xǐn chī wùfàn.
Ránhòu wǎnr.
1:00-3:00 下午 shǎngkè
3:00-6:00 Kèwài huódòng.
Ránhòu wǎnr, Kǎn diànsì qián
zuò jiàntíng gāngkè.
féi xiān chī wǎntán.
Ránhòu Kǎn diànsì Dàshā qián
xiǎo, Zúihòu zhǔnbèi shuǐ jiāo.
上午我 xǐăn qiăchuáng

ránhòu 我 chuăn yì. Chuăn yì hòu
shuōyā, ránhòu chi zăofān.

上午我 zhǔn bèi shāngxué

ránhòu 我 shāngkè, 10:00
dào 10:30, 我 yǒu kējiān xiūxī

hè 我 wăn. kējiān xiūxī hòu 我

shāngkè.

中午 12:00 dào 1‘00 我 chī
wǔfàn. Ránhòu 我 wăn. xiǎwnǔ

wǒ shāngkè, 3:00 shāngxué hòu wǒ
hújià. wǒ zuò jiàjǐng gòngkě hòu

wǒ kàn diănshī

fèishang juăn 我 yǒu chī wănfàn

ránhòu wǒ kàn diănshī. Wăn
shuǐjiăo 我 zhǔn bèi shuǐjiăo

Zūihòu  jiăi wǒ shuǐjiăo.
My Daily Plan

1. 早上 7:00 起床
   吃早餐，然后
   去学校

2. 上午 8:45 起床
   开始
   上课，10:15 到 10:30 休息
   吃饭
   然后
   上课

3. 中午 12:00 吃饭
   下午 3:00 起床
   写作业
   然后
   休息
   下午 4:00 休息

4. 晚上 5:00 起床
   吃晚饭
   6:30 到 8:00
   看电视
   然后

5. 晚上 8:45 整理，睡觉
   然后
   9:00 到 7:00 睡觉
 Xiǎn wǒ qǐ chǎng. Kānhòu wǒ xǐ zǎo.
Kānhòu wǒ zhǔ běi shāng xué. Qián wǒ
zhǔ běi shāng xué wǒ Kāndiǎnshì.
Rānhòu wǒ Kāndiǎnshì (huì) shāng xué.
Kānhòu wǒ kǎi shǐ shāng kē. Rānhòu
wǒ chǐ wù tān. Zuì hòu wǒ yǒu chī wàn
fàn. Rānhòu wǒ shè jī bā wǒ qǐ chǎng.
Rānhòu wǒ chī zào fàn. Rānhòu wǒ
shāng xué. Rānhòu kāi shǐ shāng kē.
上午 6:00-8:00 无 qǐchuáng．

Ránhòu wǒ chūănghě. Shuāyá qǐán

chǐ zǎo fàn．Ránhòu shuāyá．

上午 8:00-10:15 wǒ kāishǐ shàngkè．

Ránhòu shàngkè．

10:15-10:30 wǒ kējǐn xiūxì．

10:30-12:00 wǒ kāishǐ shàngkè．

Ránhòu shàngkè．Ránhòu wúfàn．

Wán qǐén chǐ wúfàn．

12:00-3:00 wǒ shàngkè wǒ chǐ wúfàn．
早餐 7:00-8:00 吃点心
过完之后，洗漱，洗脸，洗手。

早饭后洗漱，洗脸，洗手。

上午 9:00-10:00 洗衣
10:00-11:00 洗衣
11:00-12:00 洗衣

中午 12:00-13:00 吃午饭

下午 13:00-15:00 洗衣
15:00-17:00 洗衣
17:00-18:00 洗衣

晚餐 18:00-19:00 吃点心

晚餐后，洗漱，洗脸，洗手。

晚上 19:00-20:00 洗衣
20:00-21:00 洗衣
21:00-22:00 洗衣

早睡早起，洗漱，洗脸，洗手。
早上6:45 我去学校吃早饭。
我到了之后8:02全校准备
上早会。8:20 上早会。
上午我们开会活动。10:15
我们上。
中午1:00 我去山上吃饭。
3:00 我到学校。5:00 我
吃午饭饭。6:00 我去电
视。
夜里9:20 最后我出去学习。
早上

6:30-6:45 从床上醒来，然后洗漱、洗脸、刷牙。

早饭

上午

8:00-8:30 吃早饭，然后开始工作。

上午

9:00-11:30 工作时间。

午饭

中午 11:30-12:00 吃午饭，然后继续工作。

下午

1:00-3:00 工作时间。

下午

3:00-5:00 吃晚饭，然后继续工作。

晚上

6:30-9:00 晚饭后，然后休息睡觉。
早 6:30 我 xiān qǐchuán.
Ránhòu 我 chuǎnyǐ hàn chǐ zāofàn. Xíshǒu hàn xíliǎn qián zhǔnbèi shàngxué. 8:45 kāishǐ shǎnkè.

Xià wǔ xiān 我 chī wǔfàn
Chī wǔfàn qián shǎnkè. Zào jiàotíng gōngkè qián 我 huījiā.

日 士 上 我 chī wǎn fàn.
7:00 dào 8:00 zhǔnbèi shuǐjiǎo.
Zúnhòu 8:30 shuǐjiǎo.
早上 7:30 我 xǐng qǐ huáng tiān。
Rán hòu 7:45 我 kàn diàn shì。我 
kàn diàn shì hòu chǐ zǎo fàn。我 
Kàishí shàng kē qián zú nǎ běi shàng kē。
Zuí hòu 我 shàng kē。

中午 12:00 我 xiǎn chī wù fàn。 
Rán hòu 12:30 我 wǎn。我 wǎn hòu shàng kē 
我 qù jiā,qián shàng kē。Zuí hòu 我 
kàn diàn shì。

Wǎn shàng 5:00 - 5:30 我 xiǎn chuí wǎn fàn。 
Yě yǐ 6:00 我 xiǎn zúo jià lǐng gòng kē。 
Rán hòu wǎn wǎn。我 wǎn wǎn hòu kàn diàn shì。 
我 shuì jiào qián zhǔn bèi shuì jiào。 
Zuí hòu shuì jiào。
我

早上7:00, 我xiǎo qǐ zhàng. Bānghòu
7:30 我chī zǎofàn. Bānghòu chū xuǎn.

guǎn shuāyī 我zuò jīwù. Zhǔhòu 我qù shāngxué.

上午8:45 我xiān kāishǐ shāngkè. Bānghòu

Zhǔhòu kèjiān xìuxī, qián fēi shāngkè.

下午10:15 我shāngkè hòu zuò jìtīng
gōngzhī. Zhǔhòu wǒ wán.

晚上 我xiān chī wăn fàn. Bānghòu wǒ
tīng wăn hòu kàn diànshī.

夜里 我xiān xǐzào. Wǒ dūshí qián shūjíāo.
早上 7:00 起床。然后洗漱完毕。
上午 8:45 到 10:15 上课。
10:15 到 10:30 休息。接着午饭后上课。
中午 12:00 到 1:00 吃午饭。
下午 1:00 到 3:00 上课。
下课后有活动。
晚上 1:00 到 3:00 上课。
上课前吃晚饭。然后
准备睡觉。
晚上 9:00
teshujiào。
早上7:30我xiăng qí chuáng. zàotăn? zhūnbèi上学。Bàn hòu chī wăn făn. 
上午8:45 dào 10:15 wǒ kāishī shāngkē hē shāngkē, ránhòu 10:15 dào 10:30 
kèjiàn xiăixi hē wăn qú. 
10:30 dào 12:00 kāishī shāngkē. 
chī wăn făn? 

"开tuăn wănqì găo chī wăn făn, shāngkē hōu wăn qú. /
日xian wǒ xiăn zùă jìăng 
gōngkē, ránhòu wăn. Chī wăn făn, 
giăn kăn diănshì. Chī wăn făn hōu 
又里 wǒ xiăn zhūnbèi 
shǔjiăo. 
Zuîhou wǒ qù shǔjiăo."
早7:30 - 8:45 起床，

 ránhòu chéng chuàngyí

 ránhòu zhǔn bèi shàng xué

 早上 8:45 - 10:15 早餐，

 shàngkè ránhòu

 早上 chi kējiān xiūxí

 上午 10:15 - 10:30 午餐，

 kāishǐ shàngkè

 上午 10:30 - 12:00 早餐，

 shàngkè ránhòu zhǔn bèi wǔ fàn

 中午 12:00 - 1:00 午饭，

 下午 1:00 - 3:00 休息，

 wǒ shàngkè zuì hào

 傍晚 5:00 - 6:30 看报纸，

 wǒ zhǔn bèi shuǐ jiào

 傍晚 6:30 之后，

 wǒ shuǐ jiào
Weekdays:

早 6:10 我洗完以后开始洗脸，7:15

准备上学。

上午 8:30 - 10:30 语文，数学。

下午 1:40 做饭，1:40 - 3:30 语文，数学。

下午 3:30 问好，下午 5:30 吃晚饭。

晚上 9:00 准备洗漱。

睡觉。

Weekends:

上午 9:00 我洗完以后开始洗脸，直到午饭。

10:30 吃完午饭，11:30 - 12:30 吃午饭。

下午 5:00 吃晚饭，晚上 5:00 - 6:30 看电视、玩电脑。

晚上 8:00 吃饭，晚上 9:00 问好。

晚上 11:00 准备洗漱，睡觉，睡觉。
早上 7:00 - 8:00 未洗脸

之后 洗脸、刷牙。

之后 我拿了证 拿去上学。

今天 3:30 之前 我放学，回家。

放学后 未吃饭，晚上 坐在教室。

下 今天 5:00 - 6:30，未上课。

放学，晚上，回家 坐在教室。

因此 6:30 - 9:30 未吃晚饭。

之后，未睡觉。

之后，我未吃饭，回家。
我班有23个人,21个上小学,2个不上小学。

上小学的人有3个人为女生,20个人为男生。不读小学的人有14个是女孩,6个是男孩。不读小学的人有3个是女孩,0个是男孩。
Original Text 5.2.2.a.
我的名字是____。我是一個十歲大的加拿大女孩，我有工作並且在上学。目前我就讀____小學六年級。Field是我在校的老師。我的家庭裡有爸媽，我和弟弟。當我穿藍褲子，當我穿白鞋和白襪子的時候，當我穿白上衣或綠上衣的時候，我不會去穿綠褲子。我爸和都有工作，但是我弟弟沒有，他們都是加拿大人。我媽媽也愛穿白鞋和白襪子，她通常都穿淺粉紅色的裙子，她從不穿白上衣。
Wo jiào Wēi nǎi Lì.
Wo de shēngqì + yè = + hào.
Wo + - yǔ.
Wo - shàng xué.
Wo shàng yì nián jí.
Wo yǒu zōng - hair.
Wo yǒu zōng - eyes.
Wo yǒu mèi - mei.
Wo yǒu mā - mā.
Wo yǒu bà - bà.
Wo yǒu cat.
Wo mèi - yǒu, dog.
Wo shì nǚ - hǎi.

Original Text 5.2. 2.b.
你
2. 他是男的。
是的，他是开文。
是的，他是
ON－yue=t ha=g wǒ shì going
to 中镇。Wǒ shì fándáde rén.  

Original Text 5.2.2.d.
早上7:35 我先起来chuáng, ránhòu chūmài. 8:00 我xi

手ránhòu shuǐyá. 8:15 我上学qǐn chì, 早fàn, zuìhòu.

上学了, 上午, 8:45 我xǐn 上 lè, ránhòu kējìnxuè.

10:30, 我向上hào chì 午 fàn.

中午12:05 我xǐn chì 午 fàn, ránhòu wàn, 1200 我

shàngkè hòu zuò 家 tíng 功 kè, ránhòu wàn, 下午, 14:00

dào 16:00 我zuò 功 fù, ránhòu chì 晚 fàn.

晚上, 7:00 我xǐn xǐzǎo, ránhòu dūshū, 8:30 我

xǐn shuǐjiào.

The End

Original Text 5.2.3.a.
早晨

我洗完后，我穿衣服，洗衣服。

上午，我在图书馆。有时候我问老师，早上有什么安排。

然后，我在教室学习。我有时候走动，问老师，我有空。

然后，我做家务。有时候我做饭，然后看报纸。

吃完饭后，我在书房准备睡觉。
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6:00 - 7:00</td>
<td>Start work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7:00 - 9:00</td>
<td>End work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9:00 - 10:00</td>
<td>Morning meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:00 - 10:30</td>
<td>Breakfast time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:30 - 12:00</td>
<td>Lunch time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:00 - 14:00</td>
<td>Afternoon meeting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Original Text 5.2.3.d.
Mèitiān wò chǐ fàn, zǔo jiàtiang gōngjī, yī zāo yīn wèi wǒ huì rúguǒ wǒ bù chǐfàn wǒ huì è, rúguǒ wǒ bù zǔo jiàtiang gōngjī wǒ huì hùi bìng chuán le, rúguǒ wǒ bù xī zāo wǒ huì zāng

Original Text 5.2.4.a.

Mèitiān wǒ shuāng chǐ fàn hē shùi yěn, rúguǒ wǒ bù shuāng, wǒ huì zāng, wǒ bù chǐ fàn wǒ huì è, hē wó bù shùi yěn, wǒ huì hén hún hē hén lèi.

Original Text 5.2.4.b.

Wǒ Bixiū, chǐ zào, rúguǒ wǒ bù yào, chǐ gōngjī wǒ è, hē wó yìng hǎi, hē wó yìng hǎi, hē wó yìng hǎi, hē wó yìng hǎi. Wǒ Bixiū, xīzào, wǒ zāng.

Original Text 5.2.4.c.